# THE MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN KWAZULU-NATAL: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

by

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## DECLARATION

I declare that "The motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in KwaZulu-Natal: an education management perspective" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

5 October 2011

**GUNRAM DEHALOO**                    **DATE**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to:

My mother, Mahadeyi Dalloo, for teaching me lessons larger than life;

My wife, Radhika Dehaloo, for being the wind beneath my wings, my pillar of strength, support and encouragement throughout my studies;

My son Umreshin and daughter Kuraisha, for the joy they bring into my life, and for being such loyal, upright and obedient human beings.

*Education is a companion which no misfortune can depress, no crime can destroy no enemy can alienate, no despotism can enslave. At home a friend, abroad an introduction, in solitude a solace, and in society an ornament. It chastens vice, it guides virtue, it gives, at once, grace and government to genius. Without it, what is man? A splendid slave, a reasoning savage.*

*Joseph Addison, 1672-1719, English essayist.*

# ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to investigate the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. To this end, a literature study was undertaken on relevant theories and on the results of previous research on the issue. This was followed by an empirical investigation. The research design was a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. During the quantitative phase, a structured questionnaire was completed by 100 respondents from five secondary schools. The qualitative phase involved a phenomenological study in which 16 teachers from the same schools were interviewed.

This research found that the teachers generally exhibited high self-efficacies. Teachers with positive self-efficacies were more satisfied with their physical environments and their school's cultures than the others. However, teachers of different age groups, post levels and personality types were in agreement that the physical working conditions at rural schools were not conducive to effective teaching and learning. Parental involvement in school matters was restricted due to poverty and illiteracy. These factors served to lower teacher motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, teachers believed that school policies related to remuneration, safety and security, school governance, and assessments and evaluations needed to be revised if teacher motivation and job satisfaction were to be raised. Teachers were unhappy with their workloads and the multiple roles they played at school. With respect to interpersonal relations, their relations with their school principals, School Management Teams and parents were unconstructive. Many learners were also ill-disciplined and underachievers.

Some significant differences in perceptions were found. Male teachers were more satisfied with policies, interpersonal relationships and school organisation. African teachers were happier than Indian teachers with policies and the nature of the work. Teachers with 26 and more years of experience were less negative about their physical environments. Qualifications also made a difference: teachers with certificates only were the least satisfied with their physical environments, school organisation and structure. Most importantly, teachers who were given the opportunity to demonstrate their potential to be successful, was significantly more

satisfied with work-related issues. The study made recommendations to improve the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

**KEY TERMS**

motivation; job satisfaction; secondary school teachers; physical working environment; school policy and management; organisational structure, school culture and climate; nature of the job; interpersonal relationships

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| | |
|---|---|
| ACE | Advanced Certificate in Education |
| AIDS | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| ANA | Annual National Assessments |
| CAPS | Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement |
| CV | Curriculum Vitae |
| DA | Development Appraisal |
| DBE | Department of Basic Education |
| DOE | Department of Education |
| DPSA | Department of Public Services and Administration |
| EEA | Employment of Educators Act |
| ELRC | Education and Labour Relations Council |
| HIV | Human Immunodeficiency Virus |
| HSRC | Human Sciences Research Council |
| IQMS | Integrated Quality Management Systems |
| NAPTOSA | National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa |
| NATU | National Teachers Union |
| NCS | National Curriculum Statement |
| NEPA | Nation Education Policy Act |
| NTA | National Teaching Awards |
| OBE | Outcomes Based Education |
| OSD | Occupation Specific Dispensation |
| PM | Performance Management |
| RCL | Representative Council of Learners |
| RNCS | Revised National Curriculum Statement |
| SACE | South African Council of Educators |
| SAHRC | South African Human Rights Commission |
| SADTU | South African Democratic Teachers' Union |
| SAOU | Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwysers-Unie |
| SASA | South African Schools Act |
| SGB | School Governing Body |
| SMT | School Management Team |
| WSE | Whole School Evaluation |

# CHAPTER 1

# BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW

## 1.1    INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Education is considered to be the fifth most stressful profession (Kyriacou, 2001:30), and teaching in the secondary school is regarded as one of the top 10 tough jobs (Hayward, 2009b:4). There are various reasons for this as will be indicated.

The National Senior Certificate Examination results over the years have shown a staggering decline in percentage pass rates (Gower, 2010:3) – this, despite gigantic efforts made by the Department of Education (DoE) in conjunction with the private sector, non-governmental organisations, cultural and religious bodies and the electronic and print media. The several structured and monitored programmes of support failed in their bid to improve the quality and percentage pass rates at National Senior Certificate level (Serrao, 2010:4).

It is the belief of the researcher that the answer to the key issues regarding education in South African schools, in particular the underperforming schools, lies in the hands of School Management Teams (SMTs) and teachers. Research has shown, however, that teachers are unhappy about several issues relating to their profession (Kallaway, 2007:30; Kelehear, 2004:31-32; Roper, 2007:10). Advancements in science and technology, the introduction of computers and the internet, the multifunctional cell phone – all contribute to a unified, global village, but without the diligent classroom teacher, learners will fall by the wayside. Teachers are indeed the nation's human capital, and every endeavour needs to be made to ensure that teachers are well motivated for their work and experience job satisfaction.

The following are some of the behavioural manifestations of teachers who lack motivation and/or do not enjoy job satisfaction that have been observed by and

communicated to the researcher, in particular in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal: stress and burn-out, frequent absenteeism, regular leave-taking from school, underperformance of tasks given, conflict with supervisors and superiors, aggressive/rebellious demeanour towards colleagues and learners, lack of cooperation, lack of initiative to volunteer their services for task accomplishment, psychological withdrawal from work and early exits from the teaching profession. In conversations with teachers, many admitted to feelings of despondency. Many believed that they were unable to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching. Some frankly admitted to being less committed to their work and to be suffering from various ailments such as migraine headaches, heart complications, and ulcers. Teachers who were midstream in their careers felt that "the good old days of teaching are forever gone by" (*sic*).

The above indicates a decline in teacher morale, with dedicated teachers choosing to quit the profession in favour of other vocations. This 'brain drain' is negatively impacting on education, in particular on skills development. Research conducted by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (in Maniram 2007:4) revealed that teachers cite low levels of motivation and job satisfaction as reasons for wanting to quit the profession. Surveys show that teachers are unhappy about their remuneration packages, increased workloads, lack of tangible incentives, minimal opportunities for career advancements, no professional recognition for work done, unreasonable work policies and insecure work environment, among others (Maniram, *op. cit.*).

There is consensus that learners are the reason for the existence of schools (Protheroe, 2006:48). Dissatisfied and/or demotivated teachers are counterproductive to the aspirations of learners. According to Kelehear (2004:32), learners are perceptive beings who are able to attach meaning to phenomena around them. Learners quickly realise when teachers are underperforming. How do learners' respond to the negative stimuli elicited by demotivated teachers? Rowley (in Steyn, 2002:83) posits that some learners tend to adopt similar traits as that of the dissatisfied and demotivated teachers: their levels of focus, attention and achievement drop. These views are shared by Atkinson (2000:45-47) who maintains that teachers have a profound impact on learners: many serve as role-

models, and any change in attitude and/or behaviour, attracts negative responses from learners. However, not all learners react in the same way: the self-motivated achievers re-double their efforts, so as not to compromise their own achievement levels.

The Ilembe District of KZN comprises mainly rural and peri-urban (township) schools. Informal discussions with teachers from a cross section of secondary schools during subject cluster group meetings, union meetings, sports meetings, workshops and seminars, revealed that teachers face daunting challenges which militate against their levels of job satisfaction and motivation at schools. Industrial action spearheaded by teacher unions over the past few years, forced the employer (i.e. the DoE) to renegotiate working conditions of teachers (Department of Labour, 2008:35). To this end, visible improvements to teacher salaries and working conditions were introduced and implemented. However, in spite of these improvements, teachers still had serious misgivings about their vocation which impacted on their levels of job satisfaction and motivation. According to the teachers, their dissatisfaction had a domino effect on their performance in the classroom. As a consequence the learners, as the recipients of instruction, suffered the most. Teacher motivation and job satisfaction hence form the essence of this study.

Teachers in the schools of the Ilembe District also work under difficult conditions in comparison to their counterparts in the more affluent areas (Cohen, 2009:7). Incentives for teachers who work in these areas are inconsistent with incentives offered to employees who work in other government departments, and this situation impacts negatively on their levels of motivation and job satisfaction. Teachers argue that the existing salary structure, benefits and working conditions do not satisfy their basic needs in as much as other sectors of the economy have better salary structures, better motivation and enhanced working conditions. The Department of Health for example offers its employees scarce skills and rural allowance, whilst the Department of Safety and Security offers its employees danger and night duty allowances for services that they render (Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA], 2009). Teachers have decried this on many occasions but to no avail.

As formal institutions of learning, schools embrace a corporate culture and hence require corporate management for them to function effectively. Corporate school management requires the involvement of community bodies, such as religious organisations, welfare bodies, the business sector, non-governmental organisations, tribal leaders, security services and health service providers. These institutions ought to work in synergy to ensure that needs of the school and its community (i.e. learners, teachers and service providers) are adequately taken care of, in keeping with the dictum that it takes an entire community to raise a child (Witten, 2009:18). This scenario though, is visibly absent in many of the school communities in the Ilembe District and secondary schools in particular have to bear the brunt of working largely in isolation. Teachers in these schools have to deal with situations such as learner violence, aggression and intimidation, teenage pregnancies, alcohol and substance abuse, non-compliance to tasks given and so forth. Learner violence has been making headlines in secondary schools in the Ilembe District, resulting in temporary closures of schools (Dibetle, 2008:5; Mabitla, 2006:36). With the school terms revised and often shortened for various reasons (e.g. in the light of South Africa's hosting of the soccer world cup), teachers have the onerous task of syllabus completion, and interruptions and interferences only add to their woes.

Interpersonal relations on individual school campuses also play a significant role in the determination of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. A recent study conducted by the researcher (Dehaloo, 2008) on secondary schools in the Ilembe District has revealed that many schools are characterised by poor race relations, inherent bias in the appointment processes of education managers, prejudice of teacher unions during promotions, sectionalism, political interference and poor SMT-staff relations. The prevalence of these practices and situations serve only to demotivate teachers, given their expectation of working normally in an abnormal environment.

## 1.2    THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The democratic elections of 1994 transformed South Africa into a developmental state, with the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (Department of Education [DoE], 1996) defining policies and procedures that needed to be developed and introduced in schools. However, the education landscape in South Africa is currently littered with problems and anomalies.

In South Africa, the biggest slice of the education budget is spent on teacher personnel, yet learner results show no improvement in real terms (Serrao, 2010:4). In fact learner performances especially at secondary school level and tertiary levels are abysmal. The type of learner envisaged and envisioned in the post-apartheid and democratic era is indeed a far cry from what was anticipated. There is a wide chasm that has developed between the theoretical content of education statutes, including the South African Constitution, and the practical realities on the ground (Dehaloo, 2008).

The education problems are acute, as this study endeavours to elucidate, and as a consequence, job satisfaction and motivation of teachers is in constant question. Ololube (2006:1) maintains that job satisfaction and motivation are very crucial for the long-term growth of any educational system around the world. Herein lies the significance of this study. Needs satisfaction and motivation to work are essential in the lives of teachers so that they will do their work to the best of their abilities and address the numerous problems in schools. Teachers therefore constantly agitate for needs satisfaction (Ololube *ibid*).

The main research question of this study is thus: *How can the job satisfaction and motivation of secondary school teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal be improved?*

Motivated and happy employees generally strive for enhanced performances from their learners. However, empirical evidence shows that the performance of the South African learner in internationally bench-marked tests is, on average, about the worst in the world (Bloch, 2009b).

## 1.3    AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The study aims to determine how management can improve the job satisfaction and motivation of secondary school teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. To this end the particular aims of the study are to ascertain:

- how satisfied teachers of selected secondary schools in the Ilembe district are with the different aspects of their work;
- if different group of teachers differ significantly in their views of the above;
- what the correlations are between the different factors that cause motivation and job satisfaction;
- which factors are most motivational and/or give teachers *most* job satisfaction;
- which factors are least motivational and/or give teachers the *least* job satisfaction;
- what the effect is of a lack of motivation and low job satisfaction on teachers; and
- what can be done to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers.

In order to achieve the above-named aims, the researcher would review a number of the generic theories on job satisfaction and motivation of teachers. Theories that feature prominently in employee job satisfaction and motivation literature include content or needs-based theories, cognitive theories, as well as drive and reinforcement theories, among others. Research findings from similar studies both from within and outside the field of education would also be included for purposes of comparison and clarity. It is anticipated that the empirical findings from this study would help to describe and explain the factors that impact on the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers in a district of South Africa.

## 1.4    AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

### 1.4.1    Research design

The proposed design for this study is a mixed-methods approach, using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data collection methods involve the use of a structured questionnaire completed by the respondents during the first phase. During the second phase, qualitative methods are used. During this phase, interviews are conducted with participants of the same group (as in phase one). This is done to get greater clarity and depth on the results of the first phase. Thus, the design is a sequential explanatory design (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:401). This is indicated as: QUANT → *qual.*

According to authors (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:397; Schulze, 2003:12), educational researchers need both modes of inquiry to advance their understanding of teaching, learning and other human phenomena. Quantitative research is suited to theory testing and developing universal statements. These studies produce results that are generalisable across contexts. Qualitative studies, on the other hand, provide the researcher with in-depth knowledge, although this is often not generalisable. Qualitative research explores phenomena in specific contexts, articulate participants' understandings and perceptions and generates tentative concepts and theories that pertain to particular environments. Hence, by combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches, the researcher builds on the strengths of both.

### 1.4.2    Methods

The proposed methods that would be used in this study include
- a literature study and
- an empirical investigation by means of a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews.

### 1.4.2.1    Literature study

The literature study encompasses numerous theories of motivation and job satisfaction, as well as reviews of research results of other researchers on the same issues. The literature review serves to highlight the work that has already been done in this field, and help place the current study in a historical and associational perspective (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993:112-113).

### 1.4.2.2    Sample

Teachers from secondary schools in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal have been purposefully selected to participate in the research. These teachers who form the target group are selected from schools that have a cosmopolitan staff composition, i.e. a fair representation of personnel from the various race groups, include both genders and teachers with varying years of teaching experience. Hence purposeful sampling is used. In purposeful sampling, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1993:378), the researcher searches for information-rich key informants, groups, places or events to study. These samples are chosen because the researcher believes the subjects are knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena that the researcher is investigating.

### 1.4.2.3    Data collection

During the quantitative phase of the investigation structured questionnaires are used. The questionnaires are delivered by the researcher to five selected schools. Upon completion of the questionnaires after a stipulated period, they are retrieved.

During the qualitative phase, participants from the same sample are used. A semi-structured interview guide is used. The interviews are *semi*-structured so as to provide latitude for probing questions to gain better insight into the motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in KwaZulu-Natal. The interviews are taped and upon completion, the tapes are transcribed verbatim to analyse. The interviews are based on themes that have emerged from questionnaire responses by the teachers.

*1.4.2.4    Data processing*

The data collected during phase one of the study (i.e. the survey) are analysed using a computer software package. Results are interpreted. During the qualitative phase (i.e. phase two) of the investigation, the taped interviews are transcribed and then analysed according to qualitative methods. Data are then interpreted and the results presented.

Details of the research design and methods appear in Chapter 4.

## 1.5    DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

### 1.5.1  Motivation

The construct "motivation" has been described in different ways by authors and researchers over the years. According to Baron, Henley, McGibbon and McCarthy (2002), "motivation" is derived from the Latin term "movere" which means "to move". What "moves" individuals to behave in a particular way? Beck (1983) identifies four basic philosophies that underpin work motivation: rational-economic man, social man, self-actualising man and complex man. The underlying philosophy behind the rational-economic man is that people are solely motivated by economic considerations. In education, this would translate to intrinsic rewards emphasising pay and fringe benefits. The social man philosophy assumes that workers are primarily motivated by social needs such as belonging to groups and maintaining positive interrelationships at work. The self-actualising man philosophy emphasises that people are intrinsically motivated, take pride in their work and derive satisfaction from their accomplishments. The complex man view recognises that people are motivated by a great variation of motives, experiences and abilities, and that these change over time as new motives are learnt and new skills are developed.

Spector (2008:200) describes motivation as an internal state that induces a person to engage in particular behaviours, and hold that motivation may be viewed from

two angles: one emphasising direction, intensity and persistence, and the other having the desire to achieve a certain goal. Pinder (2008:11) corroborates these views, and posits further that work motivation is a set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behaviour and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. In the context of the school therefore, both environmental (contextual) factors and those inherent in teachers themselves, would dictate teacher motivation and work behaviour (i.e. teaching and learning).

### 1.5.2  Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the totality of one's perceptions and attitudes to one's job (Graham, 1982:68). Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) maintain that job satisfaction relates to people's own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them. People's emotions are also involved in such assessments; therefore employees' levels of job satisfaction impact significantly on their personal, social and work lives, and hence also influence their behaviour at work. These views are shared by Spector (2008), Beck (1983) and Buitendach and De Witte (2005) who agree that job satisfaction is an attitudinal and emotional response that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall, as well as about various aspects of the jobs. In the context of education, Ololube (2006:1) maintains that job satisfaction is the ability of the teaching job to meet teachers' needs and improve their performance in teaching.

### 1.5.3  Secondary school

'Secondary school' is a term that is used to describe an educational institution where the final stage of schooling, known as secondary education, takes place; attendance is usually compulsory up to a specified age. Secondary education follows elementary or primary education, and may be followed by university or tertiary education.

### 1.5.4   Teacher

Teachers can be seen as educators, tutors, instructors, coaches and trainers, according to the thesaurus function of Word. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:225) state that a teacher "is one who voluntarily elects to follow a profession which seeks to help youth to become equipped for life, to realise their potential and to assist them on their way to self-actualisation and to ultimate adulthood". In the context of this study, 'teacher' refers to someone who provides curricular knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to learners at school.

### 1.5.5  Education management

The Thesaurus function of Word defines education as teaching, schooling, tutoring or instruction. Education is seen as any act or experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character or physical ability of learners. Education management therefore refers to the manner in which education is managed. At school level the management of education is placed in the hands of the SMT which comprises the principal, deputy principal/s and departmental heads.

### 1.5.6   Perspective

'Perspective' as defined by the Thesaurus function of Word, means "standpoint, view, perception, or a point of view". Hence in the context of this study, 'perspective' would infer a particular evaluation of a situation or facts, especially with regard to factors that influence teachers' motivation and job satisfaction.

### 1.6    THE DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

**Chapter 1** contains the introduction and background to the investigation to justify the research, the problem statement and aims, an overview of the research design and methodology, and an explanation of concepts.

**Chapter 2** provides a review of the generic theories on motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. Older and newer theories are explained.

**Chapter 3** provides a review of the research results of other researchers on the factors that influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. It also covers the effects of low job satisfaction and lack of motivation. Particular consideration is given to the South African context.

**Chapter 4** explains the research design and methods used to conduct the investigation.

**Chapter 5** consists of the presentation and discussion of the research results.

**Chapter 6** provides the findings and recommendations. The limitations of the study are also outlined.

## 1.7    SUMMARY

This chapter provided a brief introduction to and background of the research study. The central problem highlighted in Chapter 1 relates to the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. An overview of the research design and methodology was also presented.

Several theories relating to job satisfaction and motivation of teachers have been documented. These theories outline human behaviour patterns which have a bearing on service delivery and performance outcomes of practicing teachers. A review of older and newer generic theories on motivation and job satisfaction of teachers forms the content of Chapter 2.

# CHAPTER TWO

# GENERIC THEORIES ON MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

## 2.1    INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 explains motivation and job satisfaction theories that are important for managers. These theories aid the understanding of human attitudes, behaviour, interaction and commitment of employees at the workplace in the realisation of organisational outcomes. The works of several theorists, both old and new, are critically analysed in this chapter. Motivation theories that form the essence of this study may be classified as needs-based (content theories), cognitive (process theories) and drive and reinforcement theories. Similarly, the works of several job satisfaction theorists will also be analysed. Job satisfaction theories are predominantly humanistic and are based on the interplay of human, contextual and environmental factors.

## 2.2    INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

From a management perspective, a motivated and happy staff is a productive staff. Motivated teachers are effective because they are always looking for better ways of doing their jobs, they continuously reinvent themselves and don't need to be constantly supervised as they are committed, hardworking, loyal to their school and satisfied with their job (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2001). Ifinedo (in Ololube, 2006:4) maintains that motivated workers are easy to spot by their agility, dedication, enthusiasm, focus, zeal, and general performance and contribution to organisational objectives and goals.

Motivation is perceived as a driving force behind a person's action. It is a desire that instigates people to want to act or behave in a certain way (Spector, 2003:188). Several authors (in Schulze & Steyn, 2003:140) perceive motivation as a desire or willingness to work, to contribute, to be productive and creative or to perform at a high level towards the realisation of organisational goals. According to Plunkett and Attner (1992:38), motivation is a combination of a person's

internalised needs and external or environmental influences that determine behaviour and provide the opportunity to satisfy needs. Motivation is a force that energises behaviour and can be either intrinsic or extrinsic or both (Hugo, 2000:144).

Davis and Wilson (in Steyn, 2002:85) define intrinsic motivation as the internal, subjective judgements that occur within individuals when they complete job related tasks. The said authors aver that intrinsic motivation involves four factors, i.e. impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice. *Impact* refers to the degree to which a person's behaviour is perceived as producing the intended effects in the work environment. *Competence* is the degree to which people believe they can perform a task skilfully if they try. *Meaningfulness* implies the values of the task goal as judged by the individual's own standards. When individuals experience low degrees of meaningfulness, they feel apprehensive and detached. However the experience of high degrees of meaningfulness will make individuals more committed and involved in task accomplishment (Steyn, *ibid.*) *Choice* refers to the intentional selection of actions that will lead to desired outcomes. More choice results in greater flexibility, initiative, creativity and resilience whilst little choice leads to feelings of tension, negative emotions and diminished self-esteem.

Intrinsic motivation is viewed as the motivation to engage in an activity primarily for its own sake, because the activity is perceived to be interesting, involving, satisfying and challenging. Firestone and Pennel, as well as Johnson and Rosenholtz (in Ololube, 2006:6), maintain that intrinsic motivation at the workplace is enhanced by psychological rewards which include meaningful and varied work, task autonomy, participatory decision-making, positive feedback, collaboration, administrative support, reasonable workload, adequate resources and pay, and learning opportunities providing challenge and accomplishment.

Extrinsic motivation, by contrast, is viewed as motivation to engage in an activity primarily for the attainment of external goals such as praise, recognition, reward, salary increase and improvement in working conditions (Hugo, *ibid*). Extrinsic factors have not been found to affect teacher job satisfaction and effectiveness to the same extent as intrinsic factors. Whawo (in Ololube, 2006:6) posits that

extrinsic factors evolve from the working environment while the actual satisfiers are intrinsic and encourage a greater effectiveness by developing teachers' higher level needs, i.e. giving teachers greater opportunity, responsibility, authority and autonomy.

## 2.3    THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Research on motivation draws on several theoretical perspectives. These perspectives are based on the differing approaches to the origins or sources of motivation, e.g. energy, heredity, learning, social interaction, cognitive processes, activation of motivation, homeostasis, hedonism or growth motivation (Petri, 1996). Baron *et al.* (2002) posit that motivation theories are broadly classified into three categories namely needs-based theories, cognitive theories, as well as drive and reinforcement theories.

Needs-based theories are also referred to as content theories since they explain the content of motivation. These theories propose that internal states within individuals energise and direct their behaviour. These internal states are referred to as drives, needs or motives. Examples of needs-based theories are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Hackman and Oldham's task enrichment theory and McClelland's learned needs theory.

Cognitive theories focus on cognitive processes such as thoughts, beliefs and values which people use to make choices regarding their behaviour at work (Beck, 1983:380-383). These theories include the equity theory, goal setting theory and the expectancy theory (Baron *et al.,* 2002). They also include the more recent theories such as the self-efficacy, control and action theories. Drive and reinforcement theories are based on behaviourist approaches which are based on the premise that behaviour that has been rewarded in the past will tend to be repeated, and behaviour that has been punished previously, will tend to be extinguished (Owens, 1995:26). The different theories are now discussed in more detail.

### 2.3.1 Needs-based theories

*2.3.1.1 Needs hierarchy theory*

Maslow's pioneering work on motivation dates back to 1943 (Spector, 2008:202). The basic tenet of Maslow's theory is that human beings have needs which he classified in a hierarchy ranging from lower order to higher order needs (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 : Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Adapted from : Spector 2003 p190
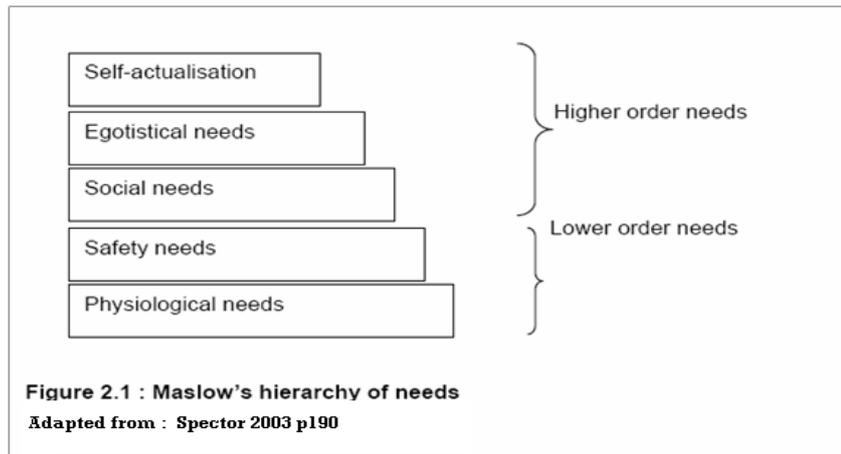
Figure 2.1 shows that lower order needs include physiological and safety needs whilst higher order needs range from social, egotistical and self-actualisation needs. Maslow contended that lower order needs have to be satisfied first, before higher order needs can be satisfied (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:240).

Physiological needs are related to basic survival, e.g. hunger or thirst, whilst safety needs relate to physical safety and security as opposed to being exposed to harm. Safety needs, according to Beach (1980:297) and Spector (2008:203), are also related to job security. Social needs refer to friendship, love and social acceptance and support, whereas egotistical needs involve a person's desire to be respected by others and by him/herself. The highest order need in the hierarchy is the need for self-actualisation, which represents a person's striving towards the full development of his/her potential.

Several observations about work at schools can be made using Maslow's theory. With reference to physiological needs, many learners are deprived of the most

basic needs such as food and water, and therefore present a constant motivational problem to teachers, since teachers are expected to deliver the curricular needs to these children who in essence are in no position to receive them. The needs for safety and security, (i.e. the second hierarchical level), are also not met at schools regarding both teachers and learners. Violence that occurs as teachers and learners travel to and from the school and within the school has increasingly become a way of life for many learners (Hayward, 2009a:20; Macarthy, 2008:39). It becomes difficult to concentrate on teaching and learning in an environment governed by fear and uncertainty. The DoE's selective allocation of security measures to certain schools is also a negative determinant on motivation to other schools that also need security. The need to belong (level three of the hierarchy) causes individuals to seek relationships with co-workers, peers, superiors and subordinates. For teachers, friendship ties, informal work groups, professional memberships and school memberships satisfy this need. The need for esteem and status (level 4 of the hierarchy) causes teachers to seek control, autonomy, respect from and for others, and professional competence. Finally, the need for self-actualisation motivates teachers to be the best teachers they are capable of being.

Maslow contends that people always pursue goals that they have not yet reached. Consequently, those needs that have already been satisfied, no longer provide motivation for action. Maslow's work on motivation has received wide recognition at the workplace in terms of its intuitive logic and ease of understanding. However, the theory has received little research support and is judged to have low scientific validity and applicability (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:240). Furthermore, over time, little empirical evidence has been produced to support the idea of a needs hierarchy, or the idea that as needs are satisfied, their importance diminishes (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Hoy & Miskel, 1996:103). These shortcomings have been addressed in Alderfer's Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) Theory.

### 2.3.1.2    *Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) theory*

Alderfer (1969) revised Maslow's theory of needs to align more with empirical research (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:240). Alderfer's ERG theory is an expansion of

Maslow's theory, and is based on three needs: existence (physical survival needs), relatedness (social needs) and growth (personal growth and development needs) as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

According to the ERG theory, there is more than one need that is in operation at the same time, and that these needs do not occur in a hierarchy, but rather on a continuum (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:241; Spector, 2003:191).



**Figure 2.2. The Existence Relatedness Growth (ERG) theory (Spector 2003: 191)**
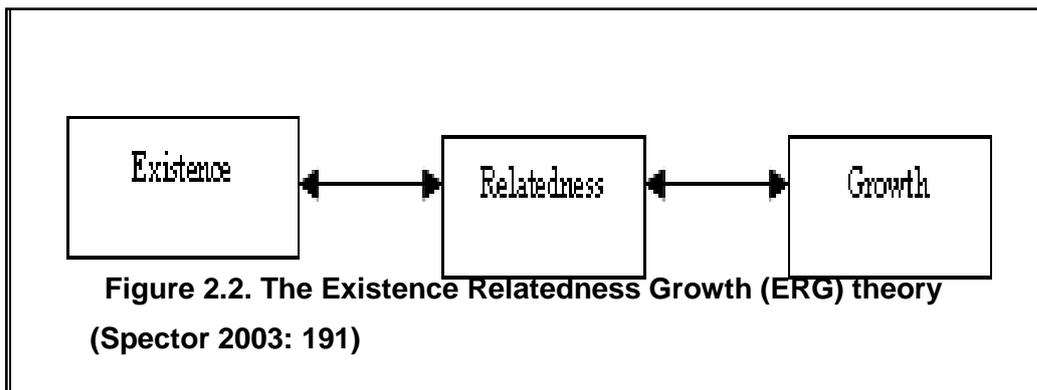
Maslow believed that a person will persevere to satisfy a need. Alderer (1969), on the other hand suggested that a person will forego such a need, improvise and refocus attention on a more basic need. At school for example, if teachers cannot find emotional support or recognition on the job (relatedness needs), they may demand higher pay or better health care coverage (existence needs) as compensation for failing to satisfy the other needs (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:241). Alderfer's ERG theory has intuitive appeal, and is more directly applicable to employee motivation than Maslow's needs hierarchy theory. It has also greater empirical support (Wanous & Zwany, in Schultz & Schultz, 1998 *ibid*).

*2.3.1.3   Two-factor theory*

Herzberg's two-factor theory states that motivation comes from the nature of the job itself, and not from external rewards or job conditions (Spector, 2003:192). It argues that the factors that lead to job satisfaction (i.e. the 'motivators') are different from those that lead to job dissatisfaction (i.e.'hygiene factors' or 'maintenance factors') (see Figure 2.3) (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:320).

| HYGIENE FACTORS | | MOTIVATORS | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Job Dissatisfaction | No job Dissatisfaction | No Job Satisfaction | Job Satisfaction |

| Factors include: | Factors include: |
|---|---|
| - Salary<br>- Status<br>- Security<br>- Working conditions<br>- Policies and administrative practices<br>- Interpersonal relationships | - Meaningful work<br>- Challenging work<br>- Recognition of accomplishments<br>- Feeling of achievement<br>- Increased responsibility<br>- Opportunities for growth and advancement |

**Figure 2.3      Herzberg's two-factor theory (Drafte &Kossen in Steyn, 2002:92)**

Regarding Figure 2.3, it should be noted that motivators have a positive effect on the work situation and lead to improved productivity. According to Herzberg, employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to internal factors, while dissatisfied employees ascribe their discontent to external factors.

Motivators at the workplace, according to Herzberg (in Schultz, Bagrain, Potgieter, Viedge & Werner, 2003), are level of recognition, pleasure of performance, increased responsibility and opportunities for advancement and promotion.

Hygiene or maintenance factors range on a continuum from a state of dissatisfaction to no dissatisfaction. These factors involve circumstances surrounding the task which do not lead to job satisfaction, but prevent dissatisfaction if maintained adequately. Examples of these maintenance factors are: level of supervision, job status, work circumstances, service conditions, remuneration and interpersonal relationships (Herzberg in Hoy & Miskel, 1996:320).

The two-factor theory is significant in that both motivators and hygiene factors play a role in the performance of the individual. It can be argued however, that the removal of the hygiene factors will not automatically imply that workers would be satisfied. The two-factor theory has had a major impact on organisational psychology in that it has led to the re-design of many jobs to allow for greater

participation of employees in planning, performing and evaluating their work (Baron *et al.*, 2002; Schultz & Schultz, 1998:24). In addition, the two-factor theory has been very successful in focusing attention on the importance of providing employees with work that is meaningful to them (Spector, 2003:192).

Applying the two-factor theory to education: if school improvement depends fundamentally on the improvement of teaching, ways to increase teacher motivation and capabilities should be the core processes upon which authorities should focus (Ololube, 2006:6). Highly motivated teachers with satisfied needs can create a good social, psychological and physical climate in the classroom. Such teachers would be able to integrate professional knowledge (subject matter and pedagogy), interpersonal knowledge (human relationships), and intrapersonal knowledge (ethics and reflective practice) (in Ololube, 2006:6).

### 2.3.1.4    *Theory X and Theory Y*

Douglas McGregor postulated his motivation theories 'Theory X and Theory Y' in 1960, in his work "The Human Side of Enterprise". According to McGregor (2006), any work environment is characterised by two differing types of employees. His Theory X postulates that people are not keen to accomplish tasks, and hence try to avoid work where possible. Theory X sees people as lacking ambition, avoiding responsibility and striving for security and financial compensation only. Such people are egocentric and not mindful of organisational goals, and hence must be coerced and controlled by punitive measures to perform effectively (McGregor, 2006:46-47). By contrast, Theory Y describes workers as keen to discipline themselves in order to successfully complete the tasks allocated to them. Theory Y describes people as responsible and capable of creative problem solving.

Evidently the workplace is characterised by individuals who exhibit both Type X and Type Y characteristics. Schools are no different. From a management perspective it would appear that Theory X employees would need a manager/leader who displays an autocratic style of management, i.e. one who demands compliance for the achievement of organisational goals. According to McGregor (2006:54), Theory X managers are intolerant, results- and deadline-

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driven, love to issue instructions, do not invite or welcome suggestions, and generally are uncompromising towards indolence and complacency. Theory Y managers, by contrast, subscribe to inclusive, participatory practices, thereby encouraging collegiality and involvement in achieving shared goals (McGregor, 2006:74).

### 2.3.1.5  Learned needs theory

McCleland (1987) postulated the needs theory in 1967 in his book "The Achieving Society". McClelland identified three types of motivational needs prevalent in workers and managers to varying degrees. These needs are: the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation. The learned needs theory is based on the premise that achievement-orientated people acquire these major needs through learning and experience (Luthans, 1998).

McClelland (1987) assigned a specific code to each of the three needs as follows:
- The need for achievement (n/ACH) is viewed as behaviour directed towards competition with standards of excellence;
- the need for power (n/PWR) denotes the need to exert control over others, influence their behaviour and be responsible for them; and
- the need for affiliation (n/AFF) refers to the desire to establish and maintain satisfying relationships with other people.

According to McClelland (1987), most people possess and exhibit a combination of these characteristics, whilst some exhibit a strong bias to a particular motivational need. McClelland suggested that the following are characteristics and attitudes of achievement motivated people (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:105-106):
- Achievement of an aim or task brings greater personal satisfaction than receiving praise/recognition. People have a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for performing a task or solving a problem.
- Achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and ways of doing things better. They place a high value on achievement and have a strong desire for performance feedback.

- Achievement is more than material or financial reward, and financial reward is regarded as a measurement of success, not an end in itself.

The learned needs theory is pertinent to teachers in the sense that teachers are individuals who form part of a team. They desire affiliation to the team (i.e. colleagues on the staff) with whom they share a professional relationship based on mutual trust and cooperation. Teachers constantly seek lofty achievement as implementers of the curriculum, and the power to know they are in charge.

### 2.3.1.6    *Task enrichment theory*

The task enrichment theory, also known as the Job Characteristics Model (JCM), was postulated by Hackman and Oldham (Robbins, 2001:447). The JCM combines and unifies Maslow's needs fulfilment theory, Herzberg's job enrichment theory and the expectancy theory into a theory of job design (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:323).

According to the JCM (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:324), there are three psychological states which are necessary to enhance an individual's motivation and job satisfaction, and these are:
- the experience of work as meaningful, i.e. the quality of work performance;
- the experience or work responsibility, i.e. the level of personal responsibility for a person's work; and
- insight in job performance, i.e. an evaluation of how well or poorly an individual is performing at his/her job.

With reference to the task itself, Hackman and Oldham (in Schultz & Schultz, 1998:244) identified five job characteristics which lead to the above psychological states, and these are skills variety, task identity, task importance, autonomy and feedback (see Figure 2.4).

**Figure 2.4. The Job-characteristic's model**
**(Hoy & Miskel, 1996:320)**
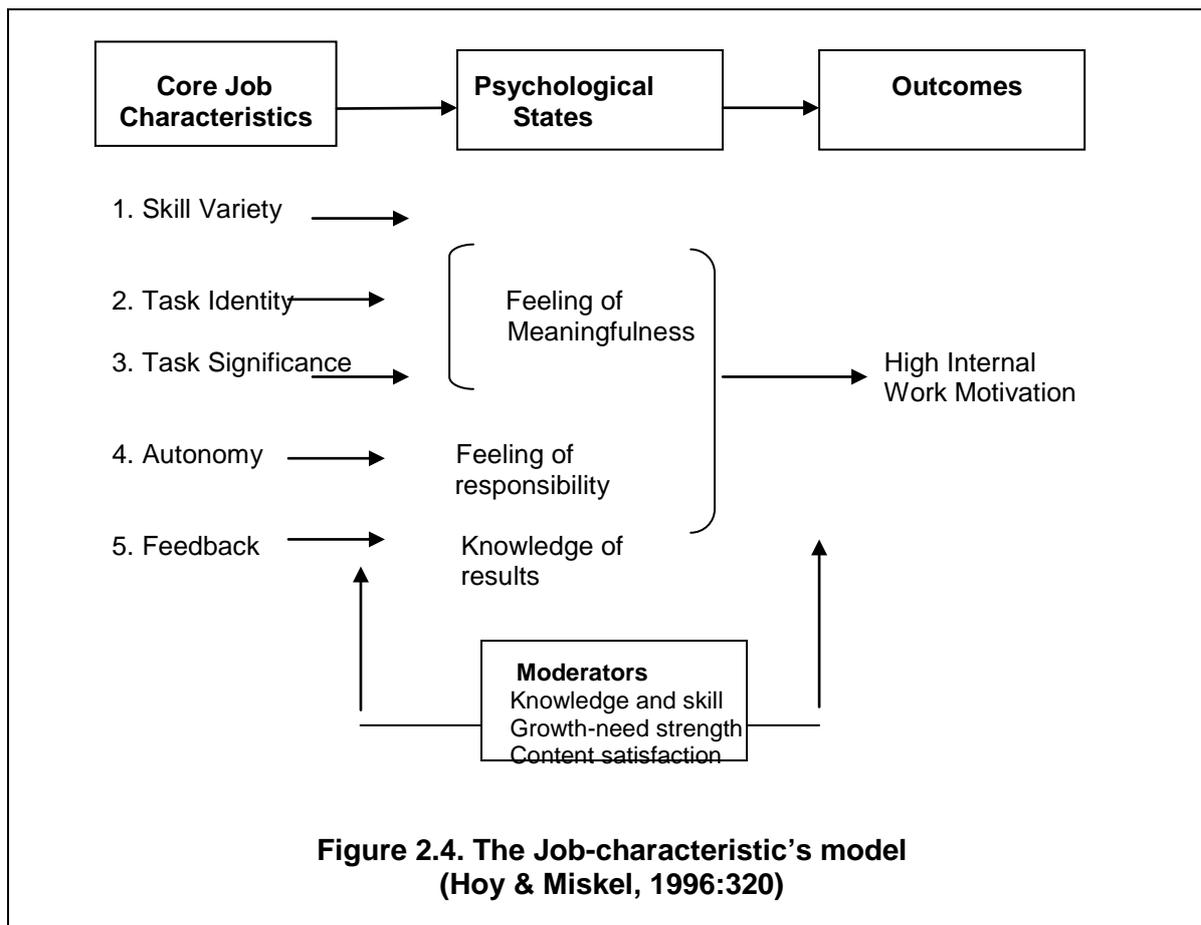
Skill variety (in Figure 2.4), refers to the degree to which the job involves a range of activities and talent to accomplish a particular task (task identity). Task significance relates to the extent to which the job impacts on the people concerned. Autonomy implies the degree to which the job provides freedom, independence and discretion to employees for them to execute the tasks. Feedback refers to the extent to which clear and direct information is provided to the individuals to appraise/evaluate their performance.

The three psychological states in Figure 2.4 (feelings of meaningfulness, feelings of responsibility and knowledge of results) are internal to individuals and cannot be directly manipulated. The five job characteristics mentioned above however are reasonably objective, measurable and changeable. They facilitate the three psychological states and produce work motivation. Hackman and Oldham (Hoy & Miskel, 1996; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007) maintain that jobs with high motivating

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potential create conditions that reinforce the motivation of employees who have high performance levels. This means that as the motivating potential scores of employees increase, the outcomes (i.e. intrinsic work motivation, growth satisfaction, job satisfaction and work effectiveness) also increase.

Sergiovanni and Starrat (2007:325) posit that when the three psychological states are present, according to the job enrichment theory, teachers can be expected to feel good, perform well and continue to want to perform competently. The said authors maintain that the three states become the basis for internal motivation, since teachers do not have to depend upon someone outside of themselves to motivate or lead them.

However, managers can also assist teachers to experience meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results. Hackman and Oldham (in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007:325) aver that managers need to do the following: create opportunities for teachers to use their talents and skills; engage them in activities that enable them to see the whole and to understand how their contributions fit into the overall purpose and mission (task identity); view their work as having a significant impact on the lives of learners (task significance);let them experience independence in scheduling work, deciding classroom arrangements and teaching methods (autonomy); and to give them clear information about the effects of their performance (feedback).

### 2.3.2  Cognitive theories

#### 2.3.2.1  Equity theory

Adams (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:246) postulated the equity theory in 1965. According to this theory, people are motivated if they experience equity/fairness at work. Baron *et al.* (2002) assert that people make judgements or comparisons between their own inputs at work (e.g. their qualifications, experience and effort) and the outcomes they receive (such as pay and fringe benefits, status and working conditions) (see Figure 2.5).

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                 │
│    INPUT                    OUTPUT              │
│    Skill                    Salary and benefits │
│    Effort                    Recognition        │
│    Performance              Job satisfaction    │
│    Education                 Opportunities      │
│    Others                    Others             │
│   ─────────────────────────────────────         │
│              ╱╲                                 │
│             ╱  ╲                                │
│            ╱Employee╲                           │
│           ╱_____╲                          │
│                                                 │
│            ⬭ Organisation ⬭                     │
│                                                 │
│                                                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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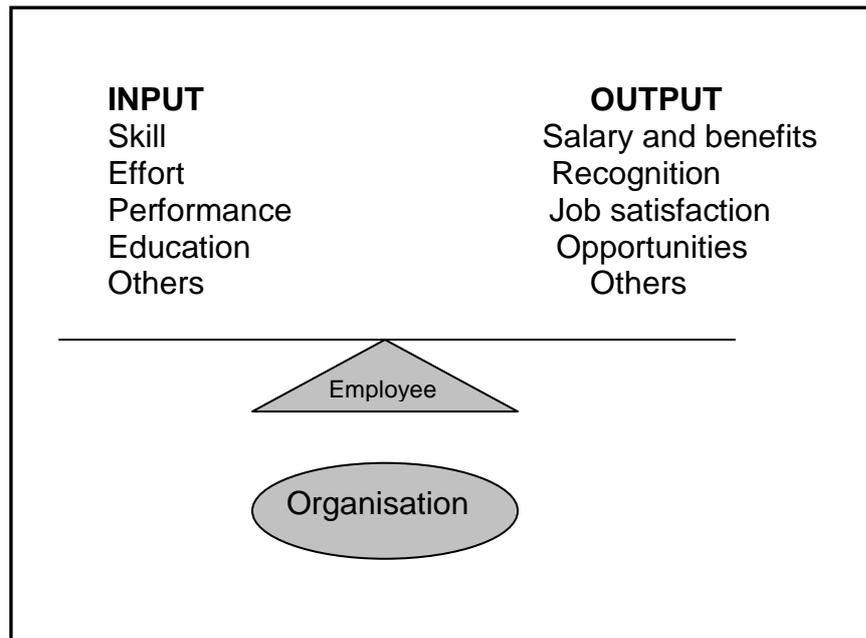
**Figure 2.5. Adam's equity theory (Drafte & Kossen adapted from Steyn, 2002:96***)*

Baron *et al.* (*ibid.*) add that if people perceive their inputs to be commensurate with the desired outcomes, then a situation of equity prevails and they are motivated to continue with their work. The converse is also true, i.e. if individuals believe that their efforts are not proportional to expected outcomes, a state of inequity prevails. This leads to tension and people take action designed to bring about a state of equity.

There is also a tendency for employees to compare their own situation with that of others. If they perceive anomalies, discrepancies and/or inconsistencies, they are inclined to react to these to bring about equity. According to the equity theory, perceptions and not facts influence motivation (Steyn, 2002:95).

More recent theorists have expanded on the equity theory to identify three kinds of employees according to their behavioural response patterns (Huseman, Hatfield & Miles in Schultz & Schultz, 1998:246). These three types are:

- Benevolent persons, described as altruistic: they are satisfied when they are under-rewarded compared to co-workers, and feel guilty when they are rewarded or over-rewarded.

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- Equity sensitive persons: they believe that everyone should be rewarded fairly. They feel distressed when they are under-rewarded, and guilty when over-rewarded.

- Entitled persons: they believe that everything they receive is their due. They are satisfied only when they are over-rewarded and distressed when they are under-rewarded or equitably rewarded.

In summary, the equity theory has provided the basis for studying motivational implications of perceived unfairness and injustice at the workplace. In the context of this study, the theory states that teachers compare themselves to others with regard to outcomes and inputs at work, and discrepancies in ratios can motivate them to take action. The choice of action may include changing the level of commitment to the organisation, changing the rewards from work, or even quitting (Spector, 2008:219). The equity theory has laid the foundation for more recent theories, for example the fairness theory (Spector, 2008:212-213). The fairness theory distinguishes between the distribution of rewards and the procedures by which rewards are allocated, thereby subscribing to both distributive and procedural justice at schools.

### 2.3.2.2  Expectancy theory

Vroom postulated the expectancy theory in 1964. The basic tenet of the expectancy theory is that people base their behaviour on their beliefs and expectations regarding future events, namely those maximally advantageous to them (Baron *et al.,* 2002). The expectancy theory, also known as Vroom's Expectancy-Valence-Instrumentality (VIE) theory, posits that motivation (or 'force') is a mathematical function of three types of cognition, expressed as follows (Vroom, 1964):

$$\text{Force} = \text{Expectancy} \ X \ \sum (\text{Valence} \ X \ \text{Instrumentalities}), \ \text{where:}$$

- force is the person's motivation to perform;
- expectancy is the perceived probability that a person has regarding his ability to perform the behaviour required to lead to a desired outcome e.g. working hard enough to secure a promotion;

- valence is the value or the attractiveness of the outcome to the person, and

- instrumentality is the perceived probability that a given behaviour will lead to the desired outcome.

Spector (2008:206) hypothesises that for each form of behaviour there may be more than one outcome. For each outcome, a valence and instrumentality are multiplied, and each resulting product then summed ($\sum$) and multiplied by the person's (in this case the teacher's) expectancy to produce an overall force or motivation score. If any of the cognitive components equal zero, then the overall level of motivation of teachers will be zero.

Beach (1980:307) and Beck (1983:382) maintain that the expectancy theory explains how rewards shape human behaviour by focusing on internal cognitive states that lead to motivation. In other words, people are motivated to action if they believe those behaviours will lead to outcomes that they desire (see Figure 2.6).



**Effort** – performance expectations
**Performance** – outcomes expectations
**Attractiveness of outcomes**

Ability

Motivation → Effort → Performanc → Outcomes (rewards) → Satisfaction

**Figure 2.6    The expectancy theory of motivation (Cascio, 1995:417)**
**SOURCE   :   Steyn, 2002 p.97**
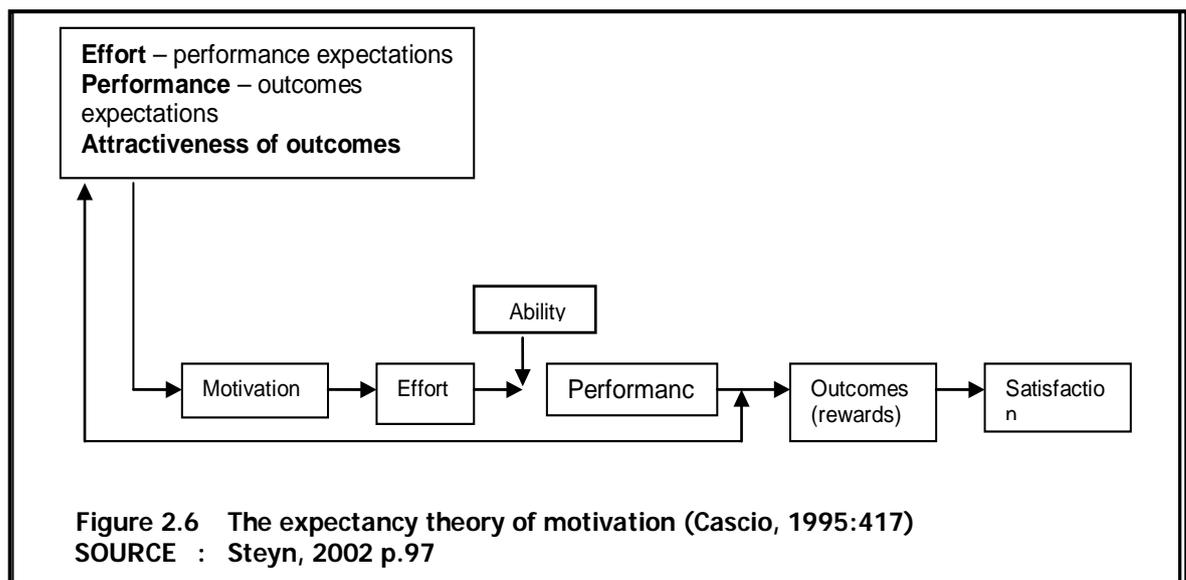
Lewis, Goodman and Fandt (in Ololube, 2006:8) maintain that the expectancy theory is the most comprehensive motivational model that seeks to predict or explain task-related effort. The theory suggests that motivation that will lead to job satisfaction is a function of the perceived relationship between an individual's effort, performance, and the desirability of consequences associated with job performance. In other words, employees are influenced by the expected outcomes

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of their behaviour and motivation at work or by their perceptions of effort and reward (Vroom, in Ololube, 2006:8).

An evaluation of the expectancy theory as a determinant of motivation at the workplace, however, reveals more demerits than merits. According to Baron *et al.* (2002), the expectancy theory does not adequately consider people's cognitive limitations. The said authors do not believe that people are as rational and calculating in their decision-making as suggested by the expectancy theory. However, results from several investigations in educational and business settings show support for the expectancy theory. Pinder (in Hoy & Miskel, 1996:111), in support of the expectancy theory, maintains that the expectancy theory:

- is an excellent predictor of job satisfaction;
- predicts performance but not as well as it predicts satisfaction; and
- demonstrates that people work hard when they think that working hard is likely to lead to desirable outcomes.

At school, the expectation of teachers to manage and implement the curriculum, for example, is continually evaluated against learner results in performance tests. Teachers experience motivation and job satisfaction if they believe that their efforts in the light of their expectations are realised. If learner performance is repeatedly mediocre or poor, teacher motivation levels are bound to decline.

*2.3.2.3    Self-efficacy theory*

The self-efficacy theory illustrated in Figure 2.7 is a more recent theory and is fashioned along the principles of the expectancy theory (Spector, 2008:206).



**Figure 2.7  Self-efficacy theory
(Hoy & Miskel, 1996:326)**
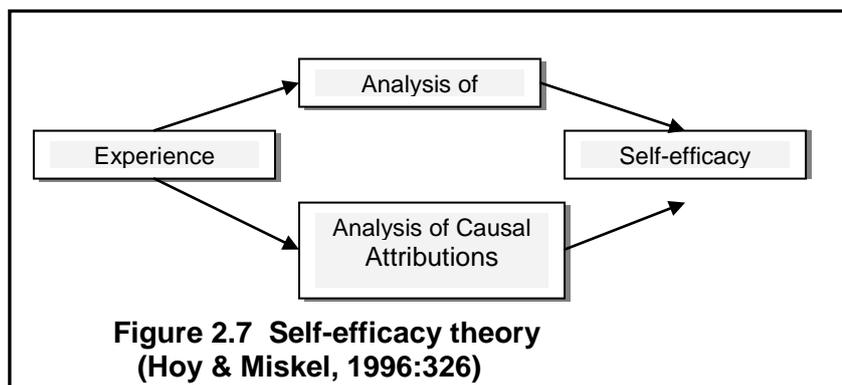
According to Bandura (Spector, 2008:206) the self-efficacy theory (Figure 2.7) posits that motivation and performance are determined by how effective people believe they can be. In other words, people with high self-efficacy believe they are capable of accomplishing tasks and will be motivated to put in more effort to achieve their goals. Similarly, people with low self-efficacy do not believe they can accomplish tasks successfully. They will therefore not be motivated and will not put in the desired effort. The effort that needs to be put in, however, is reliant on the individual's ability to perform the specific task.

Bandura and Locke (Spector, 2008:209) maintain that the self-efficacy theory has been well tested both inside and outside the workplace, and research has been quite supportive. A high level of self-efficacy or belief in one's own capabilities is a necessary component of work motivation and subsequent performance.

*2.3.2.4    Goal setting theory*

Locke postulated the goal setting theory in 1968 (Beck, 1983: 384). The goal setting theory is illustrated in Figure 2.8. and is based on the assumption that peoples' behaviour is motivated by their internal intentions, objectives and goals, i.e. by what people consciously want to achieve (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:121).



**Figure 2.8  Locke's goal setting theory
(Hoy & Miskel, 1996:327)**
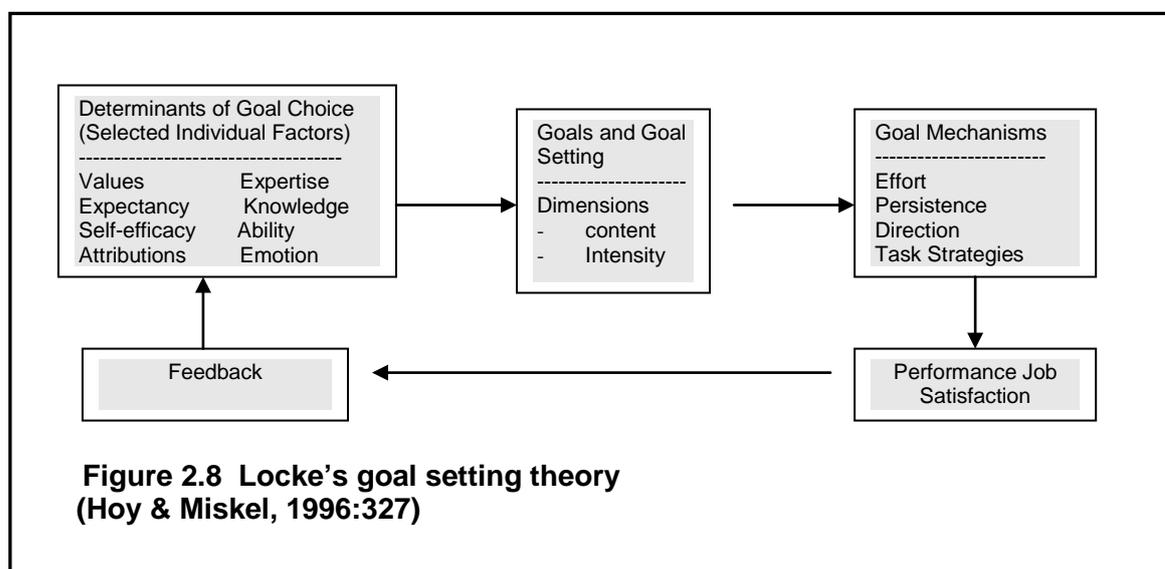
According to Locke and Henne (1986), goals affect behaviour in four ways, *viz*.: They

- direct attention and action to those behaviours which a person believes will achieve a particular goal;
- mobilise effort towards reaching the goal;
- increase the person's persistence, which results in more time spent on the behaviours necessary to attain the desired goal; and
- motivate the person's search for effective strategies for goal attainment.

In order for the goal directed behaviour to effectively improve job performance at the workplace, Locke and Henne (1986), as well as Hoy and Miskel (1996:121), outline the following prerequisites:

- a thorough commitment to the specific goal;
- regular feedback on the person's performance towards attaining the goal;
- goals that are specific rather than vague (such as "do your best");
- self-set goals rather than organisationally set goals. If this is not possible, a person needs to at least have input into his own goals; and
- challenging goals.

Van Fleet, Griffin and Moorhead (1991:98) maintain that in an organisation such as a school, performance depends on the combination of goal-directed effort, organisational support and self-efficacy or individual abilities and traits. Organisational support would imply the provision of resources, appropriate organisational policies, and measures involving safety and security, among others. The role of the school principal is crucial. Principals need to ensure that teachers will accept and remain committed to stated goals. However, for teachers to be committed to set goals, the goals must be realistic, challenging and rewarding (Van Fleet *et al., ibid*).

According to Schultz and Schultz (1998) and Spector (2003), the goal setting theory is currently one of the most popular theories regarding organisational approaches to employee motivation. It has intuitive appeal, is well supported by empirical research and has clear relevance to the workplace.

*2.3.2.5    Control theory*

The integrated control theory model of work motivation was postulated by Klein (Spector, 2008:216). It is a recent model which builds upon Locke's goal setting theory, and focuses on how feedback effects motivation to maintain efforts towards goals. The control theory is illustrated by Figure 2.9.



 **Figure 2.9 Control theory**
**Spector. 2008:216)**
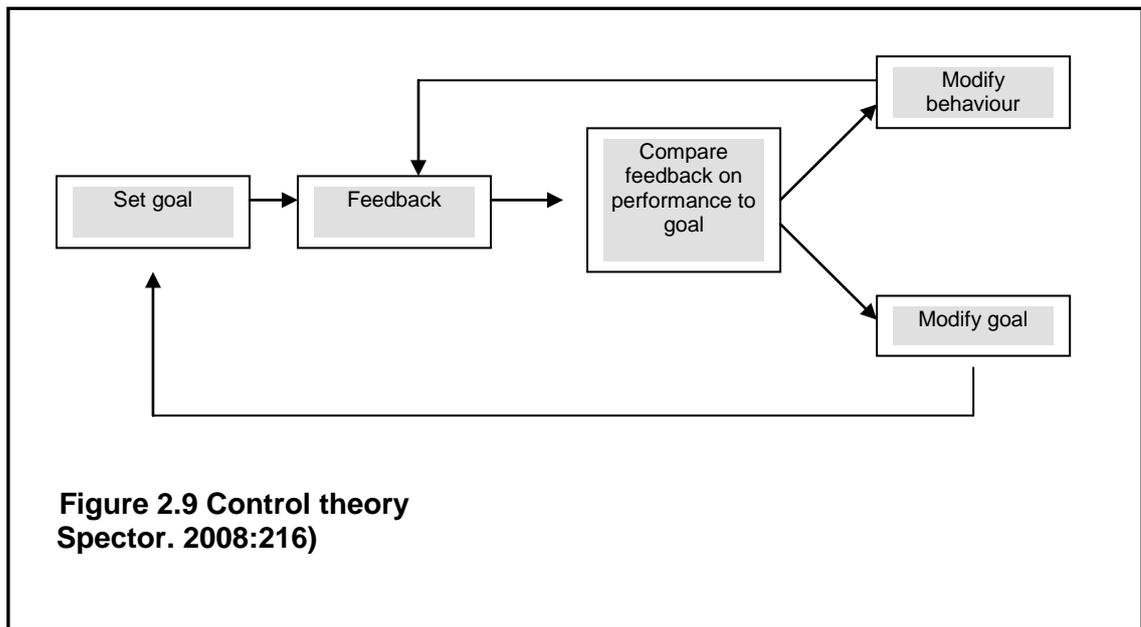
According to control theory, motivation begins with a goal that one intends to achieve. The theory posits that the goal must be attainable, and, as one works towards the accomplishment of the goal, feedback about performance is given. The feedback is evaluated by comparing the current goal (progress) to some internal standard or expected progress. If progress is insufficient, one will be motivated to take action, which might include goal re-evaluation or adoption of other strategies to improve performance. These strategies could be working harder (increase in effort) or working smarter (adopting new strategies).

## 2.3.2.6 Action theory

The action theory of motivation is a comprehensive German theory of work behaviour that describes a process linking goals and intentions to behaviours (Frese & Zapf in Spector, 2008:217). The theory proposes that work motivation theories should focus mainly on goal-oriented or voluntary behaviour called actions. These action processes link a hierarchy of cognitions both to actions and to feedback from the environment (see Figure 2.10).

```
Desire for   →   Goal          →   Plan         →   Plan          →   Feedback
something        development        generation       execution
```

**Figure 2.10 The action theory**

**(Spector, 2008:217)**
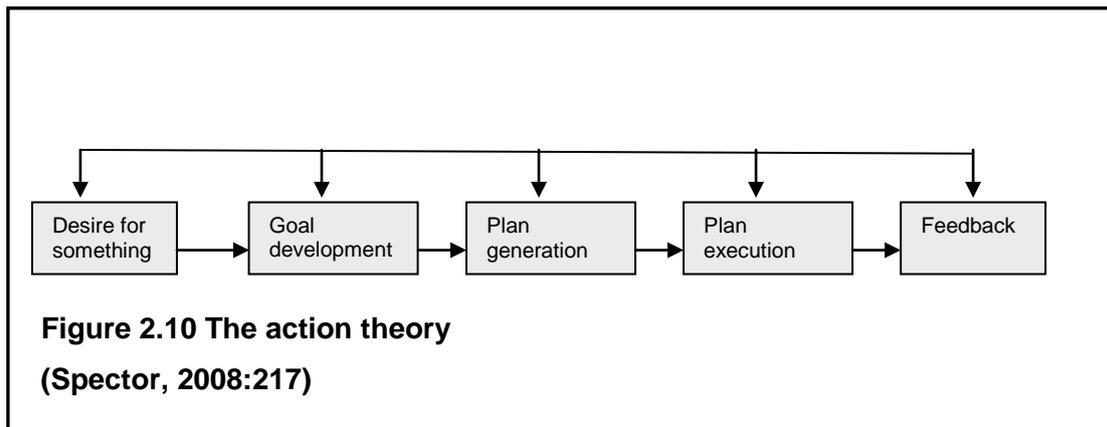
According to the action theory (in Figure 2.10), there must be a desire to accomplish something, and that desire leads to specific goals and objectives to achieve it. Once the goals are set, plans and specific steps are chosen to achieve the goals. Thereafter the plans are executed, and execution involves actions. Finally the person receives feedback, which is an indicator of whether progress is being made toward the goal or not. If the feedback is positive, the actions are sustained; negative feedback can lead to changes in goals, plans and actions (Spector, 2008:217).

In the context of the school, the desire may be to accomplish good matric results. To accomplish this, teachers may set specific goals and formulate plans (e.g. extra classes during school holidays) and execute the plans to achieve the goals. If the matric results are good, teachers may be motivated to repeat the action the following year.

### 2.3.3  Drive and reinforcement theories

Drive and reinforcement theories were originally postulated by Thorndike and developed further by Woodworth, Hull and (much later) by Skinner (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Baron *et al.* (2002) posit that these theories assume that peoples' behaviours are determined by perceived positive and negative consequences, based on the 'Law of Effect'. Reinforcement is defined as any effect that causes behaviour to be repeated or inhibited. Studies carried out by Skinner (Ololube 2006:8) reveal that if pleasant consequences follow a behaviour, the behaviour tends to continue; but if unpleasant consequences result, the behaviour tends to stop. The consequences of behaviour may be tangible (such as money and gifts) or intangible (such as recognition and praise).

The drive and reinforcement theories differ markedly from the needs and cognitive theories and rest on two underlying assumptions, *viz.* that human behaviour is determined by the environment, and that human behaviour is subject to observable laws which can be predicted and changed. Changes in behaviour are the result of an individual's response to events (stimuli) that occur in the environment.

According to Schultz and Schultz (1998:178), the reinforcement theory is influential in firmly establishing the ideas relating to incentive and reward systems prevalent in most organisations today. It provides the basis for the notion that rewards should be commensurate with individual units of productivity. This view is shared by Spector (2008:204), who adds that rewards can be highly effective in the enhancement of job performance.

Education authorities should ensure that teachers receive continual positive reinforcement in order for them to perform satisfactorily on a sustained basis. Praise and recognition as gestures of goodwill are examples of positive reinforcement that would motivate teachers to maintain or even enhance their performances in the classroom.

## 2.4 JOB SATISFACTION

### 2.4.1 Introduction

Paramount to the survival of any institution or organisation is the well-being of its employees (Beach, 1980:4-5; McGregor 2006:179; Spector, 2003:239). Happy and satisfied workers are generally productive workers. According to Spector (2003:240), job satisfaction is regarded as being related to important employee and organisational outcomes, ranging from job performance to health and longevity. There is consensus among researchers that a person's job is an all important part of his life; it follows therefore that job satisfaction is a part of life satisfaction (Schultz & Schultz, 1998:250; Spector, 2003:242). Schultz and Schultz (*ibid.*) maintain that most people spend one third to half of their waking hours at work for a period of around 40 to 45 years, and that this is a very long time to be frustrated, dissatisfied and unhappy. Work frustrations invariably affect family and social life, and impacts negatively on one's physical and emotional health.

### 2.4.2 Theoretical perspectives on job satisfaction

Like the construct 'motivation', the understanding of job satisfaction is grounded in a variety of theoretical perspectives which explain why people at the workplace behave in the manner in which they do. Though the constructs 'motivation' and 'job satisfaction' are not synonymous, there is a causal link between them. Theories on job satisfaction involve motivational, emotional and informational components (Beck, 1983:395), and since motivational theories have already been explained at the beginning of the chapter, only a cursory review is presented here.

#### 2.4.2.1    *The scientific management theory*

The scientific management theory is regarded as one of the forerunners in dealing with job satisfaction of employees at the workplace. The scientific management theory was postulated by Frederick Winslow Taylor in 1911 (Spector, 2008:10). The theory recognises the importance of employees and the need for managers to manage workers, and proposes that tasks be carefully analysed and given to

employees who have been adequately trained for them in order that employees perform well. In addition, employees should be rewarded for their labours in order for levels of performance to remain enhanced and sustained.

The function of a scientific manager according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001) as well as Donnelly (2008), is to set work criteria and enforce them on the workers. The leader is seen as the figure of high authority. The scientific management movement emphasises a concern for task (output), i.e. it considers the individual worker to be the basic unit of the organisation. According to the scientific management movement, the worker is seen as a passive being, motivated primarily by monetary incentives. The worker, under scientific management is hence construed as 'economic man' (Donnelly, *op cit.*).

Webb and Norton (2003) maintain that important research techniques have been developed within the scientific management theory for record-keeping, accounting, the study of motion and time and matching task accomplishment with appropriate rewards. In addition, much attention has been paid to the positive aspects of establishing bureaucracies as efficient organisations, with clear and strong lines of authority and control.

The scientific management theory is hence a precursor to Edwin Locke's goal setting theory of motivation (Locke, 1983). Locke proposed that goal setting, as a cognitive process, heavily impacts on motivation and behaviour. Conscious, intentional goals provide impetus for higher performance and productivity for workers and learners.

### 2.4.2.2    *The human relations and behavioural science theory*

The human relations and behavioural science theory emerged from the scientific management theory, and held that the human elements, more than the scientific elements of working conditions, are responsible for productivity at the workplace. The human needs characteristics of workers, including their job satisfaction became the focus of organisational research. Studies by Parker and Follett (Webb & Norton, 2003) emphasise the importance of human working relationships within

organisations. The need for coordination, integration and cooperative responsibility among workers (human relations), coupled with the requirements of the job itself (policies, procedures, communication and decisions) determine the strength and welfare of organisations. According to Follett (*ibid*), resolution of conflict is not just about authority and compromise, but about cooperation and integration of ideas.

The human relations movement focuses on human relations at the workplace and posits that the function of the leader is to facilitate cooperation and coordination among employees while providing assistance and opportunities for their personal growth and development. Human relations theory sees the leader as an agent for intra- and intergroup communication. The theory posits that the satisfaction of social wants of workers is the driving force of the organisation – satisfied workers are motivated workers and therefore effective workers. In comparison with the scientific management approach which sees the employee as 'economic man', the human relations approach views the worker as 'social man' (Hersey, *et al.*, 2001; Donnelly, 2008).

*2.4.2.3 The dispositional theory*

According to Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986:57), the internal state of a person is of utmost importance in the interpretation of job information that leads to the experience of job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction at work. Accordingly, the dispositional theory cites an individual's personality or disposition as an important causal factor for job satisfaction. Heller, Judge and Watson (2002:820) describe the dispositional view as "basic differences in personality that affectively predispose people to be differentially satisfied with various aspects of their lives, including their jobs". According to Heller *et al.* (*ibid.*), there are three behavioural approaches that have been identified by the dispositional theory. These approaches are positive and negative affectivity, the big five personality attributes, and core self-evaluations.

Positive affectivity is a personality characteristic which relates to high energy, enthusiastic and pleasurable engagements. Negative affectivity is a personality type linked with distressed, unsatisfying engagements and nervousness. Research

has shown that people with positive affectivity are happier in their work and happier in life than those with negative affectivity.

The big five personality attributes include extraversion (or surgency), neuroticism (or emotional instability), agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness (or culture) (Goldberg, 1990:1224). According to Heller *et al.* (2002), there is a strong correlation between the big five personality attributes and job satisfaction.

The third facet of dispositional theory, i.e. core self-evaluation theory, outlines four personality characteristics which have a strong bearing on job satisfaction and job performance. The characteristics include self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability (low neuroticism) (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997:160). The core evaluation approach links personality attributes and practices with motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance (Timothy, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998:18-19).

The dispositional theory is significant for this research in that it suggests that some teachers will be satisfied, motivated and deliver high performance at work, regardless of how poorly managed the work environment is. Similarly other teachers will not be happy, no matter how functional the school is. Judge, Thoresen, Pucik and Welbourne (1999:109-110) argue, however, that personality can only explain less than half of the level of job satisfaction. Hence the dispositional theory needs to be looked at in conjunction with other factors prevalent at the workplace that impact on employee job satisfaction and job performance.

### 2.4.2.4    The systems theory

The systems theory postulated by Eric Trust maintains that the systemic functionality of an organisation is dependent on the contribution of every component of that organisation. The theory posits that a change in any part of the organisation will have a ripple effect on other parts of the organisation (Webb & Norton, 2003). This includes "inputs" of human, physical, financial and informational sources; "transformational processes" such as instructional

technologies, personnel systems, rewards systems and supervision; "outputs" of products, services, behaviours and "feedback" systems such as reports, analyses and diagnoses.

According to Doll (1993:64), in a system the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Furthermore, in a living system 'parts' are defined not in isolation from each other, but in terms of their relations to each other and to the system as a whole. Learning, creativity, decision-making, emotional and social intelligence and several other capacities and processes are actually functions and properties of the system as a whole.

Teacher motivation and job satisfaction could be affected by a change of any of the parts of the education system. For example, if curricula are changed drastically, this could affect the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

### 2.4.2.5    *The social influence theory*

The basic presumption underlying the social influence theory is that people are influenced by how satisfied they perceive other workers to be in the same job as they are. New employees may, for example, change their negative attitudes about their jobs once they discover that other workers are not complaining and are performing the same tasks very well. The social influence theory thus shares certain common features with the equity theory of motivation as postulated by Stacy Adams (Beck, 1983:395). Accordingly, Rashotte (2010:4426) states that social influence is a process by which individuals make real changes to their feelings and behaviours as a result of interaction with others who are perceived to be similar, desirable, or expert. People (e.g. teachers) adjust their beliefs with respect to others to whom they feel similar in accordance with psychological principles such as balance. Individuals are also influenced by the majority, i.e. when a large portion of an individual's referent social group (e.g. the other teachers at school) holds a particular attitude, it is likely that the individual will adopt it as well. In addition, individuals may change their opinion under the influence of another who is perceived to be an expert in the matter at hand.

### 2.4.2.6   The social information processing theory

This above-mentioned theory was postulated by Gerald Salancik and Jeffrey Pfeffer in 1978 (Beck, 1983). This theory outlines the effects of social context and cues, as well as consequences of past choices in the development of attitudes and hence job satisfaction at the workplace. The authors maintain that affective attitudes about work are developed using social information about past behaviour and about what others think.

### 2.4.2.7   The comparison processes theory

According to the comparison processes theory, an individual is said to have some reference standard against which a job is judged (Beck, 1983:395; Walker, 1980). An employee's job satisfaction is measured in relation to this reference as follows: if the job is better than the referent, the individual experiences a positive attitude and high satisfaction. If the job is worse than the referent, the person would experience a negative attitude, together with low satisfaction. The comparison process theory relates to the needs theories to some extent, as these theories propose that internal states within individuals (such as teachers) energise and direct their behaviour.

Certain theories are causally linked to both motivation and job satisfaction. Examples of such theories are the instrumentality theory, equity theory and the two-factor theory. As these theories have already been exhaustively discussed at the beginning of the chapter cf. 2.1.3), only a brief resume shall be covered here:

### 2.4.2.8   The instrumentality theory

This theory presupposes that job satisfaction is high if the job is instrumental in getting the employees what they value or want from the job (i.e. money, autonomy, security and prestige, among others). For example, hard work rewarded by promotion may cause job satisfaction for a teacher. This equates to the cognitive theories of motivation, namely Vroom's Valence Instrumentality Theory, which

holds that rewards motivate individuals to behave in certain specific ways in order for them to achieve the rewards (Beach, 1980: Beck, 1983:382).

### 2.4.2.9 The equity theory

The founding principle behind the equity theory is fairness at work. Employees desire treatment that is fair, just and non-discriminatory and to be rewarded congruent to their efforts. The theory calls for a fair balance to be struck between employees' inputs (e.g. hard work, skills levels, tolerance and enthusiasm) and employees' outputs (e.g. salary, benefits and intangibles such as recognition) (Ololube, 2006:2). The theory is built on the belief that employees become demotivated, both in relation to their job and their employer if they feel that their inputs are greater than their outputs. At school, teacher demotivation manifests itself in different ways, inter alia: reduced effort, becoming disgruntled, or in extreme cases even becoming disruptive (Ololube *ibid.*). Conditions of equity at school however, are generally associated with job satisfaction and motivation to excel often beyond the call of duty (Adams, 1965; Baron *et al.* 2002). (Also see section 2.3.2.1.).

### 2.4.2.10 The two factor theory

This theory was postulated by Herzberg (cf. 2.3.1.3) and identifies "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" at the workplace. The two factor theory posits that the things that provide employees with satisfaction are not the same as those that bring about dissatisfaction. Whilst satisfiers impact positively on job satisfaction (e.g. promotion), dissatisfiers do not necessarily lead to job dissatisfaction. McCormick and Ilgen (in Beck, 1983:396) believe that whilst the two-factor theory has enjoyed considerable popularity in the past, there is overwhelming evidence against it.

### 2.4.2.11 Postmodernism

Postmodernism marks a shift away from the previous theories linked to job satisfaction as envisioned by the scientific management and human relations and behavioural sciences approaches (Gergen & Joseph, 1996:362-363).

Postmodernism represents a new shift in organisational theory by focusing on change, innovation and diversity. It lays emphasis on flexibility, independent judgement and teamwork, emphasises leadership over management, and promotes "self management" of institutions, for example schools. Postmodernism advocates employee empowerment and participation, and lays much less emphasis on employee job satisfaction than previous theories did.

## 2.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

Motivation and job satisfaction at the workplace have been comprehensively researched in both the private and public sectors of the economy. Both job satisfaction and motivation are vital components of the ethos, culture and climate of organisations as they are crucial to their survival and progress (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Though motivation and job satisfaction at the workplace are not necessarily conceptually synonymous, there is a causal link between them (Peretomode in Ololube 2006:3). Beck (2003), Spector (2008) and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) aver that job satisfaction is part of the motivational process. While motivation is mainly concerned with goal-directed behaviour, job satisfaction is the fulfilment acquired by experiencing various job activities and rewards. The said authors maintain that an employee may display low motivation from the organisation's perspective, yet enjoy every aspect of the job. This state represents high job satisfaction. The converse also holds true. A highly motivated employee may also be dissatisfied (low job satisfaction) with every aspect of his job.

Regarding the Ilembe district of KwaZulu Natal, informal discussions with teachers reveal that the teachers experience low motivation in view of prevailing poor conditions at schools, yet they enjoy the actual task of teaching in the classroom. There are also those teachers who appear to be motivated, yet they have reservations about teaching as a job.

## 2.6    SUMMARY

This chapter provided a review of generic theories on motivation and job satisfaction. Motivation is the interface between individuals' abilities and potential and their performance in the realisation of organisational goals. At school motivation affects teachers' performances and satisfaction and is therefore of great importance to the realisation of educational goals, the promotion of a culture of teaching and learning, and ultimately service delivery.

Motivation theories have been grouped into three categories, *viz.* needs-based, cognitive theories and drive and reinforcement theories. Needs-based theories included Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Alderfer's ERG theory, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, McClelland's learned needs theory and Hackman and Oldham's task enrichment theory. These theories focused on analysing the needs that motivate people, and infer that motivation of teachers to accomplish organisational tasks is dependent on the fulfilment of certain needs. School managers need to be mindful that teachers (especially level 1 classroom practitioners) need to be continually motivated to maintain their job satisfaction levels if effective teaching is to be maintained.

Cognitive theories are primarily concerned with the actual process of motivation i.e. how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. Unlike the needs theorists, the cognitive theorists aver that motivation is the result of thought processes that influence behaviour. The equity theory, for example, advocates fair treatment amongst teachers. If teachers perceive education managers to be biased or prejudiced against them, this would have a negative impact on their levels of motivation and job satisfaction. According to the expectancy theory, motivation is determined by individuals' beliefs in their own efforts, the resulting job performance and the outcomes (rewards and incentives) offered for the job performance. At school, teachers' levels of motivation would depend, for example, on whether the levels of their teaching are congruent with the expected levels in learner performance. Motivation, according to the goal setting theory, is a consequence of individuals' achieving goals that they set for themselves.

According to this theory, the goal itself provides the driving force which directs teachers' behaviour.

Different theories pertaining to job satisfaction have also been explained. However, innovations at the workplace in the light of advances in science and technology have progressively altered the landscape for both employers and employees. This has given birth to postmodernism, which is characterised by flexibility, independent judgement and teamwork, leadership over management, employee empowerment and inclusivity in participation and decision-making. It becomes incumbent upon education authorities, therefore, that level 1 teachers, who form the vast majority of the teacher labour force, are not excluded from empowerment, participation and decision-making.

In the next chapter literature pertaining to research on teacher motivation and job satisfaction is reviewed.

# CHAPTER 3

# A REVIEW OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS

## 3.1   INTRODUCTION

Paramount to the survival of institutions or organisations is the motivation and job satisfaction of its workforce (Baron & Greenberg, 2003:190; Werner, 2007:69). Chapter 3 takes an in-depth look at the particular factors which may determine the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in the Ilembe District.

The influence of factors according to the classification of Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:38) is explained. These factors include *demographic factors* (age, gender, race et cetera) and *organisational factors* (physical working conditions, policies, organisational structure of the school and school culture and climate). Finally, the influence of *organisational practice factors* is explained. The last-mentioned factors include the nature of the job and interpersonal relationships.

In the view of the researcher, these factors will best be understood in the context of the historical transformations of the country after the democratic elections of 1994. Hence an overview of the South African education system since democracy is now given.

## 3.2   THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM SINCE DEMOCRACY: A CURSORY OVERVIEW

Prior to 1994, the South African education system was segregated and polarised along racial lines, one being for the advantaged white population, and the other for the largely disadvantaged non-white sector of the population. The ushering in of democracy in 1994 heralded far-reaching changes in all spheres of life in South Africa. In education, legislative changes saw the introduction of several new acts of parliament, *inter alia* the South African Schools' Act (Act 84 of 1996), the National Education Policy Act (Act 27 of 1996), the Employment of Teachers' Act

(Act 76 of 1998 ), and the South African Council of Teachers' Act (Act 31 of 2000) [ELRC, 2003]. Several new teacher unions were formed to champion the rights of teachers, *inter alia* the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), the National Professional Teachers Association (NAPTOSA), and the National Teachers Union (NATU) while the Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwysers-Unie (SAOU) was carried on.

Curricular changes, such as the adoption of outcomes-based education (OBE) and the removal of certain subjects from the curriculum (such as Guidance and Counselling, Physical Education, Library Resource Education and Music), had a high impact and far-reaching consequences for education authorities, teachers, parents and learners. By and large, the greatest strain was placed on the teacher workforce, as teachers were deemed to be the implementers of the new curriculum, and were the direct interface with learners, the recipients of instruction (Kallaway, 2007:30).

Other profound changes brought about were: the introduction of and devolution of power to school governing bodies (SGBs); the rationalisation and redeployment of teachers; the offering of voluntary severance packages to long serving teachers; the closures of teacher training colleges, and the amalgamation of some of these colleges with universities; changes in school language policy; the introduction of inclusive education; the abolition of corporal punishment; and changes in funding of schools.

The above-mentioned changes, the tempo of their introduction and the manner in which they were ushered in had a significant impact on teachers, learners, parents, and the various other role-players in education, and continue to influence the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers, in particular. These influences are discussed in the next section.

## 3.3 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS

Several factors play a role in the motivation and job satisfaction of employees at the workplace. As elucidated earlier in the study (cf. 1.5) the constructs 'motivation' and 'job satisfaction' are autonomous and their meanings are mutually exclusive. However, several researchers are of the view that there is a complementary relationship between the two variables (Evans, 2001:304). In analysing the roles played by the various factors, this study will by and large adopt a complimentary approach, promoting the view that motivated employees are generally (but not necessarily) satisfied with their work setup, and satisfied personnel are generally (but not necessarily) motivated to perform well.

For the purposes of this study, the factors are categorised as demographic, organisational and organisational practice factors, and are discussed hereunder. The factors are largely generic and ubiquitous, in the sense that they are applicable to educational and other organisational milieus although the main focus is on (secondary) schools.

### 3.3.1 Demographic factors

Demographic factors are those factors that are peculiar to individual employees, and include age, gender, job tenure, occupational level, educational level, personality and perceptions of work. These factors are discussed below.

### 3.3.1.1 Age

Research findings of several studies indicate varying degrees of motivation and job satisfaction levels of employees at the workplace. According to Schulze and Steyn (2003:145) motivation levels of younger employees fresh out of training faculties, as well as employees nearing retirement are significantly higher than those who are in-between. Possible reasons for this curvilinear pattern, according to studies in the United States and United Kingdom (Spector, 2003: 226), are that the new incumbents to the fraternity are intrinsically motivated to 'make their

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mark', obtain permanency in the profession, and fulfil their personal aims and ambitions. This is in keeping with McClelland's learned needs theory (Luthans, 1988) that asserts that incumbents are driven by a need for power and affiliation, as well as Maslow's need for self-actualisation (Spector, 2008:203). Being neonates to the profession, their levels of motivation would be high. The levels of motivation, but more so job satisfaction among the more senior employees, i.e. those with high work tenure, are also high since they are deemed to be happier with the prospect of retiring after serving the fraternity for a lengthy period of time. Employees midstream in their careers are generally deemed to have lower levels of motivation and job satisfaction in view of the fact that they may have been overlooked for promotions, their home environments may yet be unsettled with their own children still studying at various institutions, and they may be expected to adapt to changing scenarios at the workplace, such as curricular and other legislative changes.

Schulze and Steyn (2003:145) and Spector (2003:226) explain motivation and job satisfaction of employees in age cohorts as follows:

*Group 1*: Teachers between the ages of 20 and 27 years are committed to marriage, children and job mobility and are in the process of building a stable future for themselves and their families while leaving their options open.

*Group 2:* Teachers between the ages of 28 and 33 years are concerned about career issues, marriage, parenting, location and owning a home.

*Group 3*: Between the ages of 34 and 39 years teachers question their accomplishments or lack thereof.

*Group 4*: The period between the ages of 40 and 47 years is generally one of unfulfilled ambitions and ambivalence.

*Group* 5:  From age 47 up to retirement, teachers generally resist change, and are fixed in values and purpose.

The above-mentioned findings for teachers in groups 1 and 2 (teachers up to the age of 33 years) are in accordance with the theories of Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (Crossman & Harris, 2006:32) who posit that young employees are enthusiastic and enjoy challenges since they are neonates in the profession and are keen to experiment and find their footing. The more senior

workers (i.e. groups 4 and 5), according to other authors (Crossman & Harris, *ibid.*), by virtue of their experience, are able to develop or have developed strategies to cope with work-related issues. However, an opposing viewpoint is expressed by Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999:537), and Kanfer and Ackerman (2000:478), who aver that older workers are not readily amenable to transformation at the workplace since they find it difficult to adapt to these changes. Luthans and Thomas (in Crossman & Harris, *ibid.*) maintain further that older workers have limited expectations and aspirations compared with younger ones, and their motivation levels are therefore correspondingly lower. Workers who are midstream in their careers (i.e. in group 3), according to Chaplain and Kinman (in Crossman & Harris, *ibid.*) are the least satisfied. The said authors state that possible reasons for this could be unfulfilled career ambitions, health related problems, and/or problems on the home-front.

### 3.3.1.2    Gender

Research concerning gender as a determinant of motivation and job satisfaction of employees at the workplace is limited (Schulze & Steyn, 2003:146). Tolbert and Moen (1998:189) state that men and women attach value to different aspects of the job: women place greater emphasis on and assign priority to work that provides them with a sense of accomplishment. According to Hillebrand (Schulze & Steyn, *ibid.*), female teachers generally desire amicable relationships with learners, and workloads and working hours that are compatible with their roles as mothers or homemakers. They appreciate being at home during holidays and being able to accommodate their children during the afternoons. Motivators to them also include salary and security, although teacher salaries have always been a debated issue.

Female teachers deemed as demotivators the following: biased evaluation for merit and for promotion, non-participation in decision-making and an inequitable workload. Many female teachers viewed the voluminous administrative work as unnecessary and demotivating (Schulze & Steyn, 2007: 694).

According to Spector (2003:225), several studies comparing job satisfaction levels between men and women reveal very small differences. Research by Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990:65), and Castillo, Conklin and Cano (1999:21) also found no significant gender differences, even though the distribution of jobs was not the same in their sample for both genders – with men occupying mainly managerial positions and women lower positions such as clerks. This finding may serve to show that some women may be happier with lower pay and less responsibility than men, perhaps because their expectations about what they will receive are lower (Spector, 2003:225).

Contrary to the above, numerous studies in the UK and elsewhere indicate that female teachers exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction than male teachers (in Crossman & Harris, 2006:32). Research by Ma and MacMillan (1999:43) and Kanfer and Ackerman (2000:478) also reveal that female teachers are more satisfied in their work than male teachers and therefore take pride in their work, are always conscious of their self-esteem and display a love for their subjects. Consistent with this view, Fresco, Kfir and Nasser (1997:431) state that married female teachers tended to be more satisfied than both their unmarried counterparts as well as male teachers. Possible reasons for these differences are that women generally occupy lower status positions, have lower expectations, and are more satisfied at work. Men (more than women) also view teaching as a low status career (Crossman & Harris 2006, *ibid.*).

*3.3.1.3   Race*

Many years ago (in 1987) Brush, Moch and Dooyan (1987:139) found that though literature is replete with documentation of relationships between individuals' different characteristics and job satisfaction, the relationship between the demographic variable of race and job satisfaction was inconsistent and not well documented. The said authors found, however, that both empirical and theoretical reasons existed for a dependency between race and job satisfaction. Upon review of eight case studies which reported significant associations between race and job satisfaction between black and white employees, the said authors found black employees to have lower levels of job satisfaction than their white counterparts

(Brush *et al.*, *ibid.*). The findings also revealed that the main reasons for this were cultural reasons. However, there were studies that showed no association between job satisfaction and race (Jones & Weaver in Brush *et al.*, 1987:142).

Other early studies on the effects of race on organisational experiences, job performance evaluations and career outcomes for black and white managers in the United States showed similar results: black people felt less accepted in their organisations, perceived themselves as having less discretion in their jobs, received lower rating from their superiors on their job performances and promotability, were more likely to have reached career plateaus, and experienced lower levels of career satisfaction than their white counterparts (Greenhaus *et al.*, 1990:64). Ilgen and Youtz (in Greenhaus *et al.*, 1990:65) termed this scenario "treatment discrimination", and stated that treatment discrimination reduced individuals' job performance and career prospects, since they would receive fewer opportunities to enhance work-related skills and the loss of such opportunities would invariably depress their abilities, motivation, or both, and thereby diminish the effectiveness of their job performance.

Similar and more recent studies by Friday, Moss and Friday (2004:153) reveal conflicting empirical evidence for racial differences on job satisfaction. These results suggest that the physical or descriptive variable 'race' is not sufficient in explaining racio-ethnic differences in job satisfaction.

Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly (Friday *et al.*, 2004:155) claim that studies in the United States found that organisational diversity (heterogeneity in work units) negatively affected white employees more than it did non-whites. It was found that white employees reported less satisfaction than non-whites when their organisations were more racio-ethnically diverse. This had a bearing on the satisfaction of workers who were from a great diversity of cultures in the surroundings that accounted for the cosmopolitan ethnic composition of the workforce (Friday *et al.*, 2004: 156).

A recent study in the USA on racial privileges in the professoriate revealed numerous challenges faced by non-white academics and these invariably

influenced their levels of motivation and job satisfaction. These challenges included inter alia: low numbers of minorities in the professoriate and on campus; barriers to tenure and promotion; feelings of "otherness" and experiences of racial and ethnic bias (Jayakumar, Howard & Allen, 2009:540). Surveys carried out on the job satisfaction levels of academics revealed that 37% of the white faculty members indicated the highest levels of satisfaction as compared with only 23% of their black counterparts. Black women recorded the highest levels of dissatisfaction, citing salaries as their main reason (Jayakumar *et al.*, 2009:543).

In South Africa there is a paucity of literature on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in terms of race. Staff compositions in the main reflect homogeneity, i.e. in previously "Indian" schools, the predominant race group since democracy remained Indian, regardless of the influx of African learners from the surrounding townships. Studies by Manning (2004:527) and Fataar (2009) reveal, however, that in certain previously advantaged schools, non-white teachers and learners presented assimilation problems which impacted negatively on the teachers' motivation and job satisfaction levels.

### 3.3.1.4   *Job tenure*

Job tenure refers to the number of years of service an individual has as an employee of an organisation, similar to the demographic factor age. Studies by Schulze and Steyn (2003:145) and Spector (2003:226) reveal that there is a curvilinear relationship between job tenure and the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of individuals.

### 3.3.1.5   *Occupational level*

Occupational level refers to the positions that employees hold in the hierarchy of an organisation. According to Clark, Burke and Voster (Bull, 2005:47), men and women who occupy more senior positions in organisations report higher levels of job satisfaction than those who are lower ranked. Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra and Smith (1998: 475) also aver that there is a positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction and that this may be attributed to factors such as better

working conditions, higher pay, promotion achievements, supervision, autonomy and responsibility.

However, in education, with the recent implementation of occupation specific dispensation (OSD) in education, level 1 teachers who have been classified as 'senior' and 'master' teachers have been placed in salary categories either equivalent to or above that of their immediate supervisors (i.e. Departmental Heads and in some cases Deputy Principals). According to the DoE, this is referred to as career pathing, which is aimed at retaining (and rewarding) expertise of experienced teachers who are at level 1, and those who are unwilling to apply for promotion posts (Foca & Worst, 2008:1-2). Such rewards positively influence the motivation and job satisfaction levels of the relevant teachers.

### 3.3.1.6    Educational level

Educational level refers to the qualification/s that employees hold in relation to the work requirements of their jobs. Research findings differ markedly in respect of the correlation between educational level and job satisfaction of individuals. Research by Bull (2005) reveals findings ranging from no significant relationship between educational level and job satisfaction on the one hand, to an inverse relationship between the constructs on the other. An inverse relationship would mean that the higher the educational levels, the lower the job satisfaction. The latter point of view is shared by Gazioglu and Tansel (in Bull 2005:49).

A positive relationship implies that the higher the individual's qualifications, the higher would the individuals' job level be and consequently the higher is their job satisfaction. Studies by Battu, Belfield and Sloane (1999), Johnson and Johnson (2000) and Perrachione, Rosser and Peterson (2008:2) reveal a positive relationship between educational level and job satisfaction subject to a successful match being made between the individual's work and qualifications. By implication, therefore, better educated employees were only likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties they performed were in line with their levels of education.

*3.3.1.7    Personality*

Goldberg (in Heller *et al.*, 2002:818) claims that human personality could be described using a five factor model. These five factors or personality traits are extraversion (or surgency), neuroticism (or emotional instability), agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness (or culture). (Also see section 2.4.2.3 where dispositional theory is explained.) Empirical findings suggest a significant relationship between the five personality traits and job satisfaction (Heller *et al.*, 2002, *ibid.*). The said authors maintain that neurotic individuals experience more negative life events than other individuals; extraverts predispose positive emotions, have more friends, and engage in more rewarding social interactions; and conscientious individuals are self directed, efficient and hard-working. Collectively and cumulatively, these personalities affect and influence job satisfaction of teachers at school and life in general (Heller *et al.*, 2002, *ibid.*).

There is a negative correlation between work stress and job satisfaction (Jaye, 2002:42). Empirical studies in the United Kingdom and Wales (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002:7) confirmed positive relationships between teacher stress and neuroticism, and negative relationships between teacher stress and extraversion. These findings were commensurate with research findings of several studies in South Africa. Ngidi and Sibaya (2002:13) found that neuroticism was related to time pressures, administration problems and learner misbehaviour. They posited that neurotic (emotionally unstable) teachers were anxious, worried, overly reactive and inclined to react in an irrational and rigid way. Stable (agreeable and open-minded) teachers on the other hand, were calm and tended to react in flexible ways. Individuals' personalities thus determined how they reacted to particular situations (Ngidi & Sibaya, *ibid.*).

Some researchers have examined the implications of the Big Five model on interpersonal relationships (Morrison, 1997:44), and found that high extraversion and neuroticism, together with low agreeableness and openness were shown to be consistently related to anger, hostility, instability and dissatisfaction. Extraversion could negatively influence social relationships since individuals with this trait were more likely to be condescending. This may be a function of the

dominance feature of this trait which reflects the granting of status to the self while denying status to others. Individuals high in agreeableness may positively influence relationships.

Another personality characteristic, type A behaviour, could also play an important role in predicting congenial interpersonal relations. While it was generally accepted that type As were achievement oriented and competitive, research indicated that type A behaviour tended to be associated with hostility, anger, emotional instability, obsessionality, and lower psychological well-being; hence people who had type A personalities were more apt to become involved in interpersonal conflicts than type Bs. People with type B personalities had no time urgency, harboured no hostilities, were able to relax without guilt, were cooperative and flexible, were respectful of others' integrity, encouraged trust and openness, and were amenable to negative criticism. By comparison, therefore, people with type A personalities were more goal-driven to achieve, managed more demanding challenges and stayed on tasks for longer. If things did not go their way, they easily became despondent, frustrated and demotivated. Type B personalities coped better in stressful situations, exercised better judgement and were not easily demotivated (Saptoe, 2000:48-50; Jaye, 2002:48-50).

Spector (2003:224) identified negative affectivity (NA) and locus of control as two important personality traits that defined individuals' job satisfaction levels. Negative affectivity was a tendency to experience negative emotions such as anxiety or depression congruent to work demands which the individual found difficult to cope with in the absence of coping mechanisms such as empathy, pastoral care, guidance and support. Locus of control indicated the extent to which individuals believed in their ability to control aspects of their life (Spector. *ibid*). "Internals" saw their lives being controlled by their own actions, and "externals" were those who perceived their lives as being controlled by outside forces such as fate and luck (Spector, 2003:224). Several studies (in Crossman & Harris, 2006:31) revealed that "internals" experienced higher levels of job satisfaction than "externals", possibly because they performed better at their jobs and received greater rewards.

### 3.3.1.8  Perceptions of employees

Human beings are perceptive by nature. They have inherent cognitive capabilities, the power of reason and intuitive logic to differentiate between phenomena. They are able to extend their insights into situations, attach meanings, make inferences and draw conclusions about cause and effect relationships, equity and fairness, and distributive, procedural and interactive justice in the workplace. The interplay of these and other characteristic traits determine by and large the motivation and job satisfaction of employees at work (Andrews, Baker & Hunt, 2008:135; Werner, 2007:49).

According to Sempane *et al.*, (2002:23), job satisfaction has to do with individuals' perceptions and evaluations of their job, and these perceptions were influenced by the individuals' unique circumstances, needs, values and expectations. Steyn and Van Wyk (1999, *ibid.*) stated that the formation of perceptions were inevitable; however, peoples' perceptions may not be an accurate reflection of reality, and peoples' perceptions of the same situation could differ completely. Noel *et al.* (in Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999:38) concurred with this viewpoint, and stated that job satisfaction was the perception that work fulfilled their important job values. Values were defined as individuals' conscious or unconscious desire to obtain something. People differed with regard to which values they regarded as important.

Douglas McGregor's X and Y leadership theories (McGregor, 2006:74) illustrate how the perception managers have of their employees influences the way they treat their employees, and in turn influences their employees' performances. (Also see section 2.3.1.4.) Managers who perceive their employees as resourceful (Theory Y managers) create opportunities for them to demonstrate their potential and achieve success. The converse is also true. Managers who perceive their employees in a negative light (Theory X managers) treat them in a derogatory way, and this reflects in the poor performance of employees (Werner, 2007, *ibid.*).

In the school's social system, the above is also true. In addition, efficacy beliefs (their judgement of how capable they are), influence how teachers feel, think, act and motivate themselves. Thus, the efficacy beliefs of teachers influence their

wellbeing and what they can accomplish for the school (Bandura in Schechter & Tschannen-Moran, 2006:481). According to the social cognitive theory, teachers' perceptions of both self and organisations influence their actions. For example, teachers perceive their self-efficacy to be high when learners' performances are high, meaning that teaching and learning is taking place as anticipated (Schechter & Tschannen-Moran, *ibid*.). The converse would also hold true. Teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy would be low if learner performances were poor.

## 3.3.2 Organisational factors

### 3.3.2.1 *Physical working conditions*

The socio-economic status of the school influences the motivation and job satisfaction levels of its teachers and ultimately the achievement levels of learners (Christie, Butler & Potterton, 2007:4; Smith & Hoy, 2007:556-557). Hence by comparison, urban schools (the so-called Quintile 5 Schools) are generally more advantaged when compared with their rural and township counterparts. In the Ilembe District, which is predominantly rural, many schools serve historically disadvantaged communities. Literature is replete with the challenges facing learners in these areas (Bloch, 2010a:6; Panday & Arends, 2008:22). Although the DoE has set up a series of commissions and projects to investigate educational problems in these areas, redress is taking place at a slow pace. Some of the challenges prevalent in these areas include:

- the lack of physical resources such as clean water, proper sanitation and basic infrastructure;
- overcrowding in classrooms and the lack of teacher support and personnel;
- learners' ill-discipline and unwillingness to accept instructions and to abide by the school's Code of Conduct;
- the apparent lack of parental involvement and supervision of learners' work at home;
- violence, threats of intimidation and heinous assaults on teachers who are perceived to be exerting "undue pressure" on learners by demanding that work be done; and

- inequalities that exist between the poorly resourced schools, and the continuous comparisons of learner results between poorly and well-resourced school types (Davids & Makwabe, 2007:1; Guttman, 2007:14-15; Karp, 2007:5; Mohlala, 2010:2).

The aspirations of teachers in terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's 'hygiene factor' of a conducive working environment, and Alderfer's ERG Theory are difficult to meet; hence teachers merely do "the best they can" (Taylor, 2007). Marginalisation in the form of poverty and deprivation, the onslaught of HIV/AIDS, and underdevelopment and neglect, have a cumulative impact on the entire ethos of schooling in these areas, thereby making motivation and job satisfaction of teachers difficult. Teachers in these environments feel that their work is not valued (Vail, 2005:11).

Affluent schools by contrast, are well resourced. They have smaller class units, smaller teacher-learner ratios, teachers with teacher aides, computer and media centres, and offer a range of sporting facilities. In addition, they have supplementary staff such as tutors, coaches, and maintenance and security personnel. Funding from sponsors and big business, together with payment of comparatively higher school fees ensure the smooth functioning of these institutions (Ellis & Bernhardt, 1992:180; The Mercury, 2010:1-12). Coupled with focused school governance, enforced school discipline, fiscal propriety, and in some cases with sound legal backing, these schools are the best in the country. Personal consultation and interaction with teachers from such schools reveal high levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

### 3.3.2.2    Policy and management

Teachers need to implement education policies (Kallaway, 2007:30), whilst the actual formulation of the policies is done by the Education Policy Unit of the DoE. According to Swanepoel (2009:461), governments and politicians view education systems as instruments for social engineering and the creation of economic growth. In order to drive this agenda, the DoE is mandated to formulate, implement and evaluate these policies in order to monitor progress. However, it is

the expressed view of many teachers that in formulating policy, teachers are not included in the decision-making and responsibility-taking processes (Swanepoel, 2009:462). Politicians and bureaucrats give insufficient cognisance to exigencies that schools face. The inevitable result of this is a huge divide between policy formulation and policy implementation. Carl (2005:223) is of the view that, as implementers of education policy, teachers desire full involvement in decision-making processes. Poppleton and Williamson (2004:289) aver that the more teachers participate in and are involved with school change, the more positive they would feel about the change, and the more willing they would be to participate in future scenarios involving school change. However, findings by Carl (*ibid.*) also reveal that in instances where teachers *were* involved, little attention was given to their views.

A plethora of policies pervade the educational landscape and influence the functioning of schools. This study singles out only those policies which predominantly influence motivation and job satisfaction of teachers, and include inter alia, the policies regulating teachers' remuneration, admission, discipline, safety and security, promotions, school governance, recognition and rewards, assessment and teachers' evaluation. These policies appear to be most topical not only in the Ilembe District, but throughout KwaZulu-Natal. They are discussed and deliberated at various fora, inter alia, during workshops and seminars, union and other teacher gatherings, and necessitate investigation and discussion. A résumé of these policies are now discussed with special focus on their relevance to motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

*(i)      Remuneration policy*

Teacher salaries have always been debated and continue to be so. In the teaching profession, it is widely acclaimed to be a major deterrent frustrating teachers and militating against the recruitment of individuals to enter the teaching profession. The three main demands of teachers during the public sector strike of August 2010 in South Africa were (South African Democratic Teacher's Union [SADTU], 2010:1)**:**

- An across-the -board salary increase of 8.6%;

- Housing allowance to be increased from the existing R500 to R1000; and

- An equalisation of medical aid contributions and benefits.

Anomalies in the remuneration policy of teachers that may influence their job satisfaction are also prevalent in other areas:

- There is non-differentiation in salary packages between primary and secondary school teachers while job demands, needs and requirements are vastly different in these two phases of schooling (Payscale, 2011a:1; Payscale, 2011b:1). It is widely acclaimed and documented that teaching in the secondary school is classified as "one of the ten tough jobs" (cf. 1.1) as compared with the more "rudimentary competencies in reading, writing and arithmetic" provided by primary school teachers (Fleisch, 2008:68). However, no differentiation exists in the remuneration packages of the teachers in these types of schools.

- Subordinates earn higher salaries than their superiors. The introduction of career-pathing in the DoE's Occupation Specific Dispensation (implemented in 2008) has made it possible for Level 1 senior and master teachers to earn higher salary packages than Level 2 (Departmental Heads) and in some cases Level 3 teachers (Deputy Principals). (Also see 3.3.3.1.)

- There are salary level discrepancies between entry level and serving teachers. In order to attract incumbents to the teaching profession, the DoE has revised and made lucrative the salary packages of entry level teachers (Balt, 2005:11). However, while this is a reasonable strategy in view of dire shortages of qualified personnel in the teaching fraternity, the salary packages of serving teachers have not been similarly addressed.

- Capped leave has been "frozen". Long leave that was due to teachers prior to the new political order has been capped and would only be payable upon death, retirement or redundancy on medical grounds (DoE, 1998).

*(ii)    Admission policy*

Admission policies may influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. For example, the Education White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001) makes provision for the admission of learners with special educational needs to public schools, in cases where it is reasonably practical to do so. In such instances, schools are encouraged to make the necessary arrangements to make facilities accessible for such learners. According to Education White Paper 6, such situations require that teachers or school personnel be trained and supported in order to deal with learners with special needs. This appears not to be the case in South African schools. Teachers, by virtue of being the direct interface with learners, are hence compelled to attend to the needs of such children without any training or experience, thereby adding to their workloads.

Learners who are older than the normal age cohort of learners in a particular grade and who are repeating grades may not be removed from the schooling system, regardless of their advanced age (ELRC, 2003). It is hence permissible for "adult" learners to be placed in class together with much younger learners. Research has shown that, in such cases, behavioural problems such as bullying, extortion, sexual and other forms of abuse present themselves at school campuses (Van der Merwe, 2009:18), thereby creating additional problems for learners and teachers.

The admission policies of affluent schools (such as ex-Model C schools), largely due to relatively high fee structures, may be construed as exclusionary (Vally, 1999:84). According to Vally (*ibid.*), SGBs levy high fees that are unaffordable to many parents who are then forced to send their children to other public schools. The effect of this is that the latter schools have relatively large class sizes in comparison to affluent schools.

*(iii)*    *Safety, security and disciplinary policy*

According to Jody Kollapen (Van der Merwe, 2009:18) school violence, in particular in secondary schools, is a common feature in many schools today. This impacts negatively on the ethos of the school, on the maintenance of law and order and on service delivery. Both teachers and learners are traumatised by acts of violence and threats of violence and intimidation.

Research has shown that learner violence is strongly linked to drug and substance abuse, as affected learners appear to lack control of their senses and appear oblivious of their actions (Gasa, 2005). According to the National Education Policy Act (NEPA), Act 27 of 1996 (RSA, 2000), evidence indicates that school communities are particularly vulnerable to drug use by learners and this includes both rural and urban learners (ELRC:2003). Blaser (2008:35) and Gasa (2005) aver that there is a high correlation between drug abuse and other anti-social and high risk behaviour that is typical of countercultures, such as violence, sexual violence, gangsterism and theft.

NEPA advocates restorative justice to be meted out to learners who are involved with drugs and drug abuse. According to NEPA (ELRC:2003) punitive measures taken against drug offenders would serve only to address part of the problem, as it views drug abuse as resulting from experimentation and peer pressure. Dibetle (2008:5) and Mabitla (2006:36) view drug abuse to be detrimental to learners on social, physical, emotional and psychological levels, and state that misuse could lead to dependency and chronic health problems.

Even though NEPA advocates a supportive environment in dealing with learners with drug-related problems, teachers are ill-prepared to deal with such situations. The prohibition of random searches of learners (ELRC:2003) has compounded the problem), many teachers become traumatised when confronted by drug-intoxicated learners. Motivation and job satisfaction of teachers are compromised as teachers are not trained to deal with these types of situations, and therefore

react to these situations with paranoia (Dibetle *op.cit.*; Makwabe, 2007:4; Roper, 2007:15).

Teachers also express mixed reactions to the provisions governing the suspension and expulsion of learners from public schools, as well as the prohibition of corporal punishment. According to the South African Schools Act, it becomes the prerogative of the SGB to suspend a learner who violates the school's code of conduct after the learner has been given a fair hearing. The suspension may be for not more than a week. Expulsion of learners guilty of gross transgressions is the sole prerogative of the DoE, who then has to find alternate placement for the learner in another school. Many teachers are of the view that educational legislation leans too heavily in the favour of learners. This, together with the abolition of corporal punishment without appropriate methods of discipline to take its place, is viewed by many teachers with disdain (Macarthy, 2008:39; Makwabe, 2007).

*(iv)     School governance policy*

Current legislation governing the appointment process of education managers has been shown to have grave consequences for schools (Dehaloo, 2008). The low minimum requirements such as low teaching qualifications and low number of years of experience required allows many ill-equipped teachers to become eligible to apply successfully for senior management positions. This, together with non-verification of candidates' curriculum vitae to check for authenticity of credentials, makes it easy for poor performing candidates who present themselves favourably to be appointed to vacant positions over the more suitable candidates. Furthermore, the present system of school governance makes it permissible for friends, political, union or other allies to occupy positions of strategic importance in the school as an organisation. This could be to the detriment of the institution (Dehaloo, *ibid.*).

The school principal arguably occupies the single most important position in the school hierarchy, and ought to have a unique career path (Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:431). However, this practice is visibly absent in South Africa,

even though attempts (such as the Advanced Certificate in Education qualification for principals) have been piloted in selected higher education institutions in the country.

Bloch (2009b:17) states that 80% of South African schools are dysfunctional, and coupled with the myriad of contextual factors pertinent to individual schools, school managers and SMTs are responsible for the poor state of schools. It would imply therefore that unless and until committed legislative changes are introduced, merit selection is practiced, trained and experienced managers are appointed to run schools, the dysfunctional status quo of schools would persist. This would necessarily impact on the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers.

*(v)    Curricular and assessment policies, and teacher evaluations*

Assessment and performance evaluations are crucial determinants of the rates of progress in schools. This study looks at policies that govern learner assessment by teachers, as well as policies that constitute evaluations of the teachers themselves by the DoE.

The assessment policy that was ushered in by OBE amplified the teachers' workload drastically. Norm-referenced tests were done away with and replaced with criterion-referenced tests. Whilst the former was based on work covered by the subject teacher and were assessed in the form of class tests and assignments, the latter involved an array of testing strategies to be employed until the desired outcome was achieved. Criterion-referenced testing effectively meant that teachers' were compelled to assess learners' work on a continuous basis, and accept only the "best marks" of learners. OBE earned significant critique because of *inter alia* the following factors (Motshekga, 2009:1; Sunday Independent, 2010:1; Young, undated: 6):
- OBE was implemented over-hastily and unprepared teachers were forced to adopt an unfamiliar system without any previous training;
- The envisaged in-service and pre-service teacher training to build capacity in teachers did not materialise;

- Learning materials and resources that were supposed to be produced by expert writers and publishers were exploited opportunistically by individuals with little understanding of OBE. Hence commercial opportunism triumphed over sound pedagogical values; and

- Important reviews and evaluations on the progress of OBE were not free of bias and communicated that the new system was working well, whereas in fact it was not.

Teachers decried the excessive workloads through their unions, the electronic media and in print and slated OBE as a cause of much teacher demotivation, stress and ill-health. The National Senior Certificate Examination of 2009 recorded a pass rate of 60.6%, the lowest pass rate ever (Sunday Independent, 2010:5). This vindicated teacher sentiment nation-wide that OBE needed to be abandoned. This prompted newly appointed Minister of Education, Angie Motshekga, to appoint the Curriculum Implementation Review Committee to look at teacher concerns and come up with recommendations. These recommendations included *inter alia* (The Teacher, 2010:10; National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa [NAPTOSA], 2010:1):

- reduction of recording and reporting;

- reduction of the number of projects for learners;

- removal of the requirements for portfolio files of learner assessments and

- discontinuation of the Common Tests for Assessments (CTA's) for grade 9 learners.

In addition to the above, the National Curriculum Statement, according to the education ministry, is being made more accessible to teachers. Whereas OBE initially required of teachers to draw up their own lesson plans and learning programmes in a loosely knit non-prescriptive manner, the revised package implies that every subject in each grade will have a single, comprehensive and concise curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS) that would provide details on what content teachers ought to teach and assess on a grade-by-grade, and subject-by-subject basis. The CAPS outlines the topics for each subject and recommends the number and type of assessments per term. According to the

Department of Basic Education, the CAPS will be phased into grades four to 12 from 2012 onwards (The Teacher, 2010: 10). Continuous changes such as the above, significantly impacts on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

*(vi)    Teacher evaluation*

Insofar as teacher evaluations are concerned, the DoE has experimented with several models, *viz.* Developmental Appraisal (DA), Performance Management (PM) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE). These three systems were eventually amalgamated into one system which was called the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS), which was implemented in schools in January 2005.

Whilst the IQMS is aimed at developing teachers non-judgmentally to improve best practice at school, it falls short of its mandate on several fronts. De Clerq (2008:8) maintains that although the IQMS addresses some problems of the previous teacher monitoring and appraisal system, it also creates new problems and tensions. This is largely because of its problematic conceptual understanding of teachers, their status, work and what needs to be done to improve teaching practices (De Clerq, *ibid*).

Whilst the IQMS is considered by some researchers as a more realistic tool for the evaluation of schools and school personnel (Hindle, 2006; Ngobese, 2009), others highlight several areas of concern. Bloch, (2009b), Joint Education Trust [JET], (2005) and Taylor, (2006) aver that the IQMS is based on the assumption that a certain level of professional competence, openness and respect exists amongst staff members which leads to a professional collaborative climate in which superiors, subordinates and peers engage one another professionally. In reality this may not be true in South Africa as many teachers hold unsatisfactory professional qualifications and have poor mastery of subject and pedagogical knowledge. These teachers have made their way into schools due to the void created by the drastic shortage of teachers country-wide. In many instances these unqualified teachers do not do justice to teaching as they are temporary and may not remain in the teaching profession. It is not mandatory to subject these teachers to the IQMS.

The majority of schools in South Africa display a poor culture of teaching and learning, which accounts for the country's learners achieving the lowest results in the world for comparative countries (Bloch, 2009a:3; Taylor, Fleisch & Schindler, 2008:38). These poor results influence teachers' values and attitudes, and make them defensive towards any form of performance monitoring.

The IQMS is viewed with dissension in affluent and well-functioning schools (De Clerq, 2008:15). Studies by Ryan (in De Clerq, 2008:15) show that teachers in such schools do not perceive a need to improve their instructional competence as the performances of their learners in academic, sporting, co- and extra-curricular arenas vindicate their levels of work commitment, competence and expertise. Rather, these teachers believe their focus should be on administrative and managerial work with the view to further develop their personal careers. The IQMS as an evaluative tool is of no utility value to them, other than it being a cumbersome, time-consuming and fruitless exercise.

Weber (2005:70) highlights two other concerns regarding IQMS. Firstly, that the system is focused exclusively on schools and government employees, *viz.* teachers. It does not explain by what procedures the national education department will be made accountable. The idea that the department has the responsibility for providing facilities and resources to support learning and teaching (ELRC, 2003:3) is not followed through regarding what will be provided and how it will be done, who will monitor and evaluate the adequacy of the provision and the efficacy of the development of human resources. The second concern is that the IQMS has marginalised two important groups: learners and parents (on the one hand), and their representative organisations, the Learner Representative Councils (RCLs) and the SGBs, on the other hand. Teacher performance and school development cannot be isolated from the involvement of all constituents as this marginalisation invariably tantamounts to them remaining oblivious of the new controls that are put in place at the institutions they supposedly govern.

A World Bank study on secondary education in Africa revealed that for teachers to be effective and competent, they should have curricular (subject) knowledge,

pedagogical knowledge, as well as societal knowledge. Together with these competencies, teachers require educational resources and expertise in using these resources, an effective curriculum and an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning (De Clerq, *ibid.*). Evidently, in the South African context, these are visibly absent in many schools. In addition, factors such as the poor socio-economic backgrounds of learners and their communities, the context of schooling itself, inadequate leadership and quality resources, coupled with poor teacher development militate against the use of a single uniform evaluation instrument such as the IQMS (Gallie, 2006; Khan, Mfusi & Gasa, 2010:1).

### 3.3.2.3   *Organisational structure of the school*

In South Africa the state controls crucial structural forms such as school registration, teacher registration, teacher remuneration and responsibility, age regulations for learners, learner-teacher ratios, curriculum at each level and certification at formal exit points (Christie, 1998:286). Schools are formal organisations characterised by formalised teaching and learning, division of labour, administrative bureaucracy and forms of standardisation (Cooper in Christie, 1998:287). As formal organisations, schools place people in specific relationships to each other, both within and outside their boundaries, for example learners, teachers, principals, parents and inspectors.

Schools are also hierarchical with ranked levels of authority. Teachers are subject to a range of formal and unobtrusive controls (Ingersoll in Christie, 1998:287). Some of these are the lack of discretion over the subjects they teach and their reliance on the school hierarchy to support them in disciplinary matters, since they have limited authority. They are also often subject to the personal controls of principals over issues which affect the quality of their daily work such as room and class allocations, their timetables and non-teaching duties. These factors invariably impact on teacher morale, job satisfaction and turnover of teachers.

As organisations schools are structured around axes of time and space, which constitute significant boundaries for learning and teaching. Teachers, learners and other personnel are expected to spend a minimum of seven hours per day at

school. The school timetable frames learning and teaching times according to strict allocation of time periods. Christie (*ibid.*) avers that the maintenance of time codes and the boundaries they provide is a central premise of school discipline.

Space, like time, also provides a constitutive framework for institutional schooling. Space is demarcated for specific pedagogic functions, for physical care and for safety of individuals. In the South African context, the spatial orientation and structure of schools do not support the substantive work of systematised learning as there is breakdown of rhythmical disciplined learning and teaching in time and space (Christie, *ibid.*).

De Clerq's study into dysfunctional schools (Christie,1998:289) identifies four categories of problems: poor physical or social facilities, poor school-community relationships, organisational problems and poor relationships between the DoE and schools. Physical working conditions at schools have already been elucidated (cf. 3.3.2), as have school community relations (cf. 3.3.3.2) and need no further comment.

Organisational problems, according to Christie (1998:291) and Mohlala (2010:2), arise mainly due to the breakdown of management and leadership within schools, together with the disorganised support systems from the DoE. Organisational breakdown, according to Christie (*ibid.*) manifests itself in the collapse of social relations of authority in schools, the disruption of rituals such as assemblies and ceremonies, and boundaries such as those in time and space, the malfunctioning of day to day administration and ultimately the disruption of disciplined teaching and learning. In reaction to this, teachers invariably display characteristics such as apathy, depression, anxiety and disempowerment.

Effective leadership is an essential component in the organisational structure of schools. In dealing with subordinates, superiors need to be mindful of the legislated values such as democracy, transparency, accountability, and mutual respect (Singh & Manser, 2002:56). Top-down, one sided "instructions" are not conducive to effective communication, but are seen to be hostile and counterproductive. Evans (2001:303) is of the view that educational managers as

leaders have as much responsibility towards the staff they lead and manage, as they do towards the learners in the institution. She maintains that the principal's teacher-centred leadership ought to focus on the individuals who make up the staff and aim at developing a professional work ethic based on tolerance, cooperation, compromise and consideration for others. Further, by virtue of their office, the school principals are responsible for ensuring that the teachers and the non-teacher personnel work in harmony for the smooth functioning of the school. As an *ex officio* member of the SGB, the principal is responsible for ensuring that the security and maintenance personnel render satisfactory services to the school, in accordance with their contractual obligations (Dehaloo, 2008:53).

As interactive centres of learning, schools are characterised by interplay of human relationships. These interrelationships are discussed under organisational practice factors (cf.3.3.3). Human relationships are complex and are often marred by conflict, disagreement and non-cooperation which challenge the functionality of schools as institutions. The resolution and management of conflict, the use of disciplinary measures and the manner in which grievance procedures are followed determine to a large measure the levels of satisfaction of employees. Depending on its nature, conflict resolution at school often necessitates the involvement of a number of stakeholders, *inter alia*, education authorities, security and welfare agencies, teacher unions and religious bodies.

The South African reality attests to the collapse or near collapse of certain rural and township schools, largely due to apathetic, non-committed involvement of these stakeholder sectors (Serrao, 2010:4).

The breakdown of formal relationships at schools is also extremely detrimental to the organisational structure of the school. The recruitment, selection and appointment of candidates to important leadership positions based on questionable grounds of bias often introduce untenable strain on human relations at school, and threaten the functionality of the school as an organisation (Dehaloo, 2008).

### 3.3.2.4    School culture and climate

"Culture" is defined as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede in Ng & Yim, 2009:764). Culture is hence viewed as a phenomenon at the group, institutional, or societal level, even though it has strong relevance for predicting individuals' behaviours. A school's culture includes its traditions, rituals, practices, rewards and recognition ceremonies, as well as its disciplinary codes of practice that are generally steeped in its history.

The cultural practices of especially the affluent former Model-C schools in South Africa have been fiercely guarded by the communities these institutions serve, even though the Bill of Rights of the South African Constitution forbids exclusionary practices based on race, culture, religion or creed (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No 108 of 1996). Studies by the South African Human Rights Commission (Vally, 1999:84) reveal that even though schools in South Africa are now desegregated, learners from other racial groups are expected to assimilate into the prevailing ethos of these (ex-Model C) schools.

Some schools have toxic cultures, i.e. there is hostility and conflict between teachers on an ongoing basis (Vail, 2005:4). In most instances, this toxic culture is a consequence of personality conflicts, professional rivalry, intolerance, jealousy and bigotry and is counterproductive to the spirit of collegiality and the achievement of shared goals. The prevalence of such relationships need to be carefully approached by the principal and diffused – only then would the climate be made conducive to teaching and learning (Bloch, 2009a; Evans, 2001:294).

A school's culture determines its climate. School climate according to Reichers and Schneider (Milner & Khoza, 2008:58) refers to shared perceptions of organisational policies, practices and procedures, both formal and informal. McEvoy (in Milner & Khoza, *ibid.*) defines school climate as the attitudes, beliefs, values and norms that underlie the instructional practices and the operation of a school. Hoy, Smith and Sweetland (2003:38-39) examine school climate in the light of organisational health, and maintain that a healthy school climate is one

imbued with positive learner, teacher and administrator relationships, with a view to setting high yet achievable goals and striving to achieve these goals.

Macmillan (in Black 2001:41) declares that principals spearhead their school's climate and culture. Principals who effectively define their school's mission, who manage the school's instructional programme well and who promote a positive climate for student learning boost the motivation, morale and job satisfaction levels of teachers.

According to Schulze and Steyn (2003:147) and Hoy *et al.* (*ibid.*), school climate is either open or closed. An open climate is characterised by participatory decision making; teacher empowerment, teacher professionalism; open communication; and a sensitive leadership style of the principal. Teacher empowerment is important as teachers are happiest and perform at their best when they perceive themselves to have some control over their work environment (Vail, 2005:7). Milner and Khoza (2008:158) concur with this viewpoint and add that an open school climate is based on respect, trust and honesty, with opportunities for teachers, learners and school management teams to engage cooperatively and constructively with one another. By contrast, autocratic top-down leadership tends to inhibit teacher motivation and morale. Schools that have participatory decision making exhibit less staff disharmony, learner misbehaviour, and teacher turnover. Teachers feel valued and respected when managers consult with them and consider their views (Ingersoll in Vail, 2005:7).

One of the daunting challenges facing institutions of learning such as schools is that of learner misdemeanour, which manifests itself in several ways, *inter alia*, bullying, non-compliance to instruction, criminal activities, threats, intimidation and violence, drug addiction and sexual misconduct (Kollapen, 2006:27). Learner ill-discipline, in particular learner aggression, learner violence and threats to cause harm to the person, create fear and uncertainty in teachers and adversely affect the educational ethos of the school (Steyn, 2002:89; Sunday Times, 2007:24). Decisive action needs to be taken by the principal, SMT and the SGB to effectively take charge of the situation (Vail, 2005:9).

The type of leadership provided by the principal is crucial for the success of the institution. According to Vail (2005:11), the principal needs to possess abundant emotional intelligence which includes empathy, sensitivity, respect and care in dealing with subordinates. Everyone needs to feel emotional support from the person they work for; the hallmarks by which subordinates evaluate the pastoral care of their superiors are expressing empathy, recognising and appreciating good work, validating efforts, appreciating a well done job and helping people develop new strengths. Goleman (in Vail, *ibid.*) avers that a leader with strong emotional intelligence is an asset to an organisation and creates desirable surroundings.

### 3.3.3 Organisational practice factors

Organisational practice factors refer to those factors that influence motivation and job satisfaction of teachers as classroom practitioners, and involve the diverse roles that teachers are expected to play in their interactions with the various stakeholders involved in the education of the learner. These stakeholders include education authorities, non-governmental organisations, business and religious/tribal leaders and other community organisations. The organisational practice factors link up with Hertzberg's (in Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999:38) motivators which relate directly or indirectly to the teacher's job performance. As education practitioner, curriculum implementer and being the direct interface with learners, the teacher is challenged on several fronts (Dehaloo, 2008). A review of the literature reveals that these challenges continually impact on teacher motivation and contributes significantly to their levels of job satisfaction. For the purposes of this study, the organisational practice factors include the nature of teaching as a job (e.g. workload, class size, autonomy, role conflict and rewards). It also includes interpersonal relationships (e.g. with colleagues, superiors, learners, parents or guardians and the broader community).

### 3.3.3.1  The nature of the job

#### (i)  Workload

As noted, teaching is generally viewed as one of the top ten tough jobs (cf. 1.1). The teacher has to perform tasks which are not merely restricted to the classroom. The heavy and demanding workload is viewed by teachers as a stressor. They do not have enough time to achieve the standards of teaching and learning that they desire (Conley & Wooseley, 2000:194; Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001:31; Harris & Hartman, 2002:403). The situation worsened drastically with the introduction of OBE in 1997, when teachers had to administer excessive and burdensome recording and recordkeeping in voluminous portfolios (Mngoma, 2010:2; Potterton, 2010:11). Both motivation and job satisfaction of teachers reached all time lows as teachers viewed the "paper revolution" introduced by OBE as "administrativia" having very little utility value in the teaching-learning process (Balt, 2005:11; Ma & MacMillan, 1999:40). However, with recent pronouncements of the phasing out of OBE in favour of a new approach, known as Action Plan 2014: Towards the realisation of schooling 2025 (Rice, 2010:10), it is hoped that teacher workload is reduced to manageable levels. This may enhance enthusiasm in the fraternity and uplift levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

#### (ii)  Class size

The Education Roadmap (Development Bank of South Africa [DBSA], 2008:6) identifies a major improvement in teacher: learner ratios, from 43:1 (in 1996) to 32:1 (in 2006). However such figures predominate on paper only, as the geographic location of schools together with their socio-economic standing determine class size and teacher-learner ratios. The socio-economically advantaged schools in mainly urban and suburban areas have lower teacher-learner ratios as their economic resources allow for the employment of SGB paid teachers together with teacher aides in classrooms. By comparison, rural and comparably disadvantaged schools have always had to struggle with larger class sizes of 45 and more learners (Phurutse, 2005:14; Serrao, 2010:4). The challenges posed to teachers in such schools are often overwhelming and impact

negatively on their motivation and job satisfaction. These challenges link up with Herzberg's hygiene factors or dissatisfiers (see section 2.3.1.3).

*(iii)    Autonomy*

Autonomy refers to the degree to which teachers are allowed freedom, independence and discretion to perform their duties as they see fit and in accordance with their job descriptions (Atkinson, 2000:46; Ellis & Bernhardt, 1992:180). Owens (1995:50) concurs, and adds that autonomy is the individual's need to participate in making decisions that affect them, to exert influence on controlling the work situation, to have a voice in setting job-related goals, to have authority to make decisions, and latitude to work independently. Hoy and Miskel (1996:323) maintain that autonomy is the primary characteristic of work which creates a sense of responsibility.

Teachers are essentially implementers of the curriculum (Dehaloo, 2008:60), and due to the interactive nature of their work with learners, view autonomy as crucial to their work performance. According to Sergiovanni and Staratt (2001:77), teachers have a relatively high degree of autonomy when they experience freedom to schedule work, decide classroom arrangements, teaching methodology and procedures. This view is shared by Hausman and Goldring (2001:34) who aver that teachers should be free from bureaucratic controls, be allowed to be autonomous to innovate, diversify the curriculum, and engage in varied instructional strategies in order to meet the needs of their learners.

Autonomy is viewed as a prerequisite for teacher motivation and job satisfaction, in accordance with task enrichment, and the self-efficacy, control and action theories. Autonomy and influence to exercise their powers of discretion are believed to enhance teacher professionalism and thereby increase teacher commitment. Research findings of Fresko *et al.* (1997:431) reveal a strong correlation between commitment and job satisfaction. Teachers who have a sense of being able to affect learners are found to be more satisfied with their work and show greater reluctance to abandon it.

*(iv)     Role ambiguity and role conflict*

The National Education Policy Act of 1996 identifies seven roles and competencies that are expected from teachers. The roles are those of learning mediator; interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials; leader, administrator and manager; scholar, researcher and life-long learner; assessor; learning area and subject specialist and also a community citizen and pastor (Republic of South Africa, 2000). Accordingly, in their dealings with children, teachers often feel that they are counsellors, social workers, managers, examiners, secretaries, and creative teachers who are concerned with the performance of learners (Schulze & Steyn, 2007:694). As a consequence, both role ambiguity and role conflict are inevitable.

Role ambiguity occurs when teachers lack clarity about their responsibilities or work objectives (Conley & Wooseley, 2000:194; Cooper *et al.*, 2001:40). Conley and Wooseley (*ibid.*) and Kyriacou (2001:29) define role conflict as feelings of ambivalence emanating from what the job demands and what reality offers, for example, when the school provides information about the teachers' roles and responsibilities that conflict with the realities of daily professional life.

Spector (2003:220) distinguishes between intra-role and extra-role conflict which prevails at the workplace and influences employee's levels of job satisfaction. He maintains that intra-role conflict arises from multiple demands of the job, for example two supervisors may ask an employee to simultaneously do incompatible tasks – one wants the work done quicker, and the other slower and more carefully. The employee will be in a quandary as to which supervisor to appease. Extra-role conflict occurs outside the work domain and concerns the employees' involvement for example with their families (such as relationship problems, sickness or divorce) that impact on their job satisfaction.

The systems theory of job satisfaction emphasises that employees enjoy job satisfaction if the organisation is functional as a system. By teachers adopting roles other than those of classroom practitioners in addition to their existing heavy workloads, with little support from the schools' management and/or outside

agencies, teachers are bound to encounter stress (Schulze & Steyn, 2007:694) and this would impact negatively on their motivation and job satisfaction levels. It is the view of Ellis and Bernhardt (1992:180) and Wright and Custer (1998:66) that when teachers engage meaningfully with learners and when they believe that they are making a meaningful contribution in the learners' lives, their job satisfaction levels are correspondingly high.

*(v)    Rewards and recognition*

The drive and reinforcement theories of motivation emphasise the importance of rewards such as recognition and praise to motivate employees to perform well and sustain good practice (Perrachoine *et al.*, 2008:3; Schulze & Steyn, 2003:143). Praise and recognition are intangible rewards and teachers feel a sense of self-worth if their endeavours receive recognition and praise. They get intrinsically motivated to maintain their levels of performance (Eimers, 1997:130; Evans, 1998:29).

The importance of intrinsic motivation is pervasive in both the needs and cognitive theories of motivation. The 'motivators' in Herzberg's two factor theory (Schultz *et al.*, 2003) affirm the significance of intrinsic motivators such as praise and recognition as basic human needs, as does the valence instrumentality expectancy theory of Victor Vroom (Beck, 1983:382). The expectancy theory posits that people base their behaviour on their projected beliefs and expectations, and the valence (value) of their efforts is measured in terms of the rewards they receive. This theory is viewed as an excellent predictor of both motivation and job satisfaction of teachers (Steyn, 2002:96).

The rewarding of good practice is an important recommendation of the Ministerial Committee to the Minister of Education (Christie *et al.*, 2007). Teachers who produce good matric results receive awards from the DoE as well as commendations from the school and SGB. However, in the view of the researcher, these highly achieving schools are mainly from the advantaged socio-economic sector as opposed to the disadvantaged schools that predominate the education landscape. The awarding of both tangible (awards and certificates) and intangible

(recognition and praise) rewards to teachers on the basis of performances of their learners in the matric examination constitutes an anomaly. Unless and until the geographic configuration of schools reflect a greater homogeneity in terms of both human and material resource allocations so that reasonable comparisons can be made, rewards and recognition for excellence would remain accessible to a select few and elusive to the vast majority of teachers.

Since 2000 the DoE has been rewarding excellence for best practice in education through incentive schemes such as the National Teaching Awards (NTA), the awarding of cash bonuses in recognition of long service (20 and 30 year service awards) and the awarding of cash bonuses for improvement in educational qualifications (DoE, 2005). At present, the DoE's Laptop Initiative (The Teacher, 2010:2) is also being negotiated for teachers as an attempt to subsidise purchases of computer laptops for teachers. However, whilst the Laptop Initiative is commendable and could motivate teachers to excel in their classroom practices, teachers have been apprehensive about the cash awards for long service since payment of this award is made from the teachers' capped leave. This, by implication means that teachers are merely being given an advance of their own monies.

### 3.3.3.2   Interpersonal relationships

(i)      *Relationships with colleagues*

Hargreaves (in Hausman & Goldring, 2001:32) associates collegiality with "the new professionalism", which conceptualises teaching as part of a communal endeavour moving away from the isolationist individualism which characterised the earlier views of teacher professionalism. The new professionalism views the teacher as moving away from his/her traditional professional authority and autonomy towards new forms of relationships with colleagues, learners and parents. For the success of any organisation collegial support and teamwork are vital (Tukani in Schulze & Steyn, 2003:146).

Collegiality at school implies working together as a team for the achievement of common goals, objectives and purposes so that knowledge, skills, values and attitudes can be effectively transmitted to learners. Collegiality meets teachers' needs for affiliation, enables them to share expertise, and creates shared understandings that can impact on student learning (Hausman & Goldring, 2001:36). Co-worker relations are therefore an important antecedent of job satisfaction and the social context of work has a significant impact on workers' attitudes and behaviours (Evans, 2001:302).

Steyn (2002:83) maintains that even though much of the teacher's work is carried out in self-contained classrooms that isolate them from their colleagues, the nature of interpersonal relations with colleagues can contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Teachers have a strong desire for personal growth and achievement, and hence welcome collegial support. In their study of working conditions and job satisfaction among Albanian teachers, Kloep and Tarifa (1994:170) found that good relationships with their colleagues accounted for high levels of job satisfaction. Similar studies by Singh and Manser (2002:59), as well as Wright and Custer (1998:62) link up with the human relations and behavioural science, and social influence theories of job satisfaction. Their studies show that collegial opportunities will have a motivational effect on teachers. These opportunities would be team teaching, sharing teaching techniques, working on projects together, conducting workshops, experiencing stimulating and challenging work, and creating school improvement plans. Singh, Manser and Mestry (2007:542) maintain that collegiality creates the social climate which provides employees with a sense of meaning and identity, and that work groups which are characterised by cooperation and understanding to a large extent influence employee job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

*(ii)      Relationships with superiors*

Harmonious superior-subordinate relations are essential for the smooth functioning of an organisation. For post level 1 teachers to manage the art of teaching well, there needs to be a team-spirit based on mutual respect, openness and a shared vision for the achievement of common goals (Singh *et al., ibid.*).

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Postmodernism, according to Jaye (2002:31) and Singh *et al.* (*ibid.*), also has as its basic principles teamwork, flexibility, employee participation and empowerment as characteristics that are essential in the promotion of job satisfaction and motivation. These characteristics are in keeping with McGregor's Theory Y leaders (Kiumi, Bosire & Sang, 2009:30), who engage employees in participatory decision-making, and who affirm the belief that employees are disciplined and responsible, and need to be encouraged and motivated rather that instructed and policed – as stipulated in McGregor's Theory X. (Also see section 2.3.1.4.)

The role of the principal in creating a working climate based on cordiality and collegiality is of paramount importance. Minarik, Thornton and Perreault (2003:231) maintain that the principal, in his capacity as *diligens paterfamilias* (a prudent father figure) needs to be the chief catalyst in ensuring that cordial human relations prevail at school. The principal needs to lead by example, without fear, favour or prejudice, and in accordance with statutory regulations. Singh and Manser (*op. cit.*) state that in view of the cosmopolitan nature of the educational landscape in South Africa, principals need to show sensitivity as regards gender, race and ethnicity, religion and culture, beliefs and traditions. Singh *et al.*, (2007:542-543) add that key areas of the principal's job description, such as organising, delegating, supervising, decision-making and conflict resolution should involve teachers.

Supervision forms an important role function of the school principal, and whilst its importance and relevance cannot be downplayed, the manner in which supervision is conducted in schools would determine the satisfaction levels of teachers (Dehaloo, 2008:45). In addition to the principal, supervision and control of teachers' work is also the responsibility of the members of the SMT, and the latter is expected to engage and develop teachers meaningfully in areas of shortcomings. The human relations, management styles, and approaches towards work distribution, pastoral care, decision making and conflict resolution cumulatively determine the degree to which teacher motivation is either enhanced or compromised (Minarik, *et al.* 2003:233). Andrews *et al.* (2008:137) view supervisors as agents of the organisation who act as messengers to communicate decisions to their subordinates. The manner in which these decisions are

conveyed indicates the level of interactional justice. Sympathetic and considerate supervisors treat their subordinates with dignity and respect, which results in high interactional justice. This enhances the quality of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Interactional justice, according to Andrews *et al.* (*ibid.*), is the most recent form of justice pertinent to the workplace, and together with distributive and procedural justice (cf. 3.3.1), form important cornerstones of employee motivation and job satisfaction.

*(iii)    Relationships with learners*

Motivation and job satisfaction among teachers are affected positively or negatively by students' responsiveness, behaviour, attitudes to work, achievement and relationships with the teachers (Wright & Custer, 1998: 61). In 1998 Clarke and Keating (in Wright and Custer, *ibid.*) found that teachers saw their interaction with learners as the most satisfying aspect of teaching.

In contrast to the above, the present educational climate in South Africa is characterised by unruly learner behaviour that impacts negatively on the culture of learning and teaching (Samuel, 2007:5; Karp, 2007:5). This unruly behaviour is attributable *inter alia* to unmotivated learners, learner ill-discipline, language barriers and challenges posed by inclusive education. Unmotivated learners lack enthusiasm, are often absent from class, are evasive and appear unconcerned about perceptions about them of fellow learners and teachers (Davids & Makwabe, 2007:1; Schulze & Steyn, 2007: 695). Ill-disciplined learners are those who display disruptive behaviour, are aggressive and violent and display negative attitudes towards work (Kyriacou, 2001:29). Behavioural challenges presented by both unmotivated and ill-disciplined learners impact negatively on relationships with teachers and on their motivation and job satisfaction.

The vast majority of learners in South Africa receive instruction at school in a language that is not their mother tongue (Clark & Dorris, 2006:24). In most schools mother tongue instruction is compulsory up to grade 3, as recommended by the national language policy where after the language of learning and teaching is mainly English Second Language, (Taylor, 2007:4), with "code switching", i.e.

resorting to the learner's mother tongue language, where permissible, to elucidate difficult terminology (Teyise, 2009:8). This, however, does not serve a long-term purpose as examinations are conducted in terms of the schools' medium of instruction only. Diagnostic reports on learner performance in the grade 12 examinations in several subjects cite language barriers as one of the reasons for poor performance (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education [KZNDoE], 2009). Taylor and Prinsloo (2005:9) maintain that, after poverty, language, in particular proficiency in the school's medium of instruction, is the single largest factor affecting learner performance at school. English Second Language is the subject with the largest number of registrations (i.e. over 80%), and is the vehicle that is used for learning in all other subjects. According to Taylor and Prinsloo (*ibid.*), the level of teaching of English Second Language in the present curriculum is severely handicapping the majority of South African learners. Largely because of this, learners are ill-prepared for the kinds of conceptual tasks that are required by anything more than a superficial study of their other subjects. This may impact on teacher-learner relationship and on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

The inclusion of learners with special needs in mainstream schooling has also created challenges to teachers. Chaplain, and Wisniewski and Garginto (in Schulze & Steyn 2007:695) are of the view that learners with special needs place demands on teachers which, in many instances, teachers are neither trained nor equipped to handle. This invariably impacts negatively on teacher motivation and job satisfaction at school. (Also see section 3.3.2.2 (ii) – admission policy.)

*(iv)    Relationships with the community and parents/guardians*

Schools as community structures are often violated by gangsters, peddlers of drugs, and criminal elements. In the process the lives of learners, teachers and principals are often threatened (Christie, 1998:290; Vally, 1999:80). Unsafe environments militate against the proper functioning of schools, hence the promotion of a culture of teaching and learning is compromised.

Community participation in the day to day running of the school is of paramount importance (Botha, 2007:30; Sammons in Hofman, Hofman & Guldemond.

2002:252). The local community, in particular parents who are involved in school activities, develops a sense of efficacy that communicates itself to the children and this leads to positive academic results. Society holds that parents are the learners' primary teachers (Dehaloo, 2008), since a large measure of the child's cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills are developed even before the child enters formal schooling. The importance and relevance of teacher-parent partnerships in the education of learners have been well researched and documented.

Expanding on the above, Clark and Dorris (2006:22) aver that parents who are actively involved in school matters, especially parents of secondary school learners, have a profound influence on their children's grades. The onus on parental committed partnerships and involvement in school matters rests with the principal who needs to:

- take time to understand the community well;
- find people to serve as cultural and linguistic 'bridges';
- help parents to build advocacy skills; and
- give parents opportunities to use their skills.

In South Africa, parental involvement in schools varies in accordance with the geographical location, socio-economic standings and personal circumstances of parents and care-givers (Botha, 2007:31-32; Bush & Heystek, 2003:132; Vally, 1999:84). Sayed (1999:46) contends that parents from affluent areas tend to have a more hands-on approach, and hence greater involvement in school matters than their counterparts in rural areas. Teachers often feel that they do not receive the necessary support and appreciation from parents and the community (Perrachoine *et al.,* 2008:3; Schulze & Steyn, 2007:695). Reasons for this vary from sheer apathy of parents to deep underlying social, socio-economic and socio-cultural factors. Social problems that militate against parental involvement are primarily the consequences of divorce, separation and/or single parenting. Socio-economic factors include inter alia poverty, unemployment and the ravages of HIV/AIDS, which are exacerbated by parental incapacity largely due to illiteracy. The aftermath of HIV/AIDS in particular has contributed to learners becoming AIDS-orphans, and in some cases sibling parents.

Goldring and Hausman (1997:29) declare that education managers, in particular the principal, needs to be mindful of the following leadership styles when dealing with parents, *viz.* facilitative leadership, human resource leadership and instructional leadership. Facilitative leadership requires that the principal be *au fait* with and possess well-developed interpersonal skills, refrain from using formal authority to make unilateral decisions, but instead encourage group decisions, invite participation and where necessary and build capacity among the parent community. Human resource leadership involves the roles of mediator and motivator. As tension and conflict are inevitable in any decision-making process, the principal needs to mediate, motivate and encourage parents. As an instructional leader, the principal needs to lead by example, taking into consideration the fact that in the community itself there are persons who hold leadership positions and may serve as a valuable source of leadership and inspiration if given the opportunity (Dehaloo, 2008:58).

## 3.4    THE EFFECTS OF LOW JOB SATISFACTION AND LACK OF MOTIVATION OF TEACHERS

Low job satisfaction and lack of motivation negatively impact *inter alia* on productivity, job performance and organisational commitment, human relations, turnover; result in teachers becoming "plateaud", and impact negatively on teachers' health and job/life satisfaction (Spector, 2003:228). These are discussed below.

### 3.4.1  Productivity, job performance and organisational commitment

According to Spector, there is a two-way relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Firstly, satisfaction may lead to enhanced performance, i.e. people who like their jobs work harder and aim to perform better. Secondly, performance may lead to satisfaction, i.e. people who perform well are likely to benefit from that performance and those benefits could enhance satisfaction. The opposite is also true. The dichotomous socio-economic positioning of the vast majority of disadvantaged South African schools in relation to their advantaged

counterparts show stark contrasts between these two types of schools in relation to productivity, job performance and organisational commitment (Bloch, 2009a:3).

### 3.4.2  Human relations

Education is an interactive activity. The success of schools as institutions depends on congenial and collaborative interaction between and among several role-players. South African schools are desegregated, with cosmopolitan cultures and hence require a high degree of tolerance, forbearance, and understanding for them to be functionally operative. Inter- and intra-racial conflicts, gender bias, superior-subordinate stalemates and other forms of workplace dissention inhibit teacher motivation and job satisfaction, and create disharmony and stress for everyone (Christie, 1998:286; Wilson & Hall, 2002:178-179).

Robbins (2001:79-80) claims that workers manifest their dissatisfaction at work in several ways, *inter alia*:
- They may negatively influence co-workers, and thereby spread discontent.
- They may perform their duties in a disorganised manner.
- They may steal from or act negligent towards the organisation's property or assets.
- They may be wilfully insubordinate.

By contrast, Freund (2005) contends that employees who are highly satisfied can be expected to demonstrate exceptional job performances.

### 3.4.3  Turnover

An inverse relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover, i.e. low job satisfaction is associated with high turnover and *vice versa*. Research by McShane and Glinow (2003:37-38) shows that people who are dissatisfied with their jobs often quit and pursue other careers, thereby increasing turnover. The said authors state that turnover is a major concern to management since it has a tremendous impact on normal operations.

In South Africa, the high turnover in schools can primarily be attributed to organisational (cf. 3.3.2) and organisational practice factors (cf. 3.3.3) which are prime influences on job satisfaction and motivation of teachers. The research findings of Karsh, Booske and Sainfort (in Ayers, 2010:58) show that if an organisation could increase employee satisfaction and commitment, they would subsequently reduce employee turnover.

### 3.4.4 Plateau

"Plateau" in this context refers to a state of mental and physical stagnation. Teachers are said to reach this state when their expectations and aspirations regarding their teaching have reached saturation point as a result of factors such as systemic failures (e.g. OBE), thwarted attempts at promotion and unnecessary bureaucratic demands (Baron & Greenberg, 2003:156). Robbins (2001:20) and Baron and Greenberg (*ibid.*) point out that teachers who have reached a state of plateau display both behavioural and anti-social tendencies such as irritability, aggression, non-compliance, restrictive interpersonal cooperation and limited involvement in school activities. Such teachers don't hesitate to challenge authority by arriving late at work, leaving early and absenting themselves from work. According to Spector (2003:229), there is a positive correlation between job dissatisfaction and absenteeism, i.e. people who are unhappy at work are more likely to miss work than people who enjoy their jobs.

### 3.4.5 Health and well-being

Job satisfaction plays a significant role in the health and well-being of employees. According to Spector (2003:230), several studies show that job satisfaction relates to health variables. Dissatisfied employees report more physical symptoms such as sleep problems and upset stomachs as well as psycho-somatic disorders and emotional problems that include anxiety and depression. Ayers (2010:59) declares that demotivated and dissatisfied workers are generally stressed out. They may be on chronic medication, abuse alcohol or other substances, suffer burn-out and are often withdrawn from work.

### 3.4.6 Job and life satisfaction

Life satisfaction is considered to be an indicator of one's overall happiness or emotional well-being. There is an inextricable link between job and life satisfaction (Spector, 2003:230). Job satisfaction is an important indicator of life satisfaction. According to the spill over hypothesis (Weaver, in Spector, 2003:230), employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work can affect their satisfaction at home and *vice versa*. Several studies have shown that dissatisfaction at work is responsible for stress which permeates peoples' personal lives, and manifests itself as anxiety, tension, frustration, anger and depression (Baron & Greenberg, 2003: 158). As a consequence, life satisfaction is negatively affected.

### 3.5   SUMMARY

Chapter 3 presented a review of the factors that influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. These results may also be applicable to the Ilembe District, which is the focus of this study. The review broadly defined demographic, organisational and organisational practice factors that influence job satisfaction. The factors are not mutually exclusive but interplay to influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. The chapter concluded with the effects that low job satisfaction and lack of motivation have on teachers.

Chapter 4 presents the research design and methodology that was used for the study.

**CHAPTER 4**

**RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

## 4.1   INTRODUCTION

An in-depth literature study encompassing theoretical perspectives on motivation and job satisfaction as well as a review of empirical research results on the factors that affect the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers have been presented in Chapters 2 and 3. With this literature exposé as background, this chapter highlights the specific research questions and hypotheses of the research. It also explains the ethical measures that were considered in the research, and the research design that was selected to answer the research questions. This design includes a quantitative and a qualitative phase. Data collection methods and techniques of data analysis for both phases are explained. Validity and reliability as well as measures to ensure trustworthiness are explained.

## 4.2   SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The general research problem stated in chapter 1 (see section 1.2) as a research question, reads as follows:   *How can the motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal be improved?*

The review of the literature in chapters 2 and 3 revealed a myriad of factors that affect motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers. The demographic, organisational and organisational practice factors that were highlighted in chapter in the light of the theoretical frameworks presented in chapter 2, have been used to formulate specific research questions. These questions also correspond with the aims of the study listed in section 1.3. Each question is followed by its corresponding hypothesis, if relevant.

### 4.2.1   Research question 1

How satisfied are teachers of secondary schools in the Ilembe disctrict with the following aspects of their work:

- *organisational factors* (physical working conditions; policy and management; organisational structure of the school; and school culture and climate) and

- *organisational practice factors* (the nature of the job; interpersonal relationships namely with colleagues, superiors, learners and parents or the community)?

## 4.2.2 Research question 2

Is there a significant difference in the motivation/job satisfaction of secondary school teachers of different groups? The groups differ with regard to:

gender; age; race; years of teaching experience; post level; qualifications; personality; perceptions of the school or him/herself; organisational factors and organisational practice factors.

Null-hypotheses:

There is no significant difference in the motivation/job satisfaction of secondary school teachers of different groups.

Experimental hypotheses:

There is a significant difference in the motivation/job satisfaction of secondary school teachers of different groups.

## 4.2.3 Research question 3

What is the correlations between satisfaction with organisational factors and organisational practice factors on the one hand, and overall job satisfaction or motivation on the other hand? Are the before mentioned correlations significant?

Null-hypotheses:

There is no significant correlation between satisfaction with organisational factors and organisational practice factors on the one hand, and overall job satisfaction or motivation on the other hand.

Experimental hypotheses:

There is a significant correlation between satisfaction with organisational factors and organisational practice factors on the one hand, and overall job satisfaction or motivation on the other hand.

### 4.2.4 Research questions 4 to 7

- Which factors are *most* motivational and/or give teachers most job satisfaction?
- Which factors are *least* motivational and/or give teachers least job satisfaction?
- What is the effect of lack of job satisfaction or motivation on teachers?
- What can be done to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers?

### 4.3   ETHICAL MEASURES

### 4.3.1  Informed consent

According to Strydom (1998:25-26), informed consent relates to the communication of all possible information as accurately as possible about the research to the research participants, so that they can make an informed choice as to whether they want to be participants or not. The participants of this study were teachers, i.e. adults, who were able to give consent directly. The researcher provided all the details about the purpose, procedures, risks and the benefits of the research to the participants prior to starting with the research. They were not deceived or no information was withheld to try and ensure participation.

The researcher also obtained permission from the Research Directorate of the DoE (see annexure A for the request letter) to conduct research in schools. The researcher made contact with the principals of the designated schools and formally requested permission to involve teachers in the research (see annexure B for the request letter). Thus permission was obtained from all relevant role players.

### 4.3.2 Voluntary participation

Participation in this study was strictly voluntary with participants having the freedom to withdraw at any time. This was explained to them well in advance.

### 4.3.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

The participants in the study were given the assurance that all the information provided by them would be held in strict confidence. The participants were requested not to include their names, addresses or the names of their schools so that traceable details of the participants would not become known (Robinson in Strydom, 1998:28).

### 4.3.4 Permission to tape- record interviews

For the qualitative phase, research interviews were conducted. All the interviews were tape-recorded. Permission to tape record interviews was requested from the participants beforehand.

### 4.3.5 Competence of researcher

De Vos and Fouché (1998:31) maintain that researchers are ethically obliged to ensure that they are competent and adequately skilled to undertake the proposed investigation. In addition, they aver that the researcher's actions should reflect awareness of the ethical responsibilities involved prior to, during, as well as after the research has been concluded. The actions and competence of the researcher in this study are fundamental in carrying out the investigation. This is particularly so since the sample population comprises teachers from diverse cultural and linguistic groups, of varying age groups and experiences, and whose experiences in education during the pre- and past apartheid eras resulted in different outlooks and ideologies. Bearing these sensitivities in mind, the researcher realised that a tactful and courteous approach would be imperative.

The researcher holds a Master's degree in Education Management from the University of South Africa, is a departmental head at a secondary school, has supervisory experience of undergraduate students and is in turn being supervised by a highly experienced and competent university professor. This would attest to the reasonably appropriate level of competence of the researcher in conducting the research.

### 4.3.6  Acknowledging financial support

Funding for the study was made available by the Directorate of Student Funding at the University of South Africa. The researcher was awarded a full scholarship which covered the costs of the study.

## 4.4  THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The study made use of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. This is referred to as a mixed-methods design (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:394-415). Quantitative approaches adopt a positivist philosophy: they are objective, scientific, experimentalistic and traditionalistic. By contrast, qualitative approaches are phenomenological, i.e. they are subjective, humanistic and interpretative (Neville, 2005:5), and, by involving aspects such as attitudes, values and perceptions to research studies, "add qualitative flesh to quantitative bones" (Gephart in Brown 2004:97).

Shenton (2004) identifies the following advantages of mixed-methods designs: They
- improve the validity of research findings;
- provide more in-depth data;
- increase the capacity to cross-check one data set against another;
- provide details of individual experiences behind the statistics; and
- interrogate problems and seek solutions through further in-depth interviews.

The use of both approaches therefore addresses the disadvantages of using one approach only. According to Schulze (Brown, 2004:96), a mixed-methods design has the potential of producing holistic, comprehensive and insightful knowledge. Combining both approaches strengthens the study at hand and therefore strengthens the internal validity of the design which formed an important and integral part of this research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:395).

According to Cresswell (De Vos & Fouché, 1998:360), there are three models of combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, one of which is the two-phase model. This study embraces the two-phase model which commences with the quantitative phase followed by the qualitative phase. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:401) identify this model as a 'sequential explanatory design' and illustrate it as follows:

$$\text{QUANT} \rightarrow \textit{qual}$$

The qualitative data are used to explain the quantitative results and to elaborate on the quantitative findings. Each phase is explained below.

### 4.4.1 The quantitative phase

*4.4.1.1    The quantitative research design*

The researcher used a quantitative research approach in the first part of the data collection for this study. The research design for this phase was a survey. Data was collected from a sample of the population relevant to the study.

*4.4.1.2    Population and sampling*

The study population for this research was all the teachers from rural, suburban and urban secondary schools of the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. The Ilembe District is predominantly rural, with pockets of small urban areas. The researcher is a teacher at one of the rural schools, and chose schools of this district because of convenience and accessibility in conducting the research. In addition, rural

schools are known to experience significant difficulties related to the particular communities (often poor and illiterate) they serve. The six schools that were chosen for the study have cosmopolitan staff compositions. Thus this study used convenience and purposive sampling methods (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:399). This was not a representative sample of the population and generalisations were made with caution.

All the teachers at each school were requested to complete the questionnaire, which upon completion, were collected by the researcher.

### 4.4.1.3    *The data collection instrument (questionnaire) and variables*

The data collection instrument used by the researcher for the quantitative phase of the research was a questionnaire (see annexure C). The questionnaire was made up of four sections (A, B, C and D). Sections A, B and C comprised closed questions in which respondents were expected to circle the appropriate numbers to indicate their choices. Section D comprised four open-ended questions in which respondents provided their own answers in the spaces provided.

Section A determined the biographical and demographic backgrounds of the teachers and included: gender (question 1), age (question 2), race (question 3), years of experience (question 4), post currently held at school (question 5), highest teaching qualification (question 6), perception of own core personality (question 7) and perceptions of work or self-efficacy (questions 8, 9 and 10). This section thus comprised ten questions. (The questions were derived from Chapter 3, section 3.3.1.)

Section B focused on the organisational factors that influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. Teachers were requested to respond to 50 questions by circling the number to indicate their preferred answer on a three-point Likert scale as follows:

     1:  disagree

     2:  neutral/uncertain

     3:  agree

The questions were clustered together to address the following variables:

- physical working conditions (questions 11-21 ) see section 3.3.2.1;
- school policy and management (questions 22-50 ) see section 3.3.2.2;
- organisational structure of the school (questions 51-54 ) see section 3.3.2.3; and
- school culture and climate (questions 55-59 ) see section 3.3.2.4.

Section C dealt with the organisational practice factors that influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. Teachers were requested to respond to 26 questions by circling the number to indicate their preferred answer on the three-point Likert scale mentioned above.

Factors that affect teachers as classroom practitioners, i.e. such as workload (question 60), class size (questions 61-62), autonomy (questions 63-64), role ambiguity and role conflict (questions 65-66), and rewards and recognition (questions 67-72) form the essence of the organisational practice factors. These items were developed from section 3.3.3.1.

As an interactive activity, interpersonal relationships form an important component of teaching; hence the following relationships are looked at: relationships that teachers form with their colleagues (questions 73-74), their superiors (questions 75-78), the learners (questions 79-84), the parents (questions 85), guardians and the community at large. These items were developed from section 3.3.3.2.

In Section D teachers were asked to provide written answers to the following open-ended questions:

- As a teacher, what factors are *most* motivational and/or give you *most* job satisfaction?
- As a teacher, what factors are *least* motivational and/ or give you *least* job satisfaction?
- In your view, what is the effect of lack of job satisfaction or motivation on teachers?

- In your view what can be done to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers?

The overall motivation/job satisfaction of the teachers was the dependent variable. This is a continuous variable (data) as it theoretically has an infinite number of values in a continuum of values. The organisational factors and organisational practice factors were the independent variables. The demographic factors in section A were either categorical (nominal data) variables (e.g. gender or race) or ordinal data (such as age) and were also used as independent variables in this study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:54 -57). McMillan and Schumacher (2010:55) also refer to independent and dependent variables as 'predictor' (antecedent) and 'criterion' (predicted) variables respectively in non-experimental research, such as in this study.

### 4.4.1.4　Validity and reliability

*Face validity* refers to the extent to which the researcher believes the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Ary, Jacobs & Sorenson, 2010:228). Schultz and Schultz (1998:103) aver that face validity is not a statistical measure but a subjective impression of how well the test represents what it was supposed to represent. The items of the questionnaire were designed in such a manner that they measured the attributes that they were intended to measure, and not anything else. This was judged by the promoter of this study.

*Content validity* is concerned with the contents of the instrument and its complete representation. De Vos and Fouché (1998:84) contend that for the questionnaire to have content validity, a literature survey covering the full breadth of the theory on the research problem needs to be carried out. Thereafter, representativeness should be reflected by the data collection instrument (questionnaire). This was judged by the promoter of this study.

*Reliability* refers to the extent to which the data collection method yields consistent findings if replicated by other researchers (Neville, 2005:26). To ensure that the items in the questionnaire were reliable, the Cronbach Alphas were calculated on

the items of the questionnaire that used the Likert scale. Thus, reliability was determined for organisational factors, organisational practice factors and overall motivation/job satisfaction. These reliabilities were:

       physical working environment (questions 11-21 ) = 0,7320

       school policy and management (questions 22-50 ) = 0,8836

       organisational structure of the school (questions 51-54 ) = 0,8048

       school culture and climate (questions 55-59 ) = 0,7897

       general nature of the job (questions 60-72) = 0,7652

       Interpersonal relationships (questions 73-85) = 0,8723

       overall organisational factors (11-59) =  0,9283

The above is a measure of the internal consistency reliability for the items of a variable. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:184), a good rule of thumb is that reliabilities should be 0.7 and above to be acceptable. In all of the above cases the reliabilities were above 0,7 which is very good for this kind of questionnaire.

### 4.4.1.5 The pilot study

The basic purpose of the pilot study was to determine how the design of the study could be improved and to identify the flaws in the measuring instrument (Strydom, 1998:179). The questionnaire was pilot tested with five teachers from a sample similar to the study sample to establish facts such as

- Are the questions easy to follow?
- Are the questions relevant to what the research aims to accomplish?
- Is there a good flow of questions in the various sections of the questionnaire?
- How long does it take to answer the questionnaire?

No changes were required.

### 4.4.1.6    Analysis of quantitative data

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to answer the research questions and to test the null hypotheses (McMillan & Wergin, 2010:12). For research question 1, descriptive statistics were used (frequencies and percentages). For research question 2, inferential statistics were employed. The hypotheses were tested by means of ANOVAs (Analysis of Variance) (Brown, 2004:100). Research question 3 required descriptive statistics (correlation). Research questions 4 to 7 required qualitative data analysis techniques although enumeration was noted (e.g. frequencies). The Statistical Programme for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the before-mentioned analyses.

### 4.4.2  The qualitative phase

### 4.4.2.1    The qualitative research design

The second phase of the research was qualitative. This phase served as a follow-up to the quantitative phase. This phase of the research involved selected teachers from secondary schools to discuss the findings of the first phase, and determine how they thought the issues could be addressed, or how best the DoE could engage teachers as a response to the results. The qualitative approach was thus aimed at obtaining firsthand teacher sentiments on *current* factors impacting on their motivation and job satisfaction. Hence a phenomenological approach was followed.

### 4.4.2.2    Sampling

In this phase, information-rich cases were purposefully selected from all five schools involved in the study (Neville, 2005:31). Maximum variation sampling was used (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:327). Thus, the researcher ensured that the sample included teachers of both genders, of differing race and age groups, years of service, and post levels. This was done "to illuminate different aspects of the research problem" and thus deliver rich data that complemented the quantitative

data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:327). Permission to interview these teachers was sought prior to their participation (see annexure D).

*4.4.2.3    Data collection*

The researcher used semi-structured interviews for this phase. The questions for the interviews were based on the results of the quantitative phase of the study. The semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to ask probing questions to gain insight into the quantitative results. The questions asked were oriented around themes encompassing the organisational and organisational practice factors (cf. 3.3.2 and 3.3.3 respectively) and included the following seven questions:

- How do the physical working conditions at your school impact on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers?
- How do the policies at your school impact on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers?
- How does the management of your school influence teachers' motivation and job satisfaction?
- How would you describe your school culture and how does this influence job satisfaction and motivation at the school?
- What influence does the nature of your daily work have on job satisfaction and motivation?
- What role do interpersonal relationships play in the motivation and job satisfaction of the teachers at your school?
- Is there anything you would like to add?

Answers to the above questions were probed and follow-up questions were asked.

Each interview was conducted at a convenient time and place for the respondents. All interviews were tape-recorded with the participants' permission, and transcribed verbatim (see appendix E for an example of a transcribed interview).

*4.4.2.4    Measures to ensure trustworthiness*

'Reliability' and 'validity' as understood in quantitative research, is often referred to as 'trustworthiness' in qualitative research (Shenton, 2004:63). In qualitative research, the researcher is the main data collection instrument, unlike in quantitative research where an 'objective' data collection instrument, such as a questionnaire or a test, is used. In qualitative research the researcher observes and identifies what needs to be identified, hence the focus is on the quality of the methods used by the researcher (Conrad & Serlin, 2006:409). The following strategies ensured trustworthiness during the qualitative phase of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:330):

- *Prolonged data collection period*

The data were collected over a relatively long period of time. This gave the researcher the opportunity for continual data analysis, comparison and corroboration to refine ideas.

- *Participants' language*

User-friendly language was used by the researcher to ensure maximum understanding on the part of the respondents, whose home language is predominantly Isizulu. The data were, however, reported in English being the participants' language of learning and teaching at school.

- *Field research*

Interviews were conducted in the natural settings of the participants' work ( i.e. at schools) that reflect the reality of their work experiences more accurately than do contrived or laboratory settings.

- *Disciplined subjectivity*

Research is not "neutral". It reflects a range of the researcher's personal interests, values, abilities, assumptions, aims and ambitions (Neville, 2005:4). In this study, the researcher consciously monitored himself for subjectivity and biases.

- *Verbatim accounts*

Verbatim accounts were made of from transcripts and direct quotes were used to illustrate the sense, intentions, feelings and views of the participants.

- *Low-inference descriptors*

Concrete, precise descriptions from the interviews were included in the findings. "Low- inference" means that literal descriptions by the researcher were used as opposed to the abstract scientific language used by researchers in general.

- *Mechanically recorded data*

A tape recorder was used during the interviews.

*4.4.2.5    Data analysis*

The researcher used Guba and Lincoln's constant comparative method of analysis to analyse the data, which included the following steps (Poggenpoel, 1998:338-339):

(a)    *Categorising and comparing units*

The researcher prepared a transcript of the interviews. He then carefully read through each transcript to capture meaningful units which were coded and placed in categories and sub-categories.

(b)    *Integrating categories and their properties*

Once categories were identified, comparisons were made with the units to ensure that they were classified and integrated within the categories that best described their properties.

(c)    *Delimiting the construction*

Categories were repeatedly examined so as to identify categories that could be grouped together in order to limit the number of categories. Emerging themes were identified.

(d)    *External coder*

The external coder was the researcher's promoter. Raw data were sent to the external coder (the promoter) who checked the categories and themes.

## 4.5    SUMMARY

Chapter 4 outlined the mixed-methods research design that was used in the study. The research questions, hypotheses, ethical measures, data collection and methods of data analysis that were used by the researcher were explained. The results and findings of the empirical investigation are presented and discussed in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 5

# RESULTS

## 5.1  INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results of the empirical investigation are presented and discussed. The results follow the same order in which the research problems were stated. Thus, the biographical data are presented, followed by the results of testing for significant differences in motivation/job satisfaction between different groups and for significant correlations between variables. The results are summarised in 24 tables. As is custom for quantitative research, the tables are followed by a critical discussion of the questionnaire results in a following section. The findings of the qualitative study are then presented and argued. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

## 5.2  BIOGRAPHICAL DATA AND TEACHER SATISFACTION WITH ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS AND ORGANISATIONAL PRACTICE FACTORS

The biographical data of the respondents were determined. Thereafter the analysis focussed on research question one which determined teachers' perceptions on different issues.

### 5.2.1  Biographical data

Research question 1 was answered by means of frequencies and percentages. The biographical data of the participants are presented in Table 5.1

**Table 5.1 Biographical data of respondents**

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| **Gender:** | | |
| Male | 41 | 41 |
| Female | 59 | 59 |
| | | |
| **Age on 30 April 2011:** | | |
| 26 years and younger | 14 | 14 |
| 27-39 yrs | 39 | 39 |
| 40-54 yrs | 37 | 37 |
| 55 yrs and older | 9 | 9 |
| **Race:** | | |
| African | 40 | 40 |
| Indian | 60 | 60 |
| White | - | - |
| Other | - | - |
| **Teaching experience:** | | |
| less than 6 yrs | 20 | 20 |
| 6-15 yrs | 41 | 41 |
| 6-25yrs | 20 | 20 |
| 26 yrs and longer | 19 | 19 |
| **Current post:** | | |
| Teacher level 1 | 86 | 86 |
| Department head | 11 | 11 |
| Deputy principal | 2 | 2 |
| Principal | 1 | 1 |
| **Highest teaching qualification:** | | |
| Teaching certificate | 8 | 9 |
| Teaching diploma | 29 | 32 |
| B degree | 37 | 41 |
| Hons degree | 13 | 14 |
| M Ed degree | 3 | 3 |
| D Ed degree | - | - |

Table 5.1 shows that the majority of respondents were female (59%) and most of them were from the Indian race group. Age-wise, the majority of respondents were between the ages of 27 and 39 years (39%), and 40 to 54 years (37%). There were 14 respondents who were 55 years or older. In terms of teaching experience, the majority of respondents (41%) had between six to 15 years experience. Of the respondents (86%) were level 1 teachers. In terms of teaching qualifications, the majority of teachers (41%) held bachelor's degrees, while 32% had teaching diplomas. As regards the senior degrees, 14% of teachers held an Honour's degree with three respondents holding Master's degrees.

### 5.2.2  Perceptions of personalities, work and self-efficacies

When participants were tested on their perceptions of their own personalities, their work and their self-efficacies, they responded as indicated by Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2    Perceptions of personality, work and self-efficacy**

| Item | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| I generally experience positive emotions and socialise easily | 23 | 23 |
| I often experience negative and fluctuating emotions | 2 | 2 |
| I am very focused on my work and self-directed | 14 | 14 |
| I tend to go along with the ideas of others at work | 3 | 3 |
| I am open-minded and consider other viewpoints | 56 | 57 |
| **Managers at my school create opportunities for teachers to demonstrate their potential to be successful:** Seldom/never | 18 | 19 |
| Sometimes | 45 | 47 |
| Most of the time /always | 33 | 34 |
| **I can support learners to do well:** Seldom /never | - | - |
| Sometimes | 8 | 8 |
| Most of the time /always | 91 | 92 |
| **I am a successful teacher.** Seldom /never | - | - |
| Sometimes | 15 | 15 |
| Most of the time /always | 84 | 85 |

**Please note:** Some frequencies are missing.

According to Table 5.2, the majority of respondents (57%) believed that they were open-minded and considered the views of others. With respect to work and self-

efficacy, 66% of the respondents were of the view that school managers at their schools 'sometimes' or 'never' (47+19%) created opportunities for teachers to demonstrate their potential to be successful. Only a third of the respondents (34%) believed that managers did so most of the time. With respect to learner support, 92% of respondents thought they could support learners to do well and 85% of teachers were of the view that they were successful teachers most of the time.

### 5.2.3  Perceptions of organisational factors

Teachers' views of organisational factors (their physical environments, school policies and management, and organisational structures of the school) are explained in this section. Teacher perceptions of their physical working environments are presented in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3 Perceptions of physical working environment**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|---|---|---|---|
| I teach learners who come from financially secure families | 71 | 17 | 12 |
| My school is well-resourced | 59 | 26 | 14 |
| The DoE is generally quick to deliver resources to my school. | 65 | 27 | 6 |
| Overall, my school has a good infrastructure. | 35 | 25 | 40 |
| I have an acceptable number of learners in my class. | 51 | 14 | 34 |
| My learners are generally well disciplined. | 36 | 22 | 42 |
| Parents of learners at my school supervise learners' work at home. | 67 | 26 | 6 |
| Learners at my school often show resistance when work is demanded from them. | 35 | 26 | 39 |
| My learners perform well in standardised tests. | 47 | 25 | 28 |
| The ethos in my school is good. | 25 | 32 | 43 |
| Teachers in rural schools are more motivated than teachers in urban schools | 48 | 42 | 9 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some scores were missing.

Table 5.3 shows that the vast majority of rural learners (71%) came from families that were not financially secure; 59% of the respondents were of the view that their schools were not well resourced, while almost two-thirds of the respondents (65%), believed that the DoE did not deliver resources to their schools on time.

With respect to the teacher-learner ratios, 51% of respondents disagreed that the number of learners in their classes was acceptable, even though the majority of respondents (42%) indicated that the learners were generally well disciplined and the school had a good ethos (43%). With regards to parental involvement in supervising learners' work at home, 67% or the respondents were of the view that this did not happen. This would account for why 47% of teachers believed that their learners' achieved poorly in standardised tests. Nearly half the respondents (48%) disagreed that teachers in urban schools are more motivated than teachers in rural schools.

Teacher perceptions of school policy and management are illustrated by Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4 Perceptions of school policy and management**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers in rural schools enjoy greater job satisfaction than urban school teachers. | 56 | 32 | 11 |
| The SMT encourages teacher involvement in school activities. | 21 | 28 | 50 |
| Teachers at my school make inputs into the formulation of education policies. | 34 | 26 | 39 |
| In my view, salary increases keep up with inflation in the country. | 80 | 11 | 9 |
| I feel that all teachers are paid fairly. | 83 | 11 | 4 |
| At my school the salary structures of superiors in relation to subordinates are fair | 52 | 40 | 8 |
| It is acceptable for salaries of entry level teachers (new teachers) to be the same as serving teachers. | 67 | 15 | 17 |
| It is fair that capped leave owed to teachers are kept frozen until they retire or are medically boarded. | 56 | 23 | 21 |
| I agree that learners with special educational needs are placed in the same class as other learners. | 65 | 14 | 21 |
| Teachers at my school easily handle learners with special educational needs. | 51 | 30 | 19 |
| I agree with the fact that older learners are placed in the same classes as the normal age cohort learners. | 56 | 15 | 29 |
| I am happy that some learners come to my school because they are not able to pay the higher school fees of more advantaged schools. | 25 | 28 | 47 |
| Learner violence seldom occurs at my school. | 29 | 22 | 49 |
| Traumatisation because of intimidation is absent | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| at my school. | 35 | 27 | 38 |
| Drug abuse is not a problem at my school. | 61 | 20 | 19 |
| At my school, learners who are found guilty of drug and alcohol abuse receive the appropriate punishment. | 34 | 18 | 48 |
| Teachers are well prepared to deal with problems of substance abuse at my school. | 49 | 24 | 26 |
| Teachers are well prepared to deal with criminal activity at my school. | 60 | 18 | 22 |
| Teachers are satisfied with the abolition of corporal punishment at my school. | 59 | 31 | 10 |
| I am satisfied with the fact that teachers at my school conduct random searches for drugs on learners at school. | 35 | 30 | 35 |
| Teachers at my school are satisfied with the suspension and expulsion policies of the DoE. | 51 | 33 | 16 |
| The safety measures at my school contribute to the smooth running of the school. | 37 | 27 | 35 |
| The SGB appoints the most suitable candidates to promotion posts at my school. | 55 | 32 | 13 |
| The SMT ensures that my school is functioning efficiently. | 33 | 31 | 36 |
| In general, teachers at my school are happy with the assessment policies of the DoE. | 43 | 27 | 30 |
| In general, CAPS is viewed positively by teachers at my school. | 23 | 52 | 25 |
| IQMS as an evaluation tool for teachers is generally well received by teachers at my school. | 53 | 28 | 19 |
| IQMS is carried out in a transparent manner at my school. | 22 | 24 | 54 |
| IQMS has empowered me to improve my teaching practice in the classroom. | 40 | 33 | 26 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some frequencies are missing.

According to Table 5.4, 56% of the respondents disagreed with the view that rural school teachers enjoy greater job satisfaction than their urban counterparts. With respect to salaries, 83% of the respondents believed that teachers were paid unfairly; while 80% disagreed that teacher salaries kept up with inflation; 67% of teachers found it unacceptable that entry level teachers received the same salaries as experienced teachers. On the issue of capped leave, 56% of the respondents disagreed that the DoE should freeze (accumulated) capped leave and pay this money out to teachers when they retired or were medically boarded.

On the DoE's policy of inclusive education where learners with special needs are placed in the same classes with other learners, 65% disagreed with the policy,

with 51% of the respondents disagreed with the view that teachers were equipped to deal with such learners. The majority of respondents (56%) also indicated disagreement that older learners should be placed in the same classes as the normal age cohort learners.

With regard to drug and substance abuse, 61% of the respondents stated that it was a problem at their schools. As far as preparedness in dealing with these problems, 49% (the biggest group) of teachers indicated they were ill-prepared for this, while 60% believed they were ill-equipped to deal with school criminality in general.

Regarding the selection of candidates for promotion, 58% of respondents disagreed that the SGB selected the most suitable candidates.

As far as the IQMS was concerned, more than half the respondents, (53%) thought that the IQMS was not well received by teachers, even though the majority of respondents (54%) agreed that it was carried out in a transparent manner.

Teacher perceptions of the organisational structure of their schools are presented in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5 Perceptions of organisational structure of the school**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|---|---|---|---|
| My school functions well as an organisation. | 38 | 19 | 43 |
| My school enjoys a good working relationship with the DoE. | 35 | 27 | 38 |
| The SMT and staff of my school enjoy a good working relationship. | 30 | 29 | 41 |
| The SMT deals with conflict resolution in a professional manner at my school. | 33 | 29 | 38 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some frequencies are missing.

Table 5.5 indicates that teachers generally perceived the organisational structure of their schools in a favourable light: 43% of respondents thought that their schools

function well as organisations, with staff and SMT enjoying relatively good working relationships (41%).

### 5.2.4  Perceptions of organisational practice factors

Teachers' views on the nature of the job, as well as interpersonal relationships are explained in this section. Teachers' perceptions of their school culture and climate are depicted in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.6 Perceptions of school culture and climate**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|------|------------|----------------------|---------|
| A healthy school climate based on respect exists at my school. | 31 | 33 | 35 |
| My school's culture is safeguarded by the various role-players at school. | 28 | 38 | 34 |
| My principal encourages open communication. | 26 | 20 | 53 |
| The work ethic of teachers at my school is good. | 19 | 27 | 54 |
| The work ethic of learners at my school is good. | 49 | 30 | 21 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some frequencies are missing.

Table 5.6 illustrates that only 35% of respondents believed that a healthy school climate based on respect existed at their schools while one third was uncertain. A similar trend was observed for regarding the question whether the schools' culture was safeguarded by the various role-players at school. However, 54% of the respondents were of the view that the work ethic of teachers at school was good. With regards to learner work ethic, only 21% of the respondents agreed that the work ethic of learners was high-quality.

Teacher perceptions of the nature of their job are illustrated in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7 Perceptions of the nature of the job**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers at my school are happy with their workload. | 48 | 26 | 26 |
| The negotiated 1:32 teacher-learner ratio is adhered to at my school. | 75 | 15 | 9 |
| Learners from larger classes perform well at my school. | 73 | 21 | 5 |
| Teachers at my school are able to find creative ways to teach learners. | 21 | 34 | 45 |
| Departmental heads support teachers to excel in the classroom. | 32 | 39 | 29 |
| In my school teachers perform several roles in addition to classroom teaching (such as care givers, social workers or counsellors). | 11 | 17 | 72 |
| Teachers at my school are able to work well under pressure. | 23 | 21 | 55 |
| Recognition (e.g. praise) motivates teachers at my school to perform well. | 22 | 27 | 49 |
| Teachers at my school are satisfied with the DoE's initiatives at rewarding teachers for good learner results. | 47 | 26 | 27 |
| In my view the DoE's National Teaching Awards Programme is an effective instrument to recognise best practice in education. | 56 | 26 | 18 |
| In my opinion the long-term service awards (for 20 or 30 year service) should be paid out from teachers' capped leave. | 60 | 19 | 21 |
| Teachers on my staff are happy with the payment of once-off cash bonuses in recognition of improvement in educational qualifications. | 66 | 22 | 12 |
| The DoE's Laptop Initiative would empower teachers on my staff to improve their classroom practice. | 35 | 19 | 46 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some frequencies are missing.

Table 5.7 indicates the following: With respect to workload, nearly half of the teachers (48%) expressed unhappiness with their workloads; 75% indicated that the teacher-learner ratios were not adhered to, which accounts for why 73% of the respondents believed that learners from the larger classes did not perform well despite creative efforts of teachers to teach them (as espoused by 45% of respondents); 72% of the respondents indicated that they performed several roles in addition to classroom teaching (roles such as care givers, social workers or

counsellors) and many (55%) indicated that they were able to work under pressure. However, in terms of support from superiors, only 29% agreed that departmental heads supported them.

Regarding praise and recognition, 49% of the respondents agreed that recognition in the form of praise motivated teachers at school to perform well. However 47% of respondents expressed dissatisfaction with the initiatives of the DoE for rewarding teachers for good learner results. The DoE's National Teaching Awards Programme, according to 56% of respondents, was not an effective instrument to recognise best practice in education.

With respect to capped leave and once-off payment of cash bonuses, 60% of respondents disagreed that long-term service awards (for 20 or 30 year service) should be paid out from teachers' capped leave. Two thirds of the respondents (66%) expressed unhappiness at the once-off payment of cash bonuses to teachers in recognition of improvement of educational qualifications.

Teachers' perceptions of their interpersonal relationship at school are shown in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8 Perceptions of interpersonal relationships**

| Item | Disagree % | Neutral/ Uncertain % | Agree % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers at my school support one another in the realisation of educational outcomes. | 26 | 28 | 46 |
| Collegial support raises motivation and job satisfaction of teachers at my school. | 22 | 36 | 42 |
| Harmonious superior-subordinate relations ensure the smooth functioning of my school. | 22 | 35 | 42 |
| Managers at my school engage teachers in participatory decision-making. | 36 | 26 | 38 |
| My school principal sets a good example of a fair leader. | 40 | 27 | 32 |
| The SMT motivates teachers at my school to perform well. | 28 | 38 | 34 |
| Learners and teachers enjoy decent working relations at my school. | 28 | 31 | 41 |
| Uncooperative learners are held accountable for their actions at my school. | 37 | 25 | 37 |
| The schools' medium of instruction supports | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| learner performance at my school. | 32 | 31 | 37 |
| The RCL works closely with teachers at my school. | 42 | 25 | 33 |
| The local community provides support services to learners at my school. | 66 | 27 | 7 |
| Learner involvement in school life is enhanced by their financial environment. | 45 | 28 | 27 |
| The school management ensures that there are effective teacher-parent partnerships at my school. | 36 | 32 | 32 |

**Note:** The number of respondents (frequency) was 100. Some frequencies are missing.

Table 5.8 shows that 46% of the respondents believed that teachers supported one another in the realisation of educational outcomes; 42% that collegial support raised motivation and that harmonious relations ensured the smooth running of the schools. In terms of leadership, only 32% of respondents viewed their principals as fair leaders, and only 34% of respondents that the SMT motivated teachers to perform well.

Regarding relationship with learners and the community, 41% of respondents believed that learners and teachers enjoyed positive working relations, whilst 42% disagreed that the RCL worked closely with teachers to further the aims and aspirations of learners. With regards to community involvement, 66% of respondents expressed reservations about the local community providing support services to learners at their schools. Moreover, only 32% agreed that the SMT did enough to ensure effective teacher-parent partnerships at school.

## 5.3    TESTING FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS

Research question 2 and related hypotheses focused on whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of different groups of teachers of the physical environment (items 11-21); school policy (items 22-50); school structure (items 51-54); school culture (items 55-59); nature of the job (items 60-72); interpersonal relationships (items 73-85) and the organisation overall (items 11-59). The hypotheses were tested by means of t-tests and ANOVAs. If ANOVAs found significant differences for normal distribution of data, post hoc t-tests were performed to identify *where* the significant differences were. (Significant

differences were tested on the 5%-level.) *School structure* and *school culture* did not have a normal distribution of data and therefore the Wilcoxon test was used as this is a non-parametric test. The results are depicted in tables 5.9 to 5.23.

### 5.3.1  Significant differences between genders

The two genders differed significantly with regard to three factors: their perceptions of school policies, interpersonal relationships and of the organisation overall as shown in Table 5.9.

**Table 5.9 Views of the genders of school policies, interpersonal relationships and of the organisation overall and significance of differences**

| N | df | Factor | Mean | Std error | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male = 41 Female = 59 | 98 | School policy | Male = 1,88147 Female = 1,73773 | 0,07673 | 0,0320* |
| | 98 | Interpersonal relationships | Male = 2,09350 Female = 1,91906 | 0,10306 | 0,0469" |
| | 98 | Organisation overall | Male = 1,94905 Female = 1,81817 | 0,07687 | 0,0459* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

Table 5.9 illustrates that the male teachers were significantly (on the 5%-level) more satisfied with their schools' policies, their interpersonal relationships and their schools' organisation overall than females were. In all three instances the average scores of the males were higher than those of the females.

### 5.3.2  Significant differences between age groups

ANOVAs found no significant differences between the views of teachers from different age groups.

### 5.3.3 Significant differences between races

The sample consisted of Indian and African respondents. T-tests found significant differences between the two races with regard to their perceptions of school policies and the nature of the job as shown by Table 5.10.

**Table 5.10   Views of Indian and African teachers of school policies and nature of the job and significance of differences**

| N | Df | Factor | Mean | Std error | Probability |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Indian = 60 | 98 | School policy | African = 1,88108 Indian = 1,74039 | 0,07710 | 0,0355* |
| African = 40 | 98 | Nature of the job | African = 2,01218 Indian = 1,79402 | 0,07832 | 0,0064** |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level
**=significant difference on the 1%-level

According to Table 5.10, African teachers were significantly more satisfied with school policies (on the 5% level) and with the nature of the job (on the 1% level) than their Indian counterparts. In both cases, the mean scores for African teachers were higher.

### 5.3.4 Significant differences between teachers with different levels of experience

Teachers with different levels of experience differed significantly with regard to their perceptions of their physical environment. The results appear in Table 5.11.

**Table 5.11   Views of teachers with different levels of experience of their physical environment and significance of differences**

| Years of experience | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <6 | 20 | 1,64818 | 0,08734 | | | |
| 6-15 | 41 | 1,72943 | 0,06100 | | | |
| 16-25 | 20 | 1,65455 | 0,08734 | | | |
| 26+ | 19 | 2,0000 | 0,08961 | 3 | 3,4831 | 0,0188* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

According to Table 5.11, and when post-hoc t-tests were performed, it was clear that teachers with 26 and more years of experience differed significantly (on the 1% level) with all three the other groups of teachers. The experienced group was significantly more satisfied with their physical environment than the other two groups.

### 5.3.5 Significant differences between teachers with different post levels

ANOVAs found no significant differences between the views of teachers at different post levels.

### 5.3.6 Significant differences between teachers with different qualifications

Teachers with different qualifications differed significantly in their perceptions of their physical environments, the school structure and the organisation overall. Tables 5.12, 5.13 and 5.14 illustrate the results.

**Table 5.12    Views of teachers with different qualifications of the physical environment and significance of differences**

| Qualifications | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Certificate | 8 | 1,45455 | 0,14002 | | | |
| Diploma | 29 | 1,84326 | 1,84326 | | | |
| Bachelors | 37 | 1,85670 | 1,85670 | | | |
| Honours | 13 | 1,56014 | 1,56014 | | | |
| Masters | 3 | 1,84848 | 1,84848 | 4 | 2,9004 | 0,0266* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

**Table 5.13    Views of teachers with different qualifications of the school structure and significance of differences**

| Qualifications | N | Score sum | Expected score | Score mean | Chi square | Df | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Certificate | 8 | 1194,5 | 364,0 | 24,3125 | | | |
| Diploma | 29 | 1310,0 | 1319,5 | 45,1724 | | | |
| Bachelors | 37 | 1991,0 | 1683,5 | 53,8108 | | | |
| Honours | 13 | 428,5 | 591,5 | 32,9615 | 12,8079 | 4 | 0,0123* |
| Masters | 3 | 171,0 | 136,5 | 57,0000 | | | |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

**Table 5.14    Views of teachers with different qualifications of the organisation overall and significance of differences**

| Qualifications | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Certificate | 8 | 1,60097 | 0,13331 | | | |
| Diploma | 29 | 1,92032 | 0,07002 | | | |
| Bachelors | 37 | 1,96740 | 1,06199 | 4 | 2,4856 | 0,0495* |
| Honours | 13 | 1,69710 | 0,10458 | | | |
| Masters | 3 | 1,97333 | 0,21769 | | | |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

Tables 5.12 and post-hoc t-tests show that the significant differences existed between the following groups: teachers with bachelor's degrees or with masters degrees were significantly *more* satisfied with their physical environments than teachers with certificates (on the 5%-level); teachers with honours degrees were significantly *less* satisfied with their physical environment than teachers with bachelor's degrees or masters' degrees (on the 5%-level). Teachers with certificates only were least satisfied with their physical environments. Likewise, Table 5.14 indicates that the teachers with bachelor's and master's degrees are significantly more positive about the overall organisation of the school, than those with certificates only. According to Table 5.13, this same trend is observed for views of the school structure.

### 5.3.7   Significant differences between teachers with different self-evaluated personalities

ANOVAs found no significant differences between the views of teachers with different self-evaluated personality types.

### 5.3.8   Significant differences between teachers with different degrees of opportunity

Significant differences were found between teachers that indicated different degrees of opportunity to be successful. This was the factor that created the biggest difference between groups, indicating the importance of this factor. Tables 5.15 to 5.21 illustrate the results.

**Table 5.15   Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of the physical environment and significance of differences**

| Opportunity to demonstrate potential for success | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 1,56566 | 0,08894 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1,65455 | 0,5625 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 1,97734 | 0,6569 | 2 | 9,5763 | 0,0002** |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level
**=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.16   Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of school policy and significance of differences**

| Opportunity to demonstrate potential for success | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 1,53325 | 0,08280 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1,75712 | 0,05237 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 1,99576 | 0,06115 | 2 | 10,6453 | 0,0001* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level
**=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.17   Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of the nature of the school and significance of differences**

| Opportunity to demonstrate potential for success | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 1,63390 | 0,08340 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1,78974 | 0,05274 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 2,10703 | 0,06159 | 2 | 12,5700 | 0,0001* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level
**=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.18    Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of interpersonal relationships and significance of differences**

| Opportunity to demonstrate potential for success | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 1,58048 | 0,10390 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1,89573 | 0,06571 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 2,33081 | 0,07674 | 2 | 18,6548 | 0,0001* |

\*=significant difference on the 5%-level
\*\*=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.19    Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of the overall organisation and significance of differences**

| Opportunity to demonstrate potential for success | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 1,58192 | 0,07903 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1,79268 | 0,04935 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 2,12904 | 0,05763 | 2 | 18,1421 | 0,0001* |

\*=significant difference on the 5%-level
\*\*=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.20    Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of the school structure and significance of differences**

| Opportunity for success | N | Score sum | Expected score | Score mean | Chi square | Df | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 522,0 | 873,0 | 29,0000 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 191,0 | 2182,5 | 42,6444 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 2215,0 | 1600,5 | 67,1212 | 25,9700 | 2 | 0,0001** |

\*=significant difference on the 5%-level
\*\*=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.21 Views of teachers with different degrees of opportunity to be successful of the school culture and significance of differences**

| Opportunity for success | N | Score sum | Expected score | Score mean | Chi square | Df | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Seldom/never | 18 | 626,0 | 873,0 | 34,7778 | | | |
| Sometimes | 45 | 1889,0 | 2182,5 | 41,9778 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 33 | 2141,0 | 1600,5 | 64.8788 | 18,4274 | 2 | 0,0001** |

\*=significant difference on the 5%-level
\*\*=significant difference on the 1%-level

Tables 5.15 to 5.21 illustrate that in all instances the data in the tables and post-hoc t-test revealed that teachers with managers that generally or always created opportunities for them to demonstrate their potential to be successful were significantly more satisfied (on the 1%-level of significance) with several aspects of their work than the group that seldom or ever had the opportunity to demonstrate their potential for success. These aspects include the physical environment, school policies, the nature of the job, interpersonal relationships and the overall organisation. In all instances means show that the more opportunity to demonstrate potential, the more satisfied the teacher, and *vice versa.* As regards school structure and culture, the Wilcoxon non-parametric test revealed similar findings on the 1%-level of significance.

### 5.3.9 Significant differences between teachers with different self-efficacies for learner support

ANOVAs found no significant differences between the views of teachers with different self-efficacies for learner support.

### 5.3.10 Significant differences between teachers with different teaching self-efficacies

Significant differences were found between teachers that experienced themselves as successful teachers 'most of the time or always', as opposed to only

'sometimes'. Differences were found between their views of their physical environments and their school culture as shown in Tables 5.22 and 5.23.

**Table 5.22    Views of teachers with different teaching self-efficacies of their physical environment and significance of differences**

| Self-efficacy as successful teacher | N | Mean | Std error | df | F-ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sometimes | 15 | 1,44727 | 0,10027 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 84 | 1,80300 | 0,04237 | 1 | 10,6790 | 0,0015** |

**=significant difference on the 1%-level

**Table 5.23    Views of teachers with different teaching self-efficacies of the school culture and significance of differences**

| Self-efficacy as successful teacher | N | Score sum | Expected score | Score mean | Chi square | Df | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sometimes | 15 | 534,5 | 750,0 | 35,6333 | | | |
| Mostly/always | 84 | 4415,5 | 4200,0 | 52,5655 | 4,4662 | 1 | 0,0346* |

*=significant difference on the 5%-level

According to Table 5.22 and 5.23, significant differences (on the 1% level) existed between the views on their physical environment and school culture of teachers with different teaching self-efficacies. When t-tests were performed it was clear that teachers with high teaching self-efficacies were more satisfied with the physical environment than the other group. Similarly the non-parametric test revealed significant differences between teachers with different teaching efficacies regarding their views of their school culture. Teachers that mostly or always viewed themselves as successful teachers, were significantly more satisfied with their schools' culture than the other teachers (on the 5% level of significance).

## 5.4    TESTING FOR SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN VARIABLES

Research question 3 and related hypotheses investigated if there were significant correlations between the different variables that influence job satisfaction of teachers. The hypotheses were tested by means of correlation. The results are illustrated in Table 5.24

**Table 5.24  Multivariate correlations of the variables that influence job satisfaction and motivation of teachers**

| Variable | Physical | Policy | School structure | School culture | Nature of job | Interpersonal relationships | Organisational factors |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Physical | - | 0,56** | 0,59** | 0,62** | 0,52** | 0,66** | 0,74** |
| Policy | 0,56** | - | 0,71** | 0,68** | 0,70** | 0,75** | 0,91** |
| School structure | 0,59** | 0,71** | - | 0,76** | 0,63** | 0,81** | 0,84** |
| School culture | 0,62** | 0,68** | 0,76** | - | 0,62** | 0,78** | 0,83** |
| Nature of job | 0,52** | 0,70** | 0,63** | 0,62** | - | 0,76** | 0,83** |
| Interpersonal Relationships | 0,66** | 0,75** | 0.81** | 0,78** | 0,76** | - | 0,92** |
| Organisational factors | 0,74** | 0,91** | 0,84** | 0,83** | 0,83** | 0,92** | - |

**=significant on the 1%-level.

Causation cannot be inferred from correlation (McMillan & Schumacher 2010:231). However, correlations can roughly be interpreted as follows: 0,8 and higher = very high; 0,6 to 0,79 = high; 0,4 to 0,59 = moderate and below that a low correlation (McMillan & Schumacher 2010:234-235). Although all correlations were significant on the 1%-level, the following correlations were useful for group predictions because they were higher than 0,75:

- school culture with school structure;
- interpersonal relationships on the one hand, and school structure, school culture and the nature of the job on the other hand;
- overall organisational satisfaction (on the one hand), with school policy, school structure, school culture, nature of the job and interpersonal relationships.

## 5.5 DISCUSSION ON QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

### 5.5.1 Teachers' biographical data, personalities and views on work and self-efficacy

Females are predominant in the teaching profession (Department of Basic Education [DBE], 2009:20). This was also evidenced in this study (see Table 5.1). Regarding gender, Table 5.9 showed that male teachers were more satisfied than female teachers with school policies, interpersonal relations and the schools' overall organisation. Possible reasons for this could be the volatile nature of school environments characterised, *inter alia,* by learner violence and aggression, and the lack of safety and security measures at schools (cf. 5.6.2.1 and 5.6.2.2) that may be more frightening for females than for males.

The fact that the majority of teachers were between the age group 27 to 54 years old attests to the fact that the profession is failing to attract young individuals to take up teaching as a career. This could be linked to negative publicity due to transformational changes in the country (cf. 3.2), systemic changes in education (for example OBE) (cf. 3.3.2.2), poor service delivery, poor salaries (cf. 3.3.2.2i), and learner violence linked with lack of security in schools (cf. 3.3.2.2iii). Poor salaries could dissuade young adults from joining the teaching profession, as poor salaries inadvertently translate to non-fulfilment of basic human needs in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of needs (cf. 2.3.1.1). This is congruent with the hygiene or maintenance factor espoused by the Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (cf. 2.3.1.3).

The study involved Indian and African teachers as the teaching staff of the chosen schools comprised these two race groups only. This is in keeping with the geographical demographics that characterises settlement patterns in South Africa where racial integration in rural schools have not kept pace with those in urban or township schools (Dehaloo, 2008:2).

Of the respondents, 90% were qualified teachers, with qualifications ranging from teaching certificates to M. Ed. degrees. The remaining 10% of teachers could have

been unqualified and/or temporary teachers who were filling in for teachers on leave, or those who were studying towards a teaching qualification. Tables 5.12 to 5.14 indicate that teachers with bachelor's degrees or master's degrees were more satisfied than teachers with teaching certificates. A possible reason for this could be that the latter were no longer regarded as being the minimum educational qualification for teaching. However, teachers with honours degrees were less satisfied with their physical working environment than those in possession of bachelor's degrees and diplomas. This is consistent with the view that there is an inverse relationship between the level of qualification and the physical environment in which teaching takes place (Gazioglu & Tansel in Bull, 2005:49).

According to Table 5.2, the majority of respondents (57%) perceived themselves to be open-minded to the views of others; 85% believed they were successful teachers generally, whilst 92% of teachers thought they could support learners to do well. This is in keeping with the self-efficacy theory (cf. 2.3.2.3) which postulates that individuals with a high degree of self-efficacy are more motivated and this is evidenced in their work performances. However, two-thirds of the teachers indicated that their managers did not give them opportunities to illustrate their potential to be successful. Moreover, McClelland's learned needs theory (cf. 2.3.1.5) states that achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and have a strong desire for performance feedback. Teachers who are open-minded, supportive and who believe they are successful subscribe to positive affectivity, which, according to the Dispositional Theory of job satisfaction (cf. 2.4.2.3) relate to enthusiasm and pleasurable engagements. Such individuals are happier in their work and in their lives in terms of Herzberg's Two Factor theory (cf. 2.3.1.3) as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

## 5.5.2  Organisational factors

### 5.5.2.1  Physical working environment

The socio-economic standings of schools influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers (cf. 3.3.2.1). Under-resourced schools cannot be deemed to be functional schools (Mohlala, 2010:2).This in turn is bound to impact on

teacher motivation and job satisfaction. According to Table 5.3, 65% of respondents aver that the DoE does not deliver resources to schools timeously, and given the higher learner-teacher ratios (as attested to by 51% of the respondents), teacher motivation to work under such conditions would be low. Hence, they would not be able to strive towards the full realisation of their potential, as shown by Maslow's need for self-actualisation (cf. 2.3.1.1). Similarly, and in accordance with Herzberg's two-factor theory, poor working conditions (hygiene factors) contribute to low job satisfaction (cf.2.3.1.3).

With regard to parental involvement, more than two thirds of the teachers believed that learners' parents were uninvolved and this negatively impacted on their motivation and job satisfaction. Several mitigating factors accounted for this scenario which, *inter alia*, included poverty, unemployment, illiteracy and problems at home (cf. 3.3.3.2). Parental apathy impacted negatively on the functionality of schools, as elucidated by the systems theory of job satisfaction (cf. 2.4.2.4), since teaching and learning should be a cooperative pursuit involving teachers, parents and other role players.

### 5.5.2.2    *School policy and management*

Visible dichotomies prevail between urban and rural schools (cf. 5.5.3; Dehaloo, 2008), and motivation and job satisfaction between teachers from these divergent areas differ. Teacher salaries, working conditions and fringe benefits remain contentious issues, regardless of recent instrumental changes, and notwithstanding the fact that the largest proportion of the annual national budget is allocated to education (Education South Africa, 2011:1). Of the teachers, 80 and more indicated that teachers were not being paid fairly and that salaries did not keep pace with inflation. Salary increases were always accompanied by raises in taxes which lowered the income of teachers. This invariably impacted on needs-fulfilment espoused in, for example, Maslow's needs hierarchy (cf. 2.3.1.1), and Herzberg's Two Factor theory (cf. 2.3.1.3). To accelerate teacher recruitment, the DoE has embarked on lucrative salary packages for new incumbents, without proportionally addressing salary adjustments of serving teachers, which 67% of the teachers found unacceptable (see Table 5.4). This, together with the DoE's

freezing of capped leave (of mostly senior teachers), and willingness to only pay this out upon retirement or medical boarding, impacted on teacher motivation and job satisfaction (discussed again in section 5.6).

Table 5.4 also shows the impact that the learners have on teacher motivation and job satisfaction: most of the teachers were unhappy that learners with special educational needs were placed in the same classes as the others, and indicated that they did not know how to handle them. The White Paper 6 on inclusive education (cf. 3.3.2) made this change in the admission policy of schools permissible. The main challenge posed by inclusive education is that prior to implementation, insufficient attention was paid to contextual factors such as school infrastructure, cost implications and teacher preparedness to deal with this issue. The admission of such learners is bound to impact on teachers' self-efficacy (cf. 2.3.2.3). The inclusion of older learners in classes together with the younger ones is also viewed in a negative light by the majority of respondents (56%).

The above-mentioned legislative changes to learner admission policies impacts negatively on the motivation of teachers, in confirmation of the Job Characteristics Model (cf. 2.3.1.6). New demands on teacher skill variety and task identity impacted on the psychological states of the teachers and led to feelings of frustration, despondency and ineffectiveness. These feelings, in accordance with the Dispositional Theory of job satisfaction, impacted on the self-efficacy and the locus of control of teachers (cf. 2.4.2.4) and inhibited motivation.

Substance abuse and related criminal activities pose challenges to schools (cf. 3.3.2.2). In the five schools surveyed, 61% of teachers indicated that substance abuse occurred at their schools; and 60% believed that they were not prepared to deal with criminal activities at their schools. Moreover, 51% of the teachers were dissatisfied with the suspension and expulsion policies of the DoE. Learners involved with drugs posed a threat to teachers and other learners. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, inadequate safety and security measures could impede the acquisition of higher order needs. Complementary views on the effect of feeling unsafe are expressed by the Existence-Relatedness-Growth Theory (cf. 2.3.1.2).

Most of the teachers expressed reservations about the role of the SGB in recommending candidates for promotion at their schools. The choice of unsatisfactory candidates to key leadership or management posts at schools demotivates deserving candidates (Theory X leaders – cf. 2.3.1.4) (Dehaloo, 2008). As social beings, teachers constantly compare themselves with others, and are quick to identify areas of unfairness which leads to demotivation, in accordance with the Equity Theory of motivation (cf. 2.3.2.1), the Social Influence (cf. 2.4.2.5), Social Processing (cf. 2.4.2.6), and Comparative Process (cf. 2.4.2.7) theories.

In terms of teacher assessments (as illustrated by Table 5.4), many respondents (43%) expressed dissatisfaction with the assessment policies of the DoE: 53% of respondents aver that IQMS is not well received by teachers, while 40% of respondents feel that IQMS has not empowered them to improve their teaching practice in the classroom. According to Vroom's Expectancy Theory of motivation (cf. 2.3.2.2), teachers attach value to certain expectations. IQMS, in the view of teachers, has no utility value for them, so they have no expectations of the IQMS improving their teaching practice.

### 5.5.2.3    *Organisational structure of the school, school culture and climate*

Respondents expressed different views on the functionality of their schools. About 60% of respondents either disagreed or remained neutral as to whether their schools functioned with cordial interpersonal relationships between staff, the SMT and the DoE (see Table 5.5). This could be the result of an array of factors already elucidated in 5.5.2, 5.5.3, and 5.5.4.

According to Table 5.6, only 35% of respondents believed that a healthy school climate based on respect prevailed at their schools while one third was uncertain; 54% of the respondents were of the view that the work ethic of teachers at school was good and 21% of the respondents agreed that the work ethic of learners was high-quality. This corroborates the standpoint that South African schools are largely dysfunctional (cf. 3.3.2.2). Under such conditions, and as envisioned in

both the needs-based (cf. 2.3.1.1/ 2.3.1.3) and cognitive theories (cf. 2.3.2.2), teacher motivation would be severely constrained.

### 5.5.3 Organisational practice factors

#### 5.5.3.1 The nature of the job

Only 26% of teachers were satisfied with their workloads (see Table 5.7). These teachers could be those teaching scarce-skills subjects such as Physical Science, or senior classes which generally have fewer learners. Teacher workloads increased significantly with the introduction of OBE (Sunday Independent, 2010:1), and even though the Curriculum Review Committee highlighted this (cf. 3.3.2.2), no tangible changes have yet been affected by the DoE. In tandem with curricular demands, 72% of teachers contended that they also performed pastoral duties to learners, such as being care-givers, social workers and counsellors. It is also noteworthy that only 29% indicated that their departmental heads supported them.

In order to sustain best practice, the DoE ought to recognise and reward teachers' efforts. However, 47% of respondents disagreed that the DoE rewarded them, regardless of the NTA programme, which the majority of teachers believed was ineffective to recognise best practice in education. The "Law of Effect" according to the Drive and Reinforcement theory of motivation (cf. 2.3.3) posits that human behaviour is a result of positive and negative consequences: positive outcomes such as praise and recognition sustain good behaviour, while negative outcomes have the opposite effect. This view is confirmed by the Scientific Management theory (cf. 2.4.2.1). The majority of respondents were unhappy with the "apparent" monetary incentives of the DoE. For the payment of long-term service awards, 60% of the respondents disagreed that this should be paid out to teachers from their own capped leave as this may be viewed as an advance of their own monies. Two-thirds of the respondents (66%) were also unhappy with the once-off cash bonus they received upon completion of their studies.

## 5.5.3.2   *Interpersonal relationships*

Interpersonal relationships are of the utmost importance in education. Learners are the reason for the existence of schools (Protheroe, 2006:48). Education is a cooperative activity primarily concerned with the imparting of knowledge, skills and values to learners by teachers who serve as *in loco parentis* (Hayward, 2009b:10). Hence, meaningful interpersonal relationships between colleagues, parents and teachers and teachers and learners are essential for learner success. In accordance with this, 46% of the respondents believed that teachers supported one another in the realisation of educational outcomes; and 42% that collegial support raised motivation (see Table 5.8). 41% of respondents believed that learners and teachers enjoyed positive working relations; 32% believed that the SMT tried to facilitate parent involvement while two-thirds of respondents expressed reservations about support from the local community. This finding is consistent with those of other researchers that the socio-economic and personal circumstances of parents and other care-givers determine their levels of involvement at schools (Botha, 2007:32; Perrachoine *et al.*, 2008:3; Sayed, 1999:46). With respect to the learners themselves, 42% of the respondents believed that RCLs (whose defining role is that of advancing and promoting learner interests and aspirations at school) did not cooperate with teachers.

By virtue of their office and their capacity as *diligens paterfamilias* (Dehaloo, 2008), school principals are the prime catalysts in ensuring operational success at school. However, only 32% of the teachers viewed their principals as fair leaders, and 34% that the SMT motivated teachers to perform well. In terms of job satisfaction theories, the scientific management theory (cf. 2.4.2.1) views leaders as figures of authority that are expected to effectively manage subordinates, create climates conducive to teaching and learning, and ensure accountability. The Goal Setting Theory of Locke (cf. 2.3.2.4) expands on these views by asserting that performance is dependent on goals set by organisations and monitored by leaders. Accordingly, the Human Relations and Behavioural Science Theory (cf. 2.4.2.2) affirms that leaders are to ensure cordial relations among staff, emphasising that happy workers are motivated and effective.

### 5.5.4 Teachers' remarks on the open-ended questions

The questionnaire ended with four open-ended questions that determined what factors most and least influenced teachers' motivation and job satisfaction, what the effect was of a lack thereof and what could be done to raise their motivation and job satisfaction levels. The African (A) and Indian (I) males (M) and females (F) responded in the following defining categories: Category 1 (teachers younger than 26, with less than 6 years teaching experience); Category 2 (27 to 39, six to 15 years of experience); Category 3 (40 to 54, 16 to 25 years of experience) and Category 4 (55+ years, more than 26 years of teaching experience).

*5.5.4.1    Factors that teachers found most motivational*

Factors that teachers found to be most motivational and gave them most satisfaction were pervasive across age, gender and race. These factors were contextualised within the school environment and involved the interaction the teachers enjoyed with the learners. Teachers across the spectrum found teamwork, good superior-subordinate relations, joint decision making, and good interpersonal relations to be important motivating factors. With regards to learners, teachers were motivated by enthusiastic, cooperative learners with a good work ethic and academic performances.

Teachers in the respective categories cited specific factors which they found to be motivational. Neonates to the teaching profession thought that being recognised and appreciated for their efforts gave them great job satisfaction. These teachers stated that they were making a difference in learners' lives by empowering them and this motivated them. Some judged that learners viewed them as role models. For example:

> *Empowering learners to reach out and take that opportunity to be the best individuals they can be academically, in sport and in society* [is motivational]. (IF)
> *The joy of teaching learners new educational topics that empower them as individuals [is satisfying].* (IF)

Teachers in Category 2, found good working conditions, support from the SMT and delegation of duties to empower them as teachers as highly motivational. One teacher wrote:

*I am motivated when a parent shows interest in his/her child's school work and encourages the child to perform at his/her best.* (AF)

Teachers in Category 3 found disciplined learners with work ethic, good learner achievement and seeing their learners achieve in life most motivational. Many teachers in this age group cited good matric passes as giving them satisfaction, as well as praise, recognition and appreciation for their efforts. They attributed their successes to good collegial relations with the SMT, cooperation of learners and parental support. For example:

*…close cooperation between staff members and management [is motivational]. The satisfaction I receive when learners respond to what I impart to them. When ex-pupils I meet thank me for the difference I made in their lives.* (AM)

*Improved Grade 12 results… learners that do well and make a success of their lives despite hardships gives me satisfaction.* (IM)

The views expressed by the most senior group of teachers (age 55+) were largely congruent with the last mentioned age group. In addition, this group identified job permanency, frequent holidays, and a "passion for my job" (in particular working with young people) as motivators. This confirms that teachers with 26 years or more teaching experience were the most motivated group of teachers (see Table 5.11).

### 5.5.4.2   *Factors that teachers found least motivational*

Factors that were least motivational to teachers were also pervasive through the various age groups. Of the teachers, 68% (62 of a total of 91 teachers who completed Section D) cited ill-disciplined, disrespectful learners and under-

performing learners as some of the least motivational factors at school. These teachers indicated that whilst the culture of teaching is prevalent, learners were simply not learning as they ought to. Other demotivational factors cited included poor infrastructure, for example lack of resources and large classes (59 or 64.8% of the teachers). Moreover, 56 teachers (62%) found salaries of teachers to be poor and hence demotivating; 55 teachers (60%) were disillusioned with OBE and believed that the number of assessments they had to complete for learners was too high. They experienced this voluminous paperwork and administrative tasks as "very burdensome". Particular responses of teachers from the various categories were as follows:

In Category 1, teachers were not as demotivated or dissatisfied as teachers in the other age categories. Their main areas of disillusionment were related to the above-mentioned factors. A possible reason for this is that these teachers have not (yet) been exposed to the issues that their older counterparts may have been exposed to.

Interpersonal relationship challenges formed the core area of concern of teachers in Category 2. They cited lack of support from and unrealistic expectations of the SMT, poor school management, nepotism and preferential treatment of senior teachers as reasons for dissatisfaction.

In addition to the above, a substantial number of teachers from Category 3 were highly critical of the appointment process of education managers. One said:

> *The application of Affirmative Action policies resulting in the promotion of inefficient and ineffective candidates, coupled with the lack of commitment, guidance and monitoring by the principal is very demotivating.* (IM)

Several teachers in Categories 2 and 3 cited either parental apathy or parental interference (as opposed to meaningful involvement) in educational matters at their schools and this they found least motivational. For example:

*Professional parents, lawyers, politicians who think they know a lot and want to dictate to teachers, is very demotivational.* (IM)

[It is also demotivational] w*hen parents complain about teaching and teachers… since some of them know very little about what goes on in school. Also parents' attitudes when they are informed about their kids' poor discipline.* (AM)

Several teachers were unhappy with the OBE system. Two examples are:

*The DOE makes impractical demands on teachers. There is an overload in respect of record-keeping, the number of assessments required of learners, etc.* (IM)

*The number of assessments that teachers have to mark per term ... matric teachers always have marking during the holidays…and the tedious record-keeping!!* (IF)

### 5.5.4.3    Effects of lack of motivation and low job satisfaction on teachers

With respect to the effects of a lack of motivation and job satisfaction have on teachers, the responses of teachers were not age-specific as they were common to most teachers across the spectrum. These included *inter alia*: early retirements or resignations; frequent absenteeism largely due to stress, depression, and/or ill-health; poor output in the classroom resulting in poor performance levels of learners; learners who are unwilling to take on extra responsibilities, but settle to do the bare minimum; and frustrations resulting in conflicts with the SMT.

Comments of some teachers include:

*[Demotivation] suppresses the teachers' ability to perform in class. Teachers feel demoralised. They don't involve themselves in school activities. They merely go through the motions in class. They have no urgency, no punctuality, but become ineffective in class, and learners lose out on the expertise of teachers.* (IM)

*Teachers get sick very often. They are reluctant to take on other roles in the school. They often don't cooperate with other teachers/ colleagues. They portray a negative attitude to teaching and are not willing to assist learners during school holidays.* (IF)

*Some of them tend to stay away from school for no valid reason. They experience stress, depression and frustrations. Hence their teaching performance becomes affected. Sometimes they become withdrawn, and this has repercussions on their learners and [their own] families.* (IM)

*[Personally] I suffer from high blood cholesterol and high blood pressure. I am [currently] on medication and have taken extended leave twice in my career.* (IM)

### 5.5.4.4   Recommendations to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers

Finally, in response to what can be done to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers, over 80% (73 of the 91 respondents) cited an improvement in salaries, fringe benefits and payments for extra hours of work done. In addition, teachers indicated that the following improvements in working conditions were needed:

- A climate conducive to teaching and learning by improving school infrastructure, equipment and the school milieu in general in terms of cleanliness, repair and renewal of dilapidated or vandalised areas;
- Provision of adequate and appropriate resources;
- Praise, recognition and reward for excelling teachers;
- Adhering strictly to agreed teacher-learner ratios;
- Addressing teacher shortages through vigorous recruitment programmes, re-opening of Colleges of Education, and retraining and upgrading practicing teachers through in-service refresher courses;
- Reducing administrative work of teachers and employing administrative assistants;

- Replacing OBE and revisiting teacher workloads, de-emphasising voluminous paperwork and record-keeping;
- Revisiting the system of promotions so that the most suitable candidates are chosen, monitoring the performances of newly appointed candidates, and providing mentorship to sustain good practice;
- Improving the system of learner discipline, and
- Encouraging the involvement of all role-players in schools.

## 5.6    QUALITATIVE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### 5.6.1    Realisation of the sample

The researcher decided on maximum variation sampling "to illuminate different aspects of the research problem" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:327). Thus, the researcher included both genders, divergent race groups, as well as teachers from differing age groups and years of experience. To this end, the researcher enlisted the assistance of the school principals to suggest teachers for the interviews although participation was voluntary. The researcher also took into account the approximate ages of school buildings together with their geographical locations to ensure an information-rich sample that would adequately inform the study. Three teachers from each of four schools, and four teachers from the fifth school were thus purposefully selected for interviews. Thus 16 interviews were conducted with teachers who were also involved in the first phase of the study.

All 16 teachers were interviewed individually, with each interview lasting between 45 minutes and an hour. With permission of the participants, interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim (see Annexure E for an example). The interviews focused on the organisational and organisational practice factors that impacted on teacher motivation and job satisfaction. The interviews were a follow-up of the quantitative phase.

### 5.6.2  Findings and discussion

#### 5.6.2.1  *Teachers' views on their physical working conditions*

The older schools appeared to be in a state of neglect and in need of refurbishment. SGBs as legislated custodians of school property (DoE, 1996:12), are expected to spearhead renewal initiatives in order to make schools functional. A degree of congruency prevailed between schools with decent infrastructure (the newer schools) and an ethos of effective teaching and learning, as opposed to schools with poor infrastructure. This analogy is best explained by the broken-window theory which states that an orderly and clean environment signifies a place which is monitored. Here people conform to the common norms of decent behaviour. By contrast, a disorderly environment which is littered, vandalised and not maintained sends the opposite signal: this is a place where people do as they please, and where they get away without being detected (Wikipedia, 2011:1). Findings in this study confirm the essence of the broken-window theory that well maintained schools also ensure that learners behave in a certain way. This fashions the culture of learning and teaching at the school. According to one teacher:

*The infrastructure at the school leaves much to be desired. Classrooms are in a deplorable state… furniture is broken, windows damaged. Some windows don't open. During hot days we suffer. There are no air cons, no fans like in some of the other schools. Our toilets have been repaired on several occasions… but learners just damage them. There is a need for more toilets to be provided for our pupils.*

Modern resources such as computers, projectors, television sets and DVD recorders and players, and other technologically relevant equipment have revolutionised present day teaching and learning. These, according to teachers, are visibly absent in rural schools, lending credence to the argument that teachers in the schools have unequal opportunities of service delivery as opposed to their counterparts in more affluent areas. This confirms quantitative results (see Table 5.3) in which many teachers indicated that teachers in urban schools were more motivated than teachers in rural schools.

Teachers state that their schools had basic services such as water, electricity and sanitation. However, the problem remained of vandalism of these facilities by learners and unknown assailants from the communities. In the view of teachers, vandalism, theft and destruction of property were largely the result of lack of security measures at school, coupled with parental non-involvement in the running of the schools. This confirms quantitative results (see Table 5.3), in which most of respondents indicated that parents were uninvolved and more than a third of the respondents believed that learners were ill-disciplined.

### 5.6.2.2 Teachers' views on policies and practices at school

White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education introduced far-reaching changes in the admission policies of schools, *inter alia*, the admission of learners with physical and other challenges. Schools may not refuse admission to such learners, but are expected to ensure that they are accommodated with the least amount of discomfort (DoE, 2001). Teachers interviewed believed that whilst education is a fundamental human right, their schools lacked proper infrastructure as well as the financial capacity to affect changes to the existing infrastructure to accommodate challenged learners. These findings confirm the quantitative results in Tables 5.3 and 5.4 respectively, in which most teachers indicated that their schools were not well resourced and did not want learners with special needs in the same classes as other learners since they were not trained to deal with such learners, among others. With respect to the admission of older learners, many teachers expressed reservations, stating that such learners are often drop-outs from other schools, present behavioural problems, are non-cooperative, and should rather be placed in Further Education and Training Colleges. This explains the quantitative results (see Table 5.4).

With respect to the payment of school fees, teachers indicated that all learners who apply for admission and qualify are admitted. The payment or non-payment of school fees is not a deciding factor for admission. The personal circumstances of parents and care-givers are probed individually by the SGB who then negotiates

on whether parents or care-givers qualify for full exemption, partial exemption or staggered payments of school fees.

On the question of safety and security, quantitative results (illustrated in Table 5.4) were explained by the respondents who agreed that the safety and security measures at their schools were inadequate. Schools were using members of the cleaning staff to do the duties of security personnel. Teachers were vocal therefore that their lives were perpetually in danger. For example:

> *…. there is a lack of security at our school. It is an extremely unsafe working condition… umm...there's no security during the day. There is one security person who is here at night. We haven't seen or heard of him. But during the day there is nothing. There are lots of incidents which take place.. we notify the SAPS. In so far as safety and security are concerned, I would say our school is one of the worst ever. It breaks down our morale as teachers… we don't want to be in this school as teachers. Just walking in here in the morning puts you in a different mood altogether.*

Whilst teachers understood that financial constraints offered no viable alternative to the situation, teachers believed that neither they nor the cleaning staff were effective as security officers. Therefore, teachers believed that their schools were easy targets for criminals and this also accounted for the prevalence of drugs on school campuses.

The functionality of SGBs was heavily criticized by some teachers who believed that in general, only the SGB chairpersons were visible at schools. Other teachers questioned the presence of SGB members at school, believing that they were there for questionnable reasons such as signing cheques or making enquiries about awarding tenders to selected individuals. One teacher stated:

> *My personal view on the SGB's influence on the school is very negative. Our SGB's aim is not to build the school. Their biggest aim… is how money is spent, how are tenders being issued. So I don't think they are very beneficial to my school. Our SGB chair is only concerned about when the*

*next cheque is going to be signed, who is it going to, why was that tender awarded to that person? … the only time you see a SGB member, is to sign a cheque.*

The selection and recommendations of candidates for promotion posts at schools remained, in the view of many teachers, to be one of the key functions of SGBs. Teachers were not convinced, however, that SGBs executed this task with fairness and in the best interests of schools. They believed that SGBs often selected candidates whose credentials were very questionable, and the selection process was marred by impropriety. For example:

*There were not many promotions available at this school, but I would like to comment on the principal's post. This was a real joke. He was a level one teacher who failed to manage his classroom as a single unit. The joke is that the SGB chose this individual to be the school principal. When the results were announced, there was great excitement… not for the appointment… but as a joke. People knew the individual. They were wondering how he would run the school when he could not manage his class. They knew he would move the school from somewhere to nowhere. In a nutshell, since the principal's appointment, the school has collapsed.*

This partly explains the quantitative results (Table 5.4) where most respondents expressed the view that SGBs do not appoint the most suitable candidates for promotion.

Teachers were in agreement that the functionality of SGBs varied in accordance with the geographical location and socio-economic standing of schools. Teachers from rural schools believed that SGBs of urban schools were more involved in the running of their schools than SGBs in rural settings. One teacher stated:

*At this stage I would say in the advantaged schools the system is working. In the disadvantaged schools it is not working. In advantaged schools the governing body takes a keen interest in the running of schools and its professionals [teachers]. In disadvantaged schools the people are mostly*

> *illiterate and the DoE has failed in its responsibilities of workshopping and guiding the governing bodies. Parents, through governing bodies, need to take ownership of schools. The DoE needs to have capacity building workshops for governing bodies. It impacts negatively [on teacher motivation]. A member of my staff applied for a post and was not successful. He has many years of experience and has acted in the post for many years.*

The dissatisfaction with which teachers viewed OBE was explained by the interview data. The teachers referred to the burden of task assessment which invaded their private lives. For example:

> *My motivation is at an all time low. I teach English home language. From this year I also teach English first additional language. The number of assessments in my subject far exceeds those of other learning areas. I have 16 assessments to worry about. Mathematics for example, has only one [assessment] per term. That means they have only four per year! This is grossly unfair. As a language teacher I am always marking: marking during breaks, marking after school ... at home, during week-ends. We don't seem to have any holidays during the year… I am always marking.*

The amount of paperwork and record-keeping that OBE demanded often resulted in teachers using contact, teaching time with learners to mark. One teacher stated:

*Firstly, I am not happy with the manner in which OBE is conducted. I feel there is too much paperwork. Teachers neglect their classes. They are too busy with paperwork… a file or something. The learners in class suffer. The government wants the paperwork to be up to date... I would say it [OBE] is having a negative impact [on teacher motivation]. I feel the primary goal of the teacher is to be in class and to teach. I don't think as a teacher it is meant for us to be sitting down and filling in forms, updating those files.*

IQMS as an evaluative instrument for teachers was also not well received and the interviews illustrated why. Teachers viewed it as a perfunctory exercise only. They

noted that it negated the contextual realities of schools. Although the neonates to the profession in relatively newly built schools tended to find the IQMS quite valuable, most of the other teachers were unhappy. They did not believe that it developed them in any way. For example:

*When one looks at the IQMS, it ought to be a developing instrument and there is a rating. There is no national procedure or district-wise way to moderate the scores. You would find a teacher in a certain area scoring 100, and a better teacher in another area scoring 86 or even lower. So it really is not a proper instrument in assessing teachers. There is no fairness, but many challenges with the IQMS.*

*I wouldn't agree that it is developing [anyone]. It is merely for the sense of paperwork being done to the satisfaction of the District or Circuit. [In addition] ... we have just one class visit and limited sessions to discuss performance between peer and supervisor.*

These views confirmed the quantitative results (see Table 5.4). The majority of teachers averred that IQMS as an evaluation tool was not well received by teachers, and did not empower them to improve their teaching performances.

By far the greatest discontent teachers had with their careers was with their salary packages, which they considered as unrelated to the amount of work they did. Dissatisfaction with salaries focussed on discrepancies between neonates and experienced teachers; subordinates earning higher salaries than their superiors; service awards being paid out to teachers from their own capped leave; freezing of capped leave; and lack of tangible salary adjustments for improved academic qualifications. Examples include:

*Teacher salaries are not in keeping with inflation. I feel we should be paid far more than we are being paid right now. We work much harder and for longer hours. Our day doesn't end at half past two. We go home and work extra hours… which is not taken into consideration. As senior teachers we also come to school during weekends and holidays.*

*As far as the remuneration system is concerned, it is a bit unfair. It is based on qualifications only. Years of service are not taken into account. Looking at entry level teachers earning more than serving teachers ... this tells you that the Department doesn't care, doesn't look at skills and experience but at qualifications only... this impacts on experienced teachers who leave for the private sector, or gets self employed.*

The above confirms the findings of the quantitative phase. Table 5.4 illustrated teachers' dissatisfaction with various aspects of their salaries.

*5.6.2.3    Teachers' views on leadership and management at school*

Providing leadership in school is the task of principals, and in their absence of deputy principals, with departmental heads spearheading the management of the various learning areas (DoE, 1998:24). Visionary leadership based on the principles of postmodernism (cf. 2.4.2.11), focusing on innovation and diversity, and embracing flexibility, employee empowerment and participatory decision-making, ought to be exercised by school principals. In the view of the majority of teachers, such attributes were visibly absent in the persona and practices of school principals. Instead, teachers shared negative perceptions of their school principals, whom they viewed as incompetent and inappropriately selected to manage schools. Thus they were critical of the selection and appointment processes of education leaders. In the view of one teacher:

*My principal has no leadership qualities. There is no motivation of teachers at school. Teachers are empowered at workshops outside school. The principal, in my opinion, has been incorrectly appointed, and as a result, is struggling to lead the school…. I think the other teachers and the SMT are demotivated because if one does not lead by example, it would is difficult to follow.*

These qualitative findings confirm the quantitative data. In Table 5.8 it is indicated that only 32% of the teachers thought their school principals were good examples

of fair leaders. Respondents were equally divided on whether poor leaders were held accountable for their actions at their schools.

*5.6.2.4    Teachers' views on the cultural values and traditions at school*

Schools are community structures and the cultural values and traditions are the preserve of all the role-players (Clark & Dorris, 2006:24). The schools in this study were multi-racial, multi-ethnic and multi-linguistic in both learner and teacher populations. In the view of many of the respondents, both learners and teachers from the various race groups understood each other's cultural practices and this built tolerance and respect which assisted teachers in achieving the desired learning outcomes. However, the culture of teaching and learning was severely challenged by undisciplined learners who engaged in substance abuse, aggressive behaviour and sex and displayed poor work ethic. This confirms the quantitative data in Table 5.4. One teacher stated:

> *One would normally strive for a culture of teaching and learning at school,but this is non-existent at my school… and yet learners expect to pass. I summarise to say it is a sunshine culture where learners just like to be outside doing nothing and expect to pass.*

In terms of traditions practiced at schools, some teachers cited open days, sports days, cultural days and awards days as important occasions on their calendars. Financial constraints inhibited some of these traditional practices at other schools.

Teachers believed that, in general, an open climate based on open communication prevailed at their schools. Teachers communicated freely to the SMT their areas of concern. However, they stated that on occasion their principals exercised autocratic control. Teachers viewed their relationships with each other, as well as with SMT members to be more congenial and productive than perhaps with the school principals, as elucidated by this teacher:

> *My school is a problematic school where the principal is a joke ... . He cannot manage, guide or lead, but rather is a follower. He is unprepared for*

*meetings and for staff reactions, and crumbles easily. However the other SMT members assist the staff.*

*At my school there is a questionable culture of teaching and learning. Teachers do not report on time to school and to class. After breaks, they delay going back to their classrooms. They expect to be herded to their classrooms by SMT members.*

When the above is compared with the quantitative data in Table 5.8, it is evident that the patterns are similar, although the interview data explained the quantitative results somewhat.

*5.6.2.5    Teachers' views on their roles and responsibilities at school*

Most of the teachers interviewed articulated the view that their jobs were a calling. They therefore planned, prepared and taught their learners with devotion. As implementers of the curriculum, and being the direct interface with learners, they asserted that they did their best. This was in spite of perceived apathetic attitudes of parents and other guardians of learners, the limited cooperation of the DoE, and the innumerable challenges they faced at school.

According to many teachers, OBE placed unrealistic demands on teachers and learners, as indicated before. Married female teachers were the worst off in view of their additional roles as mothers and home-makers. OBE involved voluminous recording although it had no utility value. This time-consuming requirement, together with the various administration tasks (such as form filling and collection of fees) only served to frustrate teachers. For example:

*My daily routine is stressful. We hardly have any free time during the day, and the free time is taken for serving relief. In between your teaching there's admin work to be done like collection of school fees. Maybe the school secretary should be doing this… like filling in stats, collecting school fees etc.*

The quantitative data presented in Table 5.7 also showed that teachers were unhappy with their workloads.

Teachers remarked that the vast majority of learners in their schools were Isizulu speaking African learners whose command of the English language was poor. In all the schools involved in this study, English was the medium of instruction. Hence language barriers posed formidable challenges to learners and teachers alike. In this regard one teacher said:

> *My subject being English…the requirements are heavy, and being in a school where the majority of learners are second language learners… this poses a challenge to us. We have learners coming from schools where the competence levels of English are limited. We also have learners not speaking English at home but needing to speak and write English at school.*

*5.6.2.6    Teachers' views on interpersonal relationships at school*

With regard to teachers' relationships with colleagues, teachers believed they shared cordial relations based on mutual respect, even though minor problems occurred occasionally. As stated by this teacher:

> *I have a cordial relationship with my colleagues. When one takes into account the daylight hours spent at school, it needs to be a very good environment. School is actually our second home and we need to get along with each other.*

In their relations with superiors, teachers pointed out that the relations were not always congenial, especially when SMT member misuse authority or display misplaced diplomacy when addressing issues. The majority of teachers believed that they enjoyed good relations with most of the learners. This confirms the quantitative results (see Table 5.8) where 41% of respondents indicated that learners and teachers enjoy decent working relations at their schools. However, older learners or learners with behavioural problems repeatedly were viewed in a negative light. Teachers were also scathing in their criticism of parents who were

apathetic and uninvolved, stating they tended to "disappear from the scene" once their children have enrolled at school. However, teachers said they understood if parents had poor health, resided far away from school and were poor.

## 5.7    SUMMARY

The chapter presented the findings that emerged from both the quantitative and qualitative investigations. It empirically showed the cumulative impact that the organisational factors and the organisational practice factors had on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. The chapter also discussed the effects that a lack of motivation and/or job satisfaction had on teachers and how these effects impacted on service delivery at school. Results from interviews explained and validated those of the survey conducted, and suggested that urgent interventions were needed by the state in order for effective teaching and learning to take place.

The conclusions and implications are outlined in the next chapter. Some limitations of the study are also pointed out.

# CHAPTER 6

# CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

## 6.1    INTRODUCTION

The problem that was investigated in the study is the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in KwaZulu-Natal. In order to achieve this, the following seven research questions were investigated:

- How satisfied are teachers of selected secondary schools with the following aspects of their work: physical working conditions, policy and management, organisational structure of the school, school culture and climate, the nature of the job, and interpersonal relationships?

- Are there significant differences in the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in the various groups? The groups differed with regards to gender, age, race, tenure, post level, qualifications, personality, organisational and organisational practice factors.

- Are there significant correlations between the different factors that influence motivation/job satisfaction?

- What are the factors that are most motivational, and/or give teachers most job satisfaction?

- What are the factors that are least motivational, and/or give teachers the least job satisfaction?

- What is the effect of lack of motivation and low levels of job satisfaction on teachers?

- What can be done to raise motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers?

Accordingly, this chapter presents the conclusions that emerged from the literature chapters, as well as from the empirical investigation. Limitations to the study are thereafter looked at, followed by recommendations on how motivation and job satisfaction of teachers may be improved.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS

### 6.2.1 Conclusions from the literature study

Human beings are complex individuals and understanding human behaviour requires a great deal of knowledge and skill. In chapter 2 a review of the literature on generic theories of motivation and job satisfaction provided a conceptual framework for the study. Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence teacher motivation (cf. 2.2).

The theories of motivation that were studied included the content or needs-based theories (cf. 2.3.1), the cognitive theories (cf. 2.3.2) and the drive and reinforcement theories (cf. 2.3.3). The content/needs-based theories inferred that basic needs have to be fulfilled prior to the accomplishment of certain tasks. The cognitive theories maintained that individuals' thought processes directed their behaviour and inferred that levels of motivation depended on how behaviour was initiated, directed and sustained. Drive and reinforcement theories postulated that human behaviour was determined by positive and negative consequences. Positive actions reinforce behaviour whilst negative actions inhibit behaviour.

Job satisfaction theories showed that satisfied workers were productive and contributed to the realisation of organisational goals. Employee job satisfaction depends fundamentally on contextual and environmental factors together with interpersonal relations which, in turn, are influenced by the organisation's leadership and management.

An understanding of both the motivation and job satisfaction theories contributed significantly to recommendations (in section 6.3) on how to guide, modify and sustain good practice at the workplace.

The literature review presented in chapter 3 revealed the factors that influence the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. The study identified the following as important: demographic factors (e.g. age, gender, occupational level), organisational factors (physical working conditions, policies, organisational

structure and school culture) and organisational practice factors (nature of the job and interpersonal relationships).

The above-mentioned theoretical framework guided the research. Although it identified possible factors that impacted on teachers' motivation and job satisfaction, the exact nature and extent of this influence for the secondary school teachers in the Ilembe district was unclear. The empirical investigation enabled the researcher to determine this and points to the significance of the study.

### 6.2.2 Conclusions from the empirical investigation

#### 6.2.2.1 Research question 1

*How satisfied are teachers of secondary schools in the Ilembe district with various aspects (see 6.1) of their work?*

Most of the teachers thought that they were not given the opportunities to demonstrate their potential to be successful (see Table 5.2). They demonstrated self-efficacy as teachers: they thought they could support learners to do well and that they were generally successful as teachers.

From the results in Table 5.3 and in section 5.5.2.1, it can be concluded that the teachers were dissatisfied with their physical working environments: schools were under-resourced and the DoE did not deliver resources to schools on time, thereby severely hampering effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, learners came from financially insecure homes with uninvolved parents. The qualitative findings confirmed that modern technological resources (e.g. computers, projectors, television sets and recorders) were absent in the rural schools. The qualitative findings also revealed that the poor physical environment at schools was due largely to vandalism of school property. Teachers believed this was a consequence of lack of security at rural schools, and parental apathy in forming partnerships with the schools. Under such circumstances, the ability of teachers to deliver on their mandates became difficult, as espoused by the needs theories, i.e.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (cf. 2.3.1.1) and Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (cf. 2.3.1.3).

Table 5.4 and the qualitative findings highlighted teacher sentiments regarding school policies and management. Teachers believed that they were not being paid fairly. They were dissatisfied with the fact that entry level teachers received similar salary packages as experienced teachers, and with the DoE's policy on inclusive education, which made permissible the inclusion of significantly challenged learners to mainstream schools. This placed high demands on teachers, in particular skill variety and task identity, as espoused by the Job Characteristics Model (cf. 2.3.1.6). Learner substance abuse also posed formidable challenges to teachers. Thus, teachers felt ineffective, which, in accordance with the Dispositional Theory of job satisfaction (cf. 2.4.2.3), impacted on self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control of the teachers.

In terms of the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in relation to the organisational structure of their schools (see Table 5.5), teachers believed that their schools functioned well as organisations. Table 5.6 shows that just a third of the teachers believed that a climate of respect existed at schools, and just more than half of the teachers thought the general work ethic of teachers was good. Many teachers were dissatisfied with their heavy workloads and with high teacher-pupil ratios (see Table 5.7). Most teachers thought the work ethic of the learners was poor. Consequently, learners underperformed. In addition to classroom teaching, teachers were expected to play many additional roles. These findings were confirmed by the qualitative data (cf. 5.6.2.5). The negative impact on teachers' motivation and job satisfaction is in line with Herzberg's two factor theory (cf. 2.3.1.3), the Task enrichment theory (cf. 2.3.1.6), as well as the Goal setting theory (cf. 2.3.2.4).

The DoE's system of rewarding best practice in education, such as the NTA programme (Table 5.7), was not well received by teachers. Likewise, teachers were unhappy with how long-term service awards were administered and with once-off bonuses for improved qualifications. These views were corroborated by teachers during the interviews (cf. 5.6.2.2). The impact on their motivation and job

satisfaction is explained by the "Law of Effect" according to the Drive and Reinforcement Theory of motivation (cf. 2.3.3). Dissatisfaction with money-related issues led to negative teacher sentiment towards the DoE's recognition and reward system, a view explained by the Scientific Management Theory of job satisfaction (cf. 2.4.2.1). Moreover, most of the teachers did not think that their departmental heads supported them well.

In terms of interpersonal relations, teachers in general did not view their principals to be fair leaders (Table 5.8) and the qualitative findings (see 5.6.2.3) support this. Teachers were dissatisfied with uninvolved parents; and with the fact that the SMT did not try to improve teacher-parent partnerships. However, teachers enjoyed pleasant collegial relations amongst themselves.

### 6.2.2.2    Research question 2

*Are there significant differences in the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers from various groups (see 6.1)?*

Quantitative results showed that *male* teachers were significantly more satisfied with their school policies, their interpersonal relationships and their schools' organisations overall when compared with female teachers (Table 5.9). This finding could not be established during the qualitative phase of the study. The literature study in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.3.1.2) posits that numerous studies in the world revealed that female teachers were generally more satisfied with their work than their male counterparts, in contrast to this study.

With respect to *age, personalities* and *post levels*, ANOVAs found no significant differences in the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. There were also no significant differences between the views of teachers with different self-efficacies for learners support.

With respect to *race*, it was found that satisfaction levels of African teachers were significantly higher than that of Indian teachers (see Table 5.10). In terms of

*tenure*, teachers with 26 years or more teaching experience were found to be most satisfied with their jobs than those with less experience (see Table 5.11).

With regard to *qualifications*, quantitative results revealed that teachers with bachelor's degrees and with master's degrees were significantly more satisfied with their physical environments than teachers with certificates (see Table 5.12). Further it was found that teachers with honours degrees were significantly *less* satisfied with their physical environments than teachers with bachelors' or master's degrees. With regards to the overall organisation of the school, teachers with bachelor's or master's degrees appeared to be more satisfied than teachers with certificates only, as depicted in Table 5.14. Being under-qualified may impact negatively on self-efficacy and hence on satisfaction.

Teacher motivation and job satisfaction were significantly higher when education managers created opportunities for teachers to demonstrate their potential to be successful in all aspects of their work. This factor emerged as one of the most important in this study (see Tables 5.16 to 5.21). The more teachers were afforded opportunities to demonstrate their potential, the more satisfied they became, and *vice versa*.

Table 5.22 indicates that teachers with high teaching self-efficacies were more satisfied with their physical environment than those with low self-efficacies. This is consistent with the self-efficacy theory (cf. 2.3.2.3) which avers that people with high self-efficacy believe they are capable of accomplishing tasks and are motivated to put in more effort to achieve their goals. In similar vein, it was established that those teachers who viewed themselves as successful, were significantly more satisfied with their schools' culture than those who felt less successful (see Table 5.23).

*6.2.2.3   Research question 3*

*Are there significant correlations between the different factors that influence motivation/job satisfaction?*

According to Table 5.24, there are significant correlations between the different variables that influence motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. Organisational factors, in particular, correlated highly and significantly with (in order of importance): interpersonal relationships, school policy, school structure, school culture, the nature of the job and finally, with the physical environment at school. However, *all* the correlations are high, positive and significant. This means that the more satisfied teachers are with one of these factors, the more satisfied they are with the other factors as well, and *vice versa*. This indicates that *all* the factors are important for the motivation and job satisfaction of the relevant teachers.

*6.2.2.4 Research question 4*

*What are the factors that are most motivational and/or give teachers the most job satisfaction?*

The qualitative phase of the study was significant for revealing what was most important for teacher motivation and satisfaction. It showed that satisfaction related mostly to interpersonal relationships that teachers shared with the various role-players at school. These relationships included *inter alia* teamwork, joint decision-making, amiable superior-subordinate relations, praise and recognition, appreciation of work done, learner cooperation and good academic performance, empowerment opportunities through fair delegation of tasks, and parental support.

Teachers with the highest tenure in the profession, especially those nearing retirement, appeared to be the most motivated by the security of the work, holidays and a passion for the work (cf. 5.5.4.1).

*6.2.2.5 Research question 5*

*What are the factors that are least motivational and/or give teachers least job satisfaction?*

Teachers were demotivated by and dissatisfied with organisational factors (see Tables 5.4 and 5.5 and the qualitative data in 5.6.2.2) related to poor physical

environments, lack of resources, large class sizes, poor salaries and benefits, lack of school security, high workloads (also related to OBE assessment practices) and an ineffective teacher evaluation system, *viz.* IQMS.

Teachers were also unhappy with some organisational practice factors (see Table 5.8) such as poor leadership and management of schools, unsupportive SMTs, underperforming SGBs (e.g. with regard to selection of managers), learner ill-discipline and underperformance, and parental apathy or interference. These views were succinctly affirmed during the qualitative phase of the study (cf. 5.6.2.1).

The least motivated teachers were from the age categories 27 to 39 years (with approximately 6 to 15 years of experience), and 40 to 54 years (with 16 to 25 years of experience) (cf. 5.5.4.2). Teachers in these categories cited factors such as leadership and management problems, preferential treatment of certain teachers and an unfair appointment process of education managers as factors they found to be least motivational.

*6.2.2.6    Research question 6*

*What are the effects of lack of motivation and low levels of job satisfaction on teachers?*

Qualitative findings on the effects that lack of motivation and low levels of job satisfaction had on teachers (cf. 5.6.2.5) mirrored those of the quantitative study (cf. 5.5.4.3). Demotivated and dissatisfied teachers became stressed and depressed, often becoming dependent on chronic medication. This spilled over into their family lives. They lost focus on their obligations at school, absented themselves frequently from school, arrived late for duty, left school early and were often wilfully insubordinate towards school authority. In terms of output, such teachers performed poorly in class with many settling to do the bare minimum, thereby often impacting negatively on learner performance. Such 'disengaged' teachers did not involve themselves in school activities. Some of these teachers

were seeking exits from the profession, either through resignation, early retirement or being medically boarded (cf. 5.5.4.3).

The highest order in Maslow's hierarchy of needs (cf. 2.3.1.1) *viz.* the need for self actualisation defines an individual's striving towards the full development of his/her potential. However, in the light of the prevailing working conditions in rural schools encapsulated in this study, realisation of such a need was elusive. Many of the teachers included in this study experienced a lack of motivation and job satisfaction.

### 6.2.2.7    *Research question 7*

*What can be done to raise motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers?*

In terms of physical working conditions, the consensus was that the schools' infrastructure, equipment and resources needed to be repaired or replaced where necessary. School safety and security needed to be improved since rural schools were soft targets for vandals and common criminals (cf. 5.6.2.1). The absence of safety and security measures at rural schools evoked fear in teachers and learners, and fear is prohibitive to effective teaching and learning (cf. 5.6.2.2; Annexure E).

Teachers believed that school policies needed to be brought in line with the realities that schools face since, in their views, the chasm between policy and practice in rural schools was wide. Policies that needed revisiting included those that related to the admission of older and challenged learners; salary structures (to be brought in line with tenure, educational qualifications, and rank); capped leave; recognition and rewards policies; and the system of promotions as choice of candidates in leadership and management positions was often marred by impropriety resulting in unsuitable choices being made (cf. 5.6.2.1).

With regards to organisational practice factors, the teachers believed that their routine tasks as classroom practitioners needed to be re-looked at. Issues that warranted attention included workload, teacher-pupil ratios, and assessment and

evaluations programmes such as OBE and IQMS that could lead to rewards. Both the Instrumentality theory (cf. 2.4.2.5) and the equity theory (cf. 2.4.2.9) of job satisfaction highlight the importance of rewards to sustain teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Rewards may be tangible (such as salary and benefits) and intangible (such as praise and recognition).

Herzberg's two factor theory (cf. 2.3.1.3) posits that highly motivated and satisfied individuals create decent social, psychological and physical climates at their workplaces. In schools, motivated and satisfied teachers create climates in classrooms which are conducive to learning, integrating professional knowledge (subject knowledge and pedagogy), interpersonal knowledge (human relationships) and intra-personal knowledge (ethics and reflection) for the benefit of learners.

## 6.3    RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.3.1  Recommendations for improving motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers

#### 6.3.1.1    *Improvements in physical working conditions and security*

Schools need to be provided with the resources they need for effective teaching and learning by the DoE. The maintenance of school infrastructure is the prerogative of the SGB (DoE, 1996:12). However, due to financial constraints, illiteracy and ignorance on how SGBs ought to function, many SGBs function ineffectively. This impacts negatively on the functionality of the school. Teacher motivation and job satisfaction are, as a consequence, negatively impacted upon. Regular capacity building initiatives by the DoE are therefore necessary. Strategies to assist financially impoverished schools to pay for services such as electricity, water and sanitation should be implemented by the state.

Schools have become easy targets for vandals and criminals in general. While these criminal activities generally occur at night, during school hours many schools have been turned into breeding grounds for drug peddlers. In addition, other anti-

social behaviour such as learner aggression and sex-related crimes warrant safety and security measures to be put in place at schools. Teachers view the present system of community policing of the SAPS to be precariously inadequate (cf. 5.6.2.2) and are fearful of acts of violence against them. Rural schools could adopt pragmatic approaches to address safety and security concerns, such as the following:

- Fences/ boundary walls could be well constructed and possibly electrified;
- For control purposes, there could be limited access points to the school campus;
- Security systems such as surveillance cameras, metal detectors and/or alarm systems could be installed;
- The school could have a ground duty programme in place, involving teachers, RCL leaders and security personnel;
- Emergency evacuation plans should be in place, with school preparedness drills carried out on a regular basis;
- Compliance to school rules should be promoted in accordance with the school's code of conduct, with immediate and appropriate steps taken against defaulters;
- Anonymous reporting systems such as suggestion boxes and learner hot-lines could be put in place;
- Awareness campaigns could be created to encourage learners to take responsibility for their part in ensuring a safe school environment;
- School-community partnerships involving parents/ guardians, local police, community watch, ward councillors, local chiefs and farm owners should be built and maintained.

### 6.3.1.2    *Teacher remuneration*

The introduction of market-related salary packages for new incumbents in order to address teacher shortages is welcomed by teachers. Due consideration should be given to teachers with higher tenure and in many cases with much higher qualifications. Other issues that need to be looked at include the freezing of capped leave (cf.3.3.2.2.i) and the DoE's decision to pay teachers who apply for

20 or 30 year service awards from their own capped leave. The possibility should be investigated that the provincial treasury could budget for service awards. Secondary school teachers who are taxed with holiday marking may also be considered for additional remuneration.

### 6.3.1.3    Learner admission

Learners are the reason for the existence of schools (cf. 5.5.3.2). However, amendments to the school admission policy (ELRC, 2003) have introduced fresh challenges. Hence, the White Paper 6 (cf.3.3.2.2ii) needs to be revisited with a view to possible amendments. These amendments could include placing learners with special needs in proper institutions that would cater for their educational and other needs, as is done in countries such as Japan, United Kingdom, India (to an extent) and Pakistan (Khatoon, 2003).

Learners that are older than their respective age cohorts should not be granted admissions indiscriminately as is being done presently. Learners who present learning difficulties and have been failing in the system repeatedly, together with learners with a history of behavioural challenges need to be placed in other learning institutions such as ABET or FET Colleges.

### 6.3.1.4    School governance

Rural areas in many parts of KZN remain underdeveloped and inhabited by people who are aged and mostly illiterate, with many having the responsibility of raising their grandchildren (Christie, *et al.*, 2007). The power vested in these individuals through the SGB system is wasted. Important legislated functions are not carried out satisfactorily, and this impacts negatively on the functionality of schools (cf. 5.6.2.2) and on teacher motivation and job satisfaction. The DoE needs to empower SGBs to perform their functions as required by statute. Capacity-building programmes on key areas of financial management (such as mentorship on financial control, procedures on issuing of school tenders, the outsourcing of contracts to service providers), the selection processes of education managers,

the management of the school buildings and related issues need to be carried out on a sustained basis.

The literature review as well as the results from the empirical investigation highlight the over-arching role that the principal and SMT play in the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. The appointment of the school's leadership and management is hence critically important. The appointment process entails a two-tier approach involving the SGB and the DoE, where the former recruits, selects and recommends candidates, and the latter appoints them (Dehaloo, 2008). In its present form, the appointment process of the school's leadership and management seems to have serious flaws (cf. 5.6.2.2; cf. 5.6.2.3) which negatively impact on teacher motivation and job satisfaction. These are discussed below, together with suggested guidelines to improve best practice.

(i) *The selection process*

Affirmative action policies and practices are aimed at addressing inequalities of the past. Schools as centres of learning, however, require individuals with vision and capacity to manage and lead. Merit selection based on qualifications, experience and proven competence, as is practiced in the private sector, should be introduced in all schools.

At present the selection process at schools entails the reading of Curriculum Vitae (CVs), followed by short listing of candidates and interviewing shortlisted candidates. Referees of all shortlisted candidates should be contacted for written verifications of the contents of candidates CVs.

This study also recommends that additional criteria be looked at such as simulation exercises followed by written tests, and recommends increased representation of principals on selection panels to guide the process. This is currently practiced in overseas countries such as the USA, Australia and the UK (Blackmore, Thompson & Barty, 2006:313).

*(ii) Training of interview committees*

SGBs of rural schools comprise members who are often illiterate and not *au fait* with English. Hence greater initiative is needed, such as using interpreters, to enable the contents of CVs to be understood. In addition, during the interviewing process itself, interview panels need to be schooled in skills pertaining to questioning and listening to responses. The credibility of the interview process depends largely on the competence of the interview panels who need to select the most suitable candidate for appointment.

*(iii)   Performance contracts*

Performance contracts entail the signing of performance-based agreements which outline targets that individuals are expected to meet within a specified period of time (Ketelaar, 2007:1). Such performance contracts regulate behaviour of leaders on grounds of accountability and thus need to be incorporated for school principals.

*(iv)   Induction and mentorship programmes*

Induction and orientation of new school leaders is the joint prerogative of the SGB and the DoE to ensure smooth transition for purposes of continuity. Unlike countries such as the USA, UK and Australia, where leadership academies identify, recruit and prepare individuals for leadership roles (Blackmore, *et al.*, 2006:313), similar practices are not generally carried out in South Africa. Ongoing mentorship of principals is needed to guide school principals to run schools effectively. This would enhance the motivation and job satisfaction of all staff.

*6.3.1.5   Assessments and evaluations*

Teachers have decried the OBE system since its inception. Recent modifications to OBE have done little to ease the burden of teachers. OBE needs to be replaced urgently. The recent pronouncements by the education minister of the poor Annual

National Assessments results of Grades 4 and 6 learners (Motshekga, 2011) mirror those of the grade 12 NSC results, and confirm the systemic failure of OBE.

Rather than being a developmental and monitoring system, IQMS is seen by teachers as a futile exercise that wastes time (5.6.2.2). This study therefore recommends that a more inclusive, mutually acceptable and user friendly model be investigated.

### 6.3.1.6    The nature of teachers' jobs

Teachers perceive their workloads to be too heavy and the expectations of the DoE to be unrealistic. This lowers their levels of motivation and job satisfaction. For this reason, this study recommends that the DoE enforces compliance with the agreed 1:32 teacher-learner ratios. Teacher shortages need to be vigorously addressed by re-opening former colleges of education, or building new ones. Steps need to taken to curtail the high teacher turnover by addressing pressing needs of teachers such as those already pointed out. This would invariably result in improved levels of motivation and job satisfaction in teachers.

The DoE needs to address the issue of teachers' multiple roles. An earnest endeavour needs therefore to be made to re-introduce services such as school library services, school guidance and counselling, together with subjects dealing with aesthetics such as music and art.

Teachers also need more opportunities to demonstrate their potential to be successful in all aspects of their work. This factor was identified as significant in this investigation.

### 6.3.1.7    Interpersonal relationships

Teaching is concerned with the transmission of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values from teachers to learners (cf. 3.3.2.3). For teachers to achieve success, they need the assistance of the various other role players. To begin with, a harmonious, congenial atmosphere based on mutual cooperation and

understanding needs to prevail between teachers and SMT members to facilitate a culture of teaching and learning. School principals need to ensure that a productive *esprit-de-corps* based on professionalism and decorum prevails at all levels at school. To this end, staff development programmes, workshops, seminars, field trips and other get-togethers ought to be encouraged. Consensus decision-making, transparency and related democratic values need to be exercised when dealing with contentious issues, with all duties being performed without fear, favour or prejudice. The learners' right to education, dignity and life should at all times be safeguarded.

Support from the community, parents and care-givers needs to be encouraged given that the school is a pivotal service centre of the community. Parents and care-givers need to be brought on board as partners in education, notwithstanding their levels of literacy or socio-economic standing. Conscious and deliberate attempts to promote and enhance interpersonal relations serve to motivate teachers and raise their levels of job satisfaction.

### 6.3.1.8    Funding of schools

Current funding models for schools need to be revised in line with the geographic and socio-economic realities of the schools. Whist the granting of no-fee status to deserving schools is a step in the right direction, the quintile system of ranking schools and the classification of schools as Section 20/21 needs to be revisited.

School fund management is the joint prerogative of the principal together with the SGB. However, financial literacy is an evasive reality for many rural SGBs. The DoE therefore needs to capacitate such SGBs as already mentioned. Schools may also encourage the formation of ex-student societies whose main purpose should be fundraising and searching for donors. Such initiatives are successfully undertaken by schools in urban areas (cf.3.3.2.1), and could also be introduced in rural schools. Adequate funding translates into better resources and improved infrastructure – hence higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction in teachers.

*6.3.1.9    Building partnerships with relevant state departments*

School is a microcosm of society (Hausman & Goldring, 2001:30). Teachers are professionals who are qualified to deliver curricular mandates that are laid down by statute. Teachers need the assistance of other social partners to complement their efforts at teaching. The meaningful involvement of other relevant state departments such as the departments of Social Welfare, Health, Safety and Security, Sports and Recreation, NGOs, and religious and cultural bodies would complement the work of teachers, and raise their levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

## 6.3.2   Recommendations for further study

Teachers need more opportunities to demonstrate their potential to be successful in all aspects of their work. How this can be done effectively in schools, need to be investigated.

How to discipline learners effectively in the absence of corporal punishment is a topic that needs to be further investigated. It has implications for teacher motivation and job satisfaction.

The study highlights OBE as a major cause of teacher frustration in view of its workload demands and needs to be replaced. This view is consistent with the recommendations of the Curriculum Review Committee. Opportunities exist for a more acceptable system to be developed and this needs further investigation.

Further insights into IQMS need to be explored, with a view to arrive at a better model of evaluating teachers. At present negative sentiments are expressed by the majority of teachers about the utility value of IQMS to teachers whom it is purported to develop.

Differences in motivation and job satisfaction that was found for different groups (e.g. on grounds of gender, race, years of experience and qualifications) need further investigation.

Motivation and job satisfaction are affective concepts dealing with the perceptions people have of their work. Perceptions are subject to change. Whether the same or similar responses are arrived at if the study is replicated remains an open question. Further longitudinal studies are needed to understand teacher motivation and job satisfaction in schools.

## 6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is confined to five predominantly rural schools in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. Since democracy, the pace of reconstruction and development (in terms of infrastructure development and provision of services in particular) of rural areas has not been uniform in the various provinces. The ethos of schools in the different rural areas could therefore differ. Hence results of this study may not necessarily be applicable to other rural schools or to urban schools. Generalisations have been made with caution.

The motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers in the more advantaged public schools, as well as independent schools in KwaZulu-Natal were not included in the study. Hence generalisability of results may not be extended to these schools.

The study echoed the sentiments of teachers from two predominant race groups of KwaZulu-Natal, *viz.* Indians and Africans. White and Coloured teachers who also teach in rural schools did not participate in the study. This is a limitation of the present study.

## 6.5 SUMMARY

The aim of the study was to investigate the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal. To this end, a literature study was undertaken on relevant theories and on the results of previous research on the issue. This was followed by an empirical investigation. The research design was a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. During the quantitative

phase, a structured questionnaire was completed by 100 respondents from five secondary schools. The qualitative phase involved a phenomenological study in which 16 teachers from the same schools were interviewed.

This research found that the teachers generally exhibited high self-efficacies. Teachers with positive self-efficacies were more satisfied with their physical environments and their school's cultures than the others. However, teachers of different age groups, post levels and personality types were in agreement that the physical working conditions at rural schools were not conducive to effective teaching and learning. Parental involvement in school matters was restricted due to poverty and illiteracy. These factors served to lower teacher motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, teachers believed that school policies related to remuneration, safety and security, school governance, and assessments and evaluations needed to be revised if teacher motivation and job satisfaction were to be raised. Teachers were unhappy with their workloads and the multiple roles they played at school. With respect to interpersonal relations, their relations with their school principals, School Management Teams and parents were unconstructive. Many learners were also ill-disciplined and under-achievers.

Some significant differences in perceptions were found. Male teachers were more satisfied with policies, interpersonal relationships and school organisation. African teachers were happier than Indian teachers with policies and the nature of the work. Teachers with 26 and more years of experience were less negative about their physical environments. Qualifications also made a difference: teachers with certificates only were the least satisfied with their physical environments, school organisation and structure. Most importantly, teachers who were given the opportunity to demonstrate their potential to be successful, was significantly more satisfied with work-related issues.

The effects of a lack of motivation and low levels of job satisfaction manifested themselves in several ways in teachers, such as frequent absenteeism from school, health-related problems, poor classroom performances, unwillingness to take on extra responsibilities and conflicts with school authority.

The study recommended strategies on how the levels of motivation and job satisfaction of teachers may be improved. Many policies and practices need to be revisited. Teachers also need more opportunities to demonstrate their potential to be successful in different aspects of their work. This finding points to a more democratic work environment. This factor was identified as significant in this investigation.

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# ANNEXURE A

**LETTER OF PERMISSION**
(Retyped from original letter from the KZN Department of Education)

Mr. G. Dehaloo
P.O. Box 3006
STANGER
4450

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**

Your application to conduct research in the KwaZulu-Natal Department Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1.      The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.

2.      The researcher must ensure that teaching and learning programmes are not interrupted.

3.      Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.

4.      Learners, teachers, schools and institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.

5.      A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, principals and Head of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be concluded.

6.      The period of the investigation is limited to the period: From 01 March 2011 to 31 March 2012.

7.      Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Superintendent General. Please note that principals, teachers, Department officials and learners **are no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.**

8.      Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s) contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.

9.      Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report/ dissertation/ thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Address to: The Director: Resource Planning; Private Bag X9137; Pietermaritzburg; 3200.

The Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal fully supports your commitment toward research and wishes you well in your endeavours. It is hoped that you will find the above in order.

Best wishes.

## ANNEXURE B

**LETTER TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS REQUESTING PARTICIPATION OF TEACHERS IN DED RESEARCH PROJECT**

I hereby grant permission to *Gunram Dehaloo*, student at the University of South Africa, to involve teachers from my school in the following study:

*The motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in KwaZulu-Natal: an education management perspective.*

I understand that the research is for study purposes only, and the identities of all participants, the school, as well as the information supplied will be kept in strict confidence, and not divulged to anyone.

I understand also that participants agree to participate voluntarily, and may withdraw participation from the research at any time without prejudice or penalty.

I understand further that I will not receive any cash for involving my teachers in the study, but I will have access to the findings, upon request. I am also free to contact the researcher to clarify any issues that may arise from the study and *Gunram Dehaloo* may be reached on 083 778 3459.


_____               _____
PRINCIPAL'S SIGNATURE                              DATE


_____               _____
    WITNESS                                                  DATE

## ANNEXURE C

**QUESTIONNAIRE** ↑V1

Hi there,

This questionnaire seeks information on the motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. The data gathered from this questionnaire is for research purposes only. Information supplied will be treated in strict confidentiality and it is answered anonymously.

An appeal is made to you to please follow the instructions carefully and respond to **all** the questions.

**Instruction :  Please circle the appropriate number on the questionnaire to indicate your answer.**

*NB. The abbreviation **DoE** stands for Department of Education ; **SGB** stands for School Governing Body; **IQMS** stands for Integrated Quality Management Systems; **CAPS** stands for Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement; **OBE** stands for Outcomes Based Education; **RCL** stands for Representative Council Of Learners*

### SECTION  A :  PERSONAL  DETAILS

FOR
OFFICE
USE
ONLY

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 01. | My gender is: | | |
| | | Male | 1 |
| | | Female | 2 V2 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 02. | My age on 30 April 2011: | 26 years and younger | 1 | |
| | | 27 - 39 years | 2 | |
| | | 40 - 54 years | 3 | V3 |
| | | 55 years and older | 4 | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 03. | My race is: | African | 1 | |
| | | Indian | 2 | V4 |
| | | White | 3 | |
| | | Other | 4 | |
| 04. | My years of teaching experience are: | less than 6 years | 1 | |
| | | 6 - 15 years | 2 | |
| | | 16 – 25 years | 3 | |
| | | 26 years and longer | 4 | V5 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 05. | The post I currently hold at school is: | Teacher level 1 | 1 | |
| | | Departmental Head | 2 | |
| | | Deputy Principal | 3 | V6 |
| | | Principal | 4 | |

06. My **highest** teaching qualification is:

| | |
|---|---|
| Teaching Certificate | 1 |
| Teaching Diploma | 2 |
| Bachelor's Degree | 3 |
| Honours Degree | 4 |
| Master's Degree | 5    V7 |
| Doctoral Degree | 6 |

07. The following **most closely** describes my personality:

I generally experience positive emotions and socialise easily    = 1
I often experience negative and fluctuating emotions    = 2
I am very focused on my work and self-directed    = 3    V8
I tend to go along with the ideas of others at work    = 4
I am open-minded and consider other viewpoints    = 5

08. Managers at my school create opportunities for teachers to demonstrate their potential to be successful.

| | |
|---|---|
| Seldom / never | 1 |
| Sometimes | 2    V9 |
| Most of the time /always | 3 |

09. I can support learners to do well.

| | |
|---|---|
| Seldom /never | 1 |
| Sometimes | 2    V10 |
| Most of the time /always | 3 |

10. I am a successful teacher.

| | |
|---|---|
| Seldom /never | 1 |
| Sometimes | 2    V11 |
| Most of the time /always | 3 |

## SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION.

| | | DISAGREE 1 | UNCERTAIN/ NEUTRAL 2 | AGREE 3 | FOR OFFICIAL USE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11 | I teach learners who come from financially secure families. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V12 |
| 12 | My school is well resourced. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V13 |
| 13 | The DoE is generally quick to deliver resources at my school (e.g. textbooks) | 1 | 2 | 3 | V14 |
| 14 | Overall, my school has a good infrastructure (such as classrooms, electricity and sanitation). | 1 | 2 | 3 | V15 |
| 15 | I have an acceptable number of learners in my class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V16 |
| 16 | My learners are generally well disciplined. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V17 |
| 17 | Parents of learners at my school supervise learners' work at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V18 |
| 18 | Learners at my school often show resistance when work is demanded from them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V19 |
| 19 | My learners perform well in standardised tests set by the DoE. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V20 |
| 20 | The ethos of my school is good in spite of negative social factors (e.g. poverty and HIV/AIDS) | 1 | 2 | 3 | V21 |
| 21 | Teachers in rural schools are more motivated than urban school teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V22 |
| 22 | Teachers in rural schools enjoy greater job satisfaction than urban school teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V23 |
| 23 | The SMT encourages teacher involvement in school activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V24 |
| 24 | Teachers at my school make inputs into the formulation of education policies. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V25 |
| 25 | In my view, salary increases keep up with inflation in the country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V26 |
| 26 | I feel that all teachers are paid fairly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V27 |
| 27 | At my school the salary structures of superiors in relation to subordinates are fair. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V28 |
| 28 | It is acceptable for salaries of entry level teachers (new teachers) to be the same as serving teachers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V29 |
| 29 | It is fair that capped leave owed to teachers is kept frozen until they retire or are medically boarded. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V30 |
| 30 | I agree that learners with special educational needs are placed in the same class as other learners. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V31 |
| 31 | Teachers at my school easily handle learners with special educational needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V32 |
| 32 | I agree that older learners can be placed in the same classes as the normal age cohort learners. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V33 |
| 33 | I am happy that some learners come to my school because they are not able to pay the higher school fees of more advantaged schools. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V34 |
| 34 | Learner violence seldom occurs at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V35 |
| 35 | Traumatisation because of intimidation is absent at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V36 |
| 36 | Drug abuse is not a problem at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V37 |

| 37 | At my school, learners who are found guilty of drug and alcohol abuse receive the appropriate punishment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V38 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38 | Teachers are well prepared to deal with problems of substance abuse at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V39 |
| 39 | Teachers are well prepared to deal with criminal activity at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V40 |
| 40 | Teachers are satisfied with the abolition of corporal punishment at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V41 |
| 41 | I am satisfied with the fact that teachers at my school conduct random searches for drugs on learners at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V42 |
| 42 | Teachers at my school are satisfied with the suspension and expulsion policies of the DoE. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V43 |
| 43 | The safety measures at my school contribute to the smooth running of the school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V44 |
| 44 | The SGB appoints the most suitable candidates to promotion posts at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V45 |
| 45 | The SMT ensures that my school is functioning efficiently. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V46 |
| 46 | In general, teachers at my school are happy with the assessment policies of the DoE. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V47 |
| 47 | In general, CAPS is viewed positively by teachers at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V48 |
| 48 | IQMS as an evaluation tool for teachers is generally well received by teachers at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V49 |
| 49 | IQMS is carried out in a transparent manner at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V50 |
| 50 | IQMS has empowered me to improve my teaching practice in the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V51 |
| 51 | My school functions well as an organisation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V52 |
| 52 | My school enjoys a good working relationship with the DoE. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V53 |
| 53 | The SMT and staff of my school enjoy a good working relationship. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V54 |
| 54 | The SMT deals with conflict resolution in a professional manner at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V55 |
| 55 | A healthy school climate based on respect exists at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V56 |
| 56 | My school's culture is safeguarded by the various role players at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V57 |
| 57 | My principal encourages open communication. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V58 |
| 58 | The work ethic of teachers at my school is good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V59 |
| 59 | The work ethic of learners at my school is good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V60 |

**SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL PRACTICE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE TEACHER MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION**

| | | DISAGREE 1 | UNCERTAIN / NEUTRAL 2 | AGREE 3 | FOR OFFICIAL USE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 60 | Teachers at my school are happy with their workload. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V61 |
| 61 | The negotiated 32:1 teacher-learner ratio is adhered to at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V62 |
| 62 | Learners from larger classes perform well at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V63 |
| 63 | Teachers at my school are able to find creative ways to teach learners. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V64 |
| 64 | Departmental heads support teachers to excel in the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V65 |
| 65 | In my school teachers perform several roles in addition to classroom teaching (such as care givers, social workers or counsellors). | 1 | 2 | 3 | V66 |
| 66 | Teachers at my school are able to work well under pressure. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V67 |
| 67 | Recognition (e.g. praise) motivates teachers at my school to perform well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V68 |
| 68 | Teachers at my school are satisfied with the DoE's initiatives at rewarding teachers for good learner results. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V69 |
| 69 | In my view the DoE's National Teaching Awards Programme is an effective instrument to recognise best practice in education. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V70 |
| 70 | In my opinion the long-term service awards (for 20 or 30 year service) should be paid out from teachers' capped leave. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V71 |
| 71 | Teachers on my staff are happy with the payment of once-off cash bonuses in recognition of improvement in educational qualifications | 1 | 2 | 3 | V72 |
| 72 | The DoEs Laptop Initiative would empower teachers on my staff to improve their classroom practice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V73 |
| 73 | Teachers at my school support one another in the realisation of educational outcomes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V74 |
| 74 | Collegial support raises motivation and job satisfaction of teachers at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V75 |
| 75 | Harmonious superior-subordinate relations ensure the smooth functioning of my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V76 |
| 76 | Managers at my school engage teachers in participatory decision-making. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V77 |
| 77 | My school principal sets a good example of a fair leader. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V78 |

| 78 | The SMT motivates teachers at my school to perform well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V79 |
|----|----|---|---|---|-----|
| 79 | Learners and teachers enjoy decent working relations at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V80 |
| 80 | Uncooperative learners are held accountable for their actions at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V81 |
| 81 | The school's medium of instruction supports learner performance at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V82 |
| 82 | The RCL works closely with teachers at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V83 |
| 83 | The local community provides support services to learners at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V84 |
| 84 | Learner involvement in school life is enhanced by their financial environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V85 |
| 85 | The school management ensures that there are effective teacher-parent partnerships at my school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | V86 |

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## SECTION  D

<u>Please answer the following questions briefly:</u>

86. As a teacher, what are the factors that are most motivational and/ or give you most job satisfaction?

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87. As a teacher what are the factors that are least motivational and/ or give you least job satisfaction?

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88. In your view, what is the effect of lack of job satisfaction or motivation on teachers?

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89. In your view what can be done to raise the motivation and job satisfaction levels of teachers?

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## ANNEXURE D

**LETTER TO PRINCIPALS REQUESTING PARTICIPATION OF TEACHERS IN INTERVIEWING PROCESS**

**[PART 2 OF DEd RESEARCH PROJECT]**

I hereby authorize *Gunram Dehaloo*, a student at the University of South Africa to interview teachers at my school, as part of his D. Ed research study which is titled:

*The motivation and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers in KwaZulu Natal: an education management perspective.*

I understand that the interview forms the final part of the study involving teachers of my school, which is a follow-up on the questionnaires that were completed by my teachers. I understand that participation of my teachers in the study shall in no way compromise or prejudice them, and that their names, personal details, opinions and responses shall be strictly confidential, and not divulged to anyone whatsoever.

I also understand that my teachers' participation in the study is voluntary, and that they may withdraw from the study at any stage, without fear or prejudice.

I understand that neither I will receive no cash benefits from being involved in the study, nor will my teachers expect any compensation in lieu of their participation. I am aware that the interviews will be taped-recorded and all procedures relating to the interviews will be explained by the researcher, who may be reached on 083 778 3459, to answer any queries relating to the study.


_____                    _____
PRINCIPAL'S SIGNATURE                                          DATE


_____                    _____
            WITNESS                                                    DATE

# ANNEXURE  E  :        SAMPLE INTERVIEW

**Key :        I-Interviewer                        R- Respondent**

I        Good afternoon to you, Ma'am.

R        Good afternoon, Sir.

I        Thank you for agreeing to be part of this study and for availing yourself for this interview. For the record, the contents of this interview are for study purposes only. Neither you nor your school will be identified in any way. Hence your confidentiality is completely guaranteed. Please feel free to answer the questions honestly, freely and please be frank. To begin with, my first question to you is: How do the physical working conditions at your school impact on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers, including yourself?

R        The physical working conditions at my school are terrible.

I        Could you elaborate, please?

R        The school premises are dirty. We have caretakers who don't seem to be doing their jobs.There's dirt strewn all over the place. I as a teacher often complain about the cleanliness of my classroom. I even make it my duty to tell the caretaker to re-sweep or dust the room when it is unbearable to work in. Besides that, when you walk down the school campus, the first thing you view are the broken windows.

I        Mmmm. Alright.

R        … and the framework… the doors and windows are falling apart. Last year a learner burned down the emergency fire extinguisher unit. The entire unit was burned down. You still find the black soot and burned wall there. No-one, the SGB… nobody did anything to repair it.

I        Was the matter reported, Ma'am?

R        To my knowledge, no. The matter was not investigated… the culprit got away. No nothing happened.

I        How old would you say is your school?

R        Ummm, T is a pretty old school, I guess in excess of 25 years.

I         Oh, I see. So you would say the conditions are derelict?

R        Yes, there has been no maintenance in the recent past.
I        Has the Department of Public Works or other state departments been contacted to put matters right at your school?

R        Well, we did have the Department of Public Works and the Municipality to come and have a look at the schoo, to look at re-fencing and sorting out the plumbing, and other stuff around the school. There has been some work that has been done, but unfortunately about a week after… it gets vandalized and it's back to square one.

I        Would you say the vandals are people from your school, or outsiders… perhaps those disenchanted because they may have been refused admission, perhaps?

R        I would say both. It could be the learners or people from the community. You could say people who are disgruntled or did not get acceptance at this school, or are unhappy about something about the school,… or people from the community could be responsible for the vandalism.

I         Ma'am, would you say the community doesn't get involved in the security of your school?

R        Yes, there is a lack of security at our school. It is an extremely unsafe working condition… um...there's no security during the day. There is one security person who is here at night. We haven't seen or heard of him. But during the day there is nothing. There are lots of incidents which take place… we notify the SAPS. In so far as safety and security are concerned, I would say our school is one of the worst ever. It breaks down our morale as teachers… we don't want to be in this school as teachers. Just walking in here in the morning puts you in a different mood altogether.

I        I see. If I may ask, how are the other members reacting to these conditions?

R        Some of them accept it as a way of life. But the majority of them feel as I do. We complain to one another. We have these conversations day in and day out. Many staff members have fallen sick because of these poor working conditions. A colleague of mine ended up in hospital because of these conditions…. so I would say most of us are perturbed but unfortunately our voices are not being heard… our complaints are not heard by the principal, SMT, SGB. Nobody wants to listen to us. It's as though everybody has abandoned T Secondary, you know. It's one of the worst schools and no one is willing to work.

I        I see. Tell me how do the learners react to this. Are they content with the working conditions at your school?

R        Well, most of the learners don't seem to bother. But there are those who bring matters to our attention. They try to…you know… work with us and sort things out, but most of the learners, I guess just accept it as a way of life. I'm not sure whether I should say this but…

I        Please feel free, M'aam….

R        The background that they come from…being a rural settlement, many of them don't have things in their own homes, so it's probably something that they just accept and carry on. But then there are learners who are really concerned.

I        Thank you, Ma'am. I'd like to now move on to the second question which relates to school policies. I need to know how do the following policies impact on motivation and job satisfaction of teachers, including yourself. To begin with, let's start with the admission policy.

R        Unfortunately admissions are not done in an organized manner.

I        Could you elaborate please?

R        Unlike other schools that advertise for admissions early, our school may advertise towards the end of the year in the newspaper that admissions are open. Then you find that learners are coming from all over…

I        But why is it done in that manner, Ma'am? Is it because of financial reasons, or is it because you have a large intake so it's not necessary for you to advertise for learners to apply?

R        On the contrary, we do not have a large intake. Our intake is quite low compared to other schools. But I guess it's due to poor planning. It has to do with financial constraints, the school does not have the finances to advertise for admissions…as a result we get parents and learners from all areas with their kids. Learners who have failed. I need to stress this point... learners who do not get place in other schools come to this school and get accepted, and this is of grave concern.

I        Could you say these learners who do not get places in other schools, in terms of age, are they older?

R        Yes. Lots of them are older.

I        And they get admitted at your school?

R	They get admitted at our school. Lots of them are failures, they have failed in the other schools. They are older… that is why the other schools don't want them… they may have had incidents with them. So their last resort is this school.

I	Do these learners pose any challenges, behavioural problems at your school?

R	Yes…yes.

I	Could you elaborate please?
R	Lots of them who are much older than they should be in a particular grade turn out to be bullies at school. Lots of them are bullies. They are problem children.

I	Could you give me examples of bullying or problems that are created by these older learners?

R	These bullies behave more like thugs in school… they extort money and lunch from other learners.

I	 Do you call the police for these matters?

R	 Yes. We contact the police when this happens.

I	Can't these children be de-registered, in your opinion?

R	Unfortunately… look they can be de-registered. But every time there is a problem, you find the parents take the child to the District Office.

I	And then?

R	We get a call from our superiors out there to take the learner back.

I	I  see..

R	Very often our hands are tied, even though we don't want to accept the learners. They tell us we cannot turn the learners away under any circumstances.

I	I see. How do the teachers feel about this?

R	We have to again face the learner in class and put up with his nonsense during teaching time… but unfortunately our voices are not heard.

I	I need to know at your school do you admit learners with special needs, i.e. those who are handicapped or challenged in any way? Does your school cater for such learners?

R	Unfortunately our admission policy allows us to admit learners with special needs. However our school campus does not cater for these type of learners. We do not have ramps for wheelchairs. There's staircases all over. I don't know of any learner who is in a wheelchair at our school though.

I	Ma'am, this is referred to as inclusive education where challenged learners are permitted to be enrolled at normal schools. What is your personal view on inclusive education as policy?

R	My personal view is that as in the past… err... challenged learners should be catered for in special schools, not in normal mainstream schools… as normal schools are not designed to cater for these learners. Besides, we as teachers we are not trained to deal with such learners.

I	 In terms of school fees, does your school admit learners whose parents cannot afford school fees? And what are your views on the matter?

R	Yes our school admits lots of kids whose parents cannot afford school fees.

I       How does your school run?

R      That has created a lot of problems for us in the past and is still creating problems for us in the present. Our school is always in need of funds. We run out of funds midyear. We don't have money for paper, ink, etc. We don't have money to pay for our water bill and the Department…

I       How then do you pay for resources… do you have resources or outside funding to supplement shortfalls when parents fail to pay?

R      I'm not sure about funding from other sources. I'm aware we have a very difficult time… and we borrow materials from other schools… our neighbouring primary school. We did try out fundraising ventures which did not turn out very well.

I       But fundraising is the prerogative of the school governing body. Does the SGB come to the party as it were?

R      No, it doesn't. The SGB has done nothing to raise funds.

I       Thank you, Ma'am. Moving on now to the safety and security policy of your school. Could you please tell me what type of safety and security measures are there in place at your school?

R      That's s joke, because there is no security here. Our caretakers are sometimes positioned at the gates to serve as security whereas they should be busy cleaning the school.

I       Are they trained as security personnel?

R      Absolutely not. They have no training, no weapons, nothing to safeguard themselves at the gates.

I       How do the learners and members of staff feel in such cases, where you have caretakers in charge of security? How safe do they feel?

R      They don't feel safe at all. In fact we've had numerous cases where outsiders come and move from class to class. Last year we had an teacher who was assaulted in the class by an outsider.

I       What happened then? Could you elaborate?

R      The outsider was looking for another learner. He went inside the class by force…he threw some furniture around, and as a result, the teacher was hurt on her leg. This brought teaching and learning to a halt. Staff members were furious. We sat in until union members came to address the matter.

I       And then?

R      The culprit got away. There was some investigation, but nothing came of it. All this occurred because of a lack of security. This time a teacher was hit. Next time someone could die in the classroom.

I       Umm I see. Tell me was this matter reported to the Department? And how did they react?

R      I'm not aware if it was reported to the Department at all. I'm aware it was reported to the union and to the District Office.

I       But is the District Office not part of the Department?

R      It is. But I don't think they carried out an investigation either. They did nothing about providing us with security. As far as I am concerned, the District Office is doing nothing to help our school.

I        How would you link teacher motivation and job satisfaction in such a scenario?

R       Obviously teacher morale would be brought right down. Ever since that incident we are aware that our premises is extremely unsafe. We take each day as it comes and we pray nothing happens as our cries for help haven't been heard.

I        What are your feelings about the abolition of corporal punishment at schools?

R       Well in my opinion you spare the rod and you spoil the child. Well, I'm aware…of the repercussions of corporal punishment. We as teachers cannot lift our hands or a stick or anything to the child but the attitude and behaviour of learners have declined over the years as a result of this. There is a gross lack of respect for the teacher. They don't seem to bother. They have a don't care a damn attitude about the school. They know that nothing can be done to them. In my opinion I don't think it was a very good ruling. Unfortunately in this day and age the child's rights exceed those of us adults.

I        Thank you for that Ma'am. I'd like to now move on to the school governance policy. My question to you is: How effective is the governing body in the running of your school?

R       Very ineffective.

I        Can you elaborate please.

R       Governing body members don't involve themselves in urgent matters pertaining to the school. I just mentioned about the security issue, school buildings, toilets, etc. We do see them now and again on the campus policing learners, but that's as far as it goes.

I        You see them policing learners? What happens thereafter?

R       Well, they call the learners to the office, reprimand them, contact parents and interview parents…

I        In your view, is that effective at all?

R       Not very effective. It has helped to a certain extent only.

I        One of the important duties of the SGB is to select and recommend candidates for promotion. In your view does your SGB fulfil this mandate well?

R       The role of the SGB in placing people in promotion posts in my opinion is not a very good practice.

I        Why do you say that?

R       Because there is a lot of nepotism that takes place, there's a lot of favouritism that takes place. Before a candidate is even interviewed, the governing body who the post is going to be given to.

I        Has this happened at your school?

R       Yes, this has happened at my school, and as a result it has brought the school right down.

I        When you say right down… in terms of?

R       In terms of infrastructure, in terms of the way the school is managed…

I        In terms of the feelings of teachers?

R       Teachers feel betrayed in the manner in which some members were appointed.

I        Could you tell me more about this, please. No need to mention any names though.

R        A person was promoted to a very senior post at my school. He was given the post in a very strange manner. Suddenly a level 1 member was promoted to level 4. There was a huge outcry at the school. As a result the school suffered terribly because of the appointment of this person.

I        Did the SGB appoint this person on merit perhaps because he was an outstanding teacher?

R        I sincerely doubt that. I was not at this school when that happened, but from what I can see now, and what I've told by my colleagues, he was one of the worst teachers, he never went to class, never bothered to teach.

I        What about leadership, Ma'am? Would you say he is a leader?

R        He's definitely not a leader in every sense of the word.

I        I would like to move on to the next policy, the assessments and evaluations policy of your school. How are assessments firstly, done at your school?

R        We have the OBE system of assessments. The OBE system in my opinion has created lots of problems for schooling.

I        Why do you say that?

R        Well, for one, our classrooms are not designed for OBE. There are large numbers of learners per class. High teacher-pupil ratios.

I        What are the teacher-pupil ratios at your school roughly?

R        I teach classes  up to 40 and 45 learners. That is why I feel the OBE system fails. OBE was designed for smaller class sizes.

I        How are OBE assessments impacting on you and your motivation?

R        My motivation is at an all time low. I'm not motivated in any way. I am a language teacher. I teach English Home Language. From this year I also teach English 1$^{st}$ Additional Language. The number of assessments in my subject far exceeds those of other Learning Areas. Let me explain. I have 16 assessments to worry about. Mathematics for example has only 1 per term. That means they have only 4 per year! This is grossly unfair. As a language teacher I am always marking: marking during breaks, marking after school- at home, during week-ends. We don't seem to have any holidays during the year… we are always marking.

I        I see.
R        It affects our health, we neglect our families, we do not have a social life as a result of this. In my opinion the OBE system is way out!

I        Moving on to IQMS as an evaluation tool for teachers. I need to know how effective is IQMS at your school?

R        IQMS is nothing but a farce at our school.

I        Why do you say so?

R        Because teachers are not being fairly assessed.

I        But why is that so?

R        We have forms from the Department to fill in. Suddenly we get our HODs to come to us for classroom visits. For that day I've got to sugar-coat my lesson to look like a good teacher.

I        And how frequently is IQMS done at your school, you say?

R        Maybe once or twice a year.

I        I see..

R        Whereas every day we are doing our work and nobody is there to monitor how we are working. So it's just a farce. Even my scores are not in keeping with what I deserve. I am a younger teacher, so I get scores which are lower than a person teaching for 20 years who may not have even been teaching… just because he's senior, he gets a higher score. So for IQMS is no good.

I        Would it be fair to ask whether IQMS has developed you in any way?

R        It's a fair question, but no- IQMS has not developed me in any way. I am developed on my own initiative, from my superiors, my studies and my colleagues. No, but not IQMS!

I        I would like to move on to the next policy, i.e. the remuneration policy. Your views please on teacher salaries?

R        (Laughs) Teachers I believe are least paid and most worked. We are really underpaid. As I mentioned for the work that I do, at school, out of school, at home- our salaries are really pathetic!

I        That being the case, don't your teacher unions have the prerogative to take up the battle concerning salaries for you?

R        Yes, they do. We do go on strike almost every year. Unfortunately the unions sell us out also. They settle for far less than we deserve. When we do get an increase, everything else goes up… our medical aid, pensions, taxes …so we really get no increase at all! And the other thing that perturbs me…

I        Go on please.

R        The salary structures of newly appointed teachers as compared with teachers who are in the system for so many years.

I        Yes, Ma'am, I meant to ask you that a bit later. But what is your opinion on that?

R        Well, I'm very disappointed with that. For a teacher to come out of college and earn the same salary as me… I have been in the system for 13 years, so in my opinion it is unfair… it is unjust. Salary scales should be based on years of experience also.

I        A similar situation prevails when you have level 1 teachers who earn more than level 2's and 3's. What are your feelings on that matter?

R        Well. I think that is also very unfair. Teachers should be given a salary on their rank as well as on years of experience. So if a level 1 teacher is earning more than a level 2 or 4, there is no justice in that.

I        Moving on now to the management of your school. How does the management of your school influence motivation of teachers at your school?

R        Well, the management of our school does not assist our teachers. The principal and SMT don't work together. They are always at loggerheads.

I        Why is that so?

R       I guess it stems from the fact that the principal was promoted unjustly.. you know, from level 1 to level 4.

I       Ma'am, would you say the other members are jealous of his appointment?

R       No. I don't think they are jealous of him. I think he's a weak manager. He does not know how to lead. He has no management skills whatsoever. He's also a very lazy person… he wants to do nothing and earn the salary at the end of the day. He expects the management team, the HODs and DP to do his dirty work while he sits back and does nothing.

I       How do the management members react to him?

R       Well, they are angry at him for his behaviour. They don't want to work with him when he asks for assistance. The HODs have their own work to do… their teams to manage… their children to teach.

I       So Ma'am, while the SMT and the principal have their own saga going on, how does this impact on teacher motivation?

R       We are definitely not motivated in any way. If the heads of the school are not getting along, what do we expect teachers to do? There's a lack of respect for the management. We are not motivated to work to our best as we can see our leaders not working with one another.

I       Moving on to school culture and climate now, I'd like to know what type of culture and climate prevails at your school?

R       As with culture (laughs), we do not have some culture at our school.

I       I see you are laughing. Can you tell me why?

R       Because my school is such an unpredictable institution. You cannot really plan for the day.

I       And why not?

R       When you come to school, there's either no water or no electricity… some chaos begins. We are forced to make changes to periods, etc.

I       Would you say that impacts on your planning?

R       Yes. Definitely. I find it very hard to plan my day as so much can happen during the day and change things. We start every morning with assembly…

I       Could you tell me about your morning assemblies, please.

R       We have assembly every morning. I'm glad you asked me this question. Not all learners come to the assembly. Many of them hide in the blocks and they create a big din when the assembly is taking place. The teachers are not keen to do assembly… they don't like to stand on the podium to address the learners because very often they are mocked by the learners.

I       Would you say then that the relationship between learners and teachers is also very questionable. I mean to mock a teacher at assembly?

R       Yes, very questionable.

I       Then what type of discipline do you have at your school?
R       You know our learners can be very difficult.

I       And nothing is done to them?

R       90% of the time nothing happens. You send them to the office… nothing happens. We do have some learners though who give assembly talks. We do occasionally have other occasions, like awards days, which is not an annual thing though. We do have cultural days, parent meetings. However the parent community don't really come to school.

I       Would you think they feel intimidated that they don't come?

R       I wouldn't say they are feeling intimidated. I just think they lack concern for their children or they don't care too much. I would say the parents are too involved in their own private lives to worry too much about school.

I       What type of climate prevails at your school? Is it open or closed? Would you say there is free communication between people?

R       I wouldn't say it is entirely open. In fact it is closed in many ways.

I       Why do you say that?

R       There is very poor communication between the principal and his SMT, and also between the principal and staff and between the SMT and the staff. Decisions are taken in the office by the principal himself… sometimes with his SMT without the knowledge of the staff.

I       Don't you have teacher reps in your management?

R       We do. We do have teacher reps in management but they are often sidelined. They are not called to represent staff at meetings. It creates lots of conflict between staff and management.

I       The next question, Ma'am, deals with the nature of your daily work: what influence does the nature of your daily work have on your motivation and job satisfaction?

R       My teaching workload is very, very high. I have a lot of assessments to mark. I teach English which is the language of teaching and learning at our school. The majority of learners do it as first language. I need to stress also that even though we now have English first additional language, the number of assessments is the same. So the number of assessment tasks for English home and first additional language are the same. OBE…our workloads.. is all too frustrating.

I       Thank you Ma'am. I can sense the frustration in your voice. What about learner attitudes?

R       Unfortunately the majority of learners are not interested in school right now. You know in my class I have teenage pregnancies which is rife.

I       What about counselling opportunities for these learners?

R       There's no formal counselling. We have Life Orientation teachers. We have an teacher on the plant who counsels learners during breaks, but there are no formal counsellors at school. Many learners come from homes where there are no parents, some learners are parents themselves, some parents work 'far away … in Durban or Johannesburg. As a result the attitudes of these learners are very poor. They are not interested.

I       Do these factors impact on your teaching?

R       Yes they do. You are fighting a losing battle. You are trying to teach Shakespeare to a child, poetry, how to write a composition… when that child has no electricity at home, no water, no food. This affects the learners and the teachers. We are demotivated. Our morale is lowered… we are fighting a losing battle here. I mean what are we to do?

I       Thank you Maam. I can see where we are going… we have just covered that. My final question to you is about inter-relationships. What type of relationship do you share with the other role-players at school? Firstly with your colleagues?

R    I would say a good working relationship with my colleagues. We interact with each other well. We work well in our teams.

I    With your superiors?

R    I get on very well with my superiors. My HOD relies on me a lot.

I    Are you a senior teacher?

R    Yes I am a senior teacher. I teach senior classes.

I    Your relationship with learners?

R    I think my relationship with my learners is good. They show me a lot of respect.

I    And how would you describe your relationship with parents and guardians?

R    I would say my relationship with parents and guardians is very good. They are willing to work with me.

I    Is there anything else you would like to add?

R    Just to add that I do wish things at my school were better… this would motivate teachers to work harder. If the relationship between the principal and SMT could improve then .. .teachers would follow suit.

I    Thank you Ma'am for your frank contributions and your participation.

R    You are welcome.