Job Satisfaction and Propensity to Leave Employment Among Teachers

by

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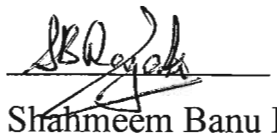
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Shahmeem Banu Rajak, declare that this dissertation is my own original work, unless it is specified to the contrary in the text. This dissertation has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.



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ABSTRACT

Teachers are being stretched to the limit. Expectations placed on them seem to be expanding exponentially. Their role encompasses not only teaching specific content and mentoring students in the love of learning, but functioning as frontline social workers. It is the task of the teacher as specialist to teach and to educate. The measure to which teachers experience fulfilment in their vocation in an accepted environment will, to a significant extent, determine their attitude and conduct. The principal cannot afford to disregard the expectations of the teachers, as there are too many benefits to be derived from a satisfied staff. It is the duty of the principal, therefore, to create a working environment conducive to education and teaching.

This dissertation examines the job satisfaction and propensity to leave among level one educators in a Government school, viz. Apollo Secondary and an Ex-Model C school, viz. Queensburgh Girls' High. It has been undertaken to study the intrinsic and extrinsic factors in a working environment which influences the job satisfaction of teachers in order to determine how these factors may enable a teacher to fulfil his vocation effectively. It also explores the ability of extrinsic and intrinsic work rewards to predict the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of teachers. Work related rewards were studied in reference to their relative importance as determinants of work satisfaction.

An analysis of the factors and their influence on job satisfaction and propensity to leave reveals that there does exist some differences between educators in a Government school and in an Ex-Model C school. The results indicated that low salaries, poor working conditions, too large class sizes, too heavy workload-both in the classroom and beyond, lack of administrative support, resentment of central administration, pressures of limited time and resources, student discipline problems, lack of prestige, and limited input into school decisions have caused dissatisfaction in the teaching profession.

Organizational climate is therefore, one of the integral factors that determine the quality of teaching in a school. Staff development programmes in which the

developmental needs of teachers have been recognised, should be carefully structured so as to enable the teachers to render optimum service. Teachers experience job satisfaction when they are given responsibility in accordance with the demands of their profession. Career development also promotes job satisfaction as it prevents a teacher's career from stagnating since it provides continual learning. Other factors that motivate teachers include love and respect for co-workers and colleagues, support of and feeling appreciated by administrators, and love of the students and the joy of working with them.

The hope is expressed that this research project will enable principals and administrators to manage their schools in such a way that teachers will be able to fulfil their tasks ably and effectively.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Human Relations movement with its emphasis on good interpersonal relations, job satisfaction and importance of informal groups provided the initial stimulant for the study of job attitudes and their relationship to human behaviour in organisations. From the thirties to the present day, many studies were conducted to determine the correlates of high and low job satisfaction. Such studies related job satisfaction to seniority, age, sex, education, occupation and income. According to Lawler and Porter (1967; 20), this great interest stemmed from a simple desire on the part of the scientist to learn more about job satisfaction. However, most of the interest in job satisfaction seems to have stemmed from its presumed relationship to job performance. Some data also supported the assumption that a high level of job satisfaction leads to high productivity.

Hoppock (1935; 5) clearly recognises the importance of job satisfaction studies. He maintains: "Whether or not one finds his employment sufficiently satisfactory to continue in it, either permanently, or until he has prepared himself for greater responsibilities, is a matter of the first importance to employer and employee. To state the problem is no less significant : subject any group of normal people to intolerable working conditions and revolt is inevitable, first in strikes; if they fail, in riots; finally, if necessary in political or social revolution." Hence, job satisfaction ought to be studied in order to ascertain how and in what ways men can be made more satisfied with their jobs, which is man's central life activity (Coldwell, 1977; 2).

According to Rice, Gentle and McFarlin (1991), job satisfaction is an affective reaction to an individual's work situation. It can be defined as an overall feeling about one's job or career or in terms of specific facets of the job or career (for example, compensation, autonomy, coworkers) and it can be related to specific outcomes, such as productivity.

A high-quality teaching staff is the cornerstone of a successful education system. Daily interaction between teachers and students is at the centre of the educational process. Thus, attracting and retaining high quality teachers is a primary necessity for education. One step in developing a high quality faculty is understanding the factors associated with teaching quality and retention. One of these factors is job satisfaction which is linked to organisational commitment and organisational performance.

Sometimes, it is not merely satisfaction with the job but with the career in general that is important. Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue since it is associated with teacher effectiveness which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton and Webb, 1986). Because faculty are both the largest cost and the largest human capital resource of a school system, understanding factors that contribute to teacher satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is essential to improving the information base needed to support a successful education system.

With teachers, satisfaction with their career may have strong implications for student learning. Specifically, a teacher's satisfaction with his or her career may influence the quality and stability of instruction given to students. Some researchers argue that teachers who do not feel supported in their work may be less motivated to do their best work in the classroom (Ostroff,1992). In addition, highly satisfied teachers are less likely to change schools or to leave the teaching profession altogether than those who are dissatisfied with many areas of their work life (Choy et al., 1993). These actions disrupt the school environment and result in the shift of valuable educational resources away from actual instruction towards costly staff replacement efforts.

This report describes the satisfaction with teaching as a career of level one teachers in two different South African secondary schools- a Government school and an ex-Model C school. It identifies and discusses some work-related factors associated with satisfaction. Factors examined here include characteristics of the school, as well as the workplace, the teacher's background, commitment, salary and other benefits. Factors related to

dissatisfaction and turnover were also uncovered, for example, class size, administrative support and teacher autonomy.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In South Africa, little or no research has been done on job satisfaction of teachers in a Government secondary school as opposed to job satisfaction of teachers in an ex-Model C high school. The present study, being undertaken with regard to job satisfaction of teachers from these two types of schools, as determined by various facets of the work environment, may thus be regarded as breaking new ground in its investigation.

The two schools used in the research are both situated in suburbs in Kwa Zulu Natal. Apollo Secondary School is a Government school characterised as a Section 20 school. The staff is made up of the Principal, the Deputy-Principal, 4 Heads of Department, 25 Level One teachers, 2 secretaries and two cleaners. The roll is made up of 935 learners and each learner is expected to pay school fees of R550 per year. The pupil population consists of boys and girls. Queensburgh Girls' High School is an Ex-Model C School characterised as a Section 21 school. The staff is made up of the Principal, Deputy-Principal, 5 Heads of Department, 38 Level One teachers, 5 secretaries, and 10 cleaners. The roll is made up of 1075 learners and each learner has to pay school fees of R4500 per annum. The pupil population consists of girls only. Queensburgh Girls' High school also has a social worker in its employ.

The following figure illustrates the profile of the two schools.

Figure 1.1: PROFILE FOR THE TWO SCHOOLS

DETAILS	APOLLO SECONDARY	QUEENSBURGH HIGH
Section	20	21
Roll	935	1075
Deputy Principal	1	1
Heads of Department (HOD's)	4	5
Secretaries	2	5
Level One Educators	25	38
Cleaners	2	10
Social Worker	-	1
FEES	**R550**	**R4 500**

The State provides both schools with the same ratio of teachers and secretaries. They receive the same amount of funds per child. However, the Section 21 schools have their allocation deposited into their banking account and they handle the funds themselves, whilst the Government handles the funds allocated to the Section 20 schools.

According to a study conducted by Tan and Quek (2001), on the Career Anchors of Educators in Singapore, Human Capital has become one of the most important resources that businesses use to stay competitive in the global arena. In their study, they focused on the internal careers of educators who play a major role in the early development of Human Capital. Internal careers are defined by an individual's perception of work and personal definition of success (subjective career success) as opposed to external careers, which are defined by opportunities and constraints existing in a given occupation and organisation and company definition of success (objective career success), (Derr, 1986). Career anchors consist of a person's self perceived talents and abilities, basic values, and the evolved sense of motives and needs as they pertain to the career (Schein, 1978,1990). Hence, career anchors hold significant consequences for individuals' job satisfaction and job stability.

The main objectives of their study were to determine the primary career anchors possessed by Singapore educators and the relationship between the dominance of different career anchors with intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and with turnover

intentions. Retention of talented people in the teaching profession requires one to understand their perception of a successful career (internal careers). An improvement of external career paths can only enhance the extrinsic motivation of the teaching career, but fulfillment of internal careers gives rise to intrinsic motivation which plays a greater role in determining job satisfaction (Lambert,1991; 343).

As exemplars of the spirit of lifelong learning, teachers must act as facilitators and mentors to their students and strive to constantly upgrade their instructional competencies. The Singapore government has taken a number of steps since 1996 to attract and retain good-quality teachers. These steps have included improvements in the external aspects of the job such as hiring more administrative staff to handle non-teaching duties to ease the teacher's workload, enhancing the promotional prospects and improving salary grade for both graduate and non-graduate teachers (Ministry of Education, 2001a, September 26). In addition, the Singapore Government has improved the motivating factors that focus on intrinsic aspects of the job itself to enhance teachers' professional growth. The Government also established a professional development plan to train and develop teachers throughout their careers and to recognise outstanding teachers by conferring an annual President's Award. The Ministry of Education has also given more responsibility and autonomy to all schools (Ministry of Education Yearbook, 1999-2000).

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The motivation to conduct this study comes from the researcher's interest and readings on teacher job satisfaction. There is a definite need for a study of this nature to be conducted since improving teachers' job satisfaction is paramount in an era when 50% of new teachers drop out of the profession in the first five years (Colbert and Wolff, 1992). According to Woods and Weasmer, eager neophytes burst into their first classrooms confident that they will touch their students' lives and inspire them to learn. However, lack of administrative and collegial support, budget constraints, a flagging sense of personal teaching efficacy, and a controlled curriculum often squelch their enthusiasm.

Shann (1998; 67), maintains that teacher job satisfaction is a "predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and, in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness." Teacher satisfaction reduces attrition, enhances collegiality, improves job performance, and has an impact on student outcomes. Measuring job satisfaction is a complex process because teachers are not unified in their perspectives about what makes them satisfied with their careers.

According to a report by Tye and O'Brien (2002), too many teachers will quit permanently because they are fed up. Their ambition and self-respect will take them into business or other professions. Consequently, they leave behind an increasing proportion of tired time-servers.

Another motivating factor to conduct this study came from constantly hearing the following comments from experienced colleagues: "The love I had for my work is gone. I never felt this way before, but now, it is hard to drag myself to school each day." For many teachers, teaching seems to have lost its joy and satisfaction.

According to an article, "Teacher Shortages: Myth or Reality", by educational sociologist, Professor R.M.Ingersoll from the University of Pennsylvania, the high rates of teacher turnover have more to do with teacher job satisfaction and teachers pursuing other jobs, and little to do with teacher retirement because of a graying workforce. He added that the rate of teacher turnover appears to be higher than in many other occupations, ranging from 15% in 1989 to 14.3% in 1995.

Conditions that undermine the power and effectiveness of school systems need to be identified and promptly rectified, if necessary. This includes, firstly creating a work environment that will continue to draw the bright, committed new teachers that are needed and to keep them enthusiastic, energetic, and productive throughout their careers.

1.4 VALUE OF THE PROJECT

This project should help to:

- Highlight the most significant contributing factors causing the differences in job satisfaction and teacher turnover among educators in a Government school and Ex-Model C school.
- Bridge the gap between levels of job satisfaction and turnover among educators in a Government school and Ex-Model C school
- Enable administrators from schools to use the findings from the study to increase satisfaction and reduce turnover of teachers by perhaps modifying extrinsic factors in the environment and improve intrinsic factors.
- Enable administrators to provide a supportive environment for teachers.
- Enable principals to facilitate job satisfaction and promote the career of each teacher in a meaningful way
- Enable teachers to keep the freshness and spark that frequently mark a novice in the field, while at the same time embedding freshness in wisdom and thoughtfulness.
- Enable principals to strengthen teacher morale
- Enable policy makers to identify workplace conditions and compensation factors that may be manipulated to influence satisfaction with teaching as a career

1.5. PROBLEM STATEMENT Research Question

Is there a difference between job satisfaction and propensity to leave among teachers in a Government School and Ex-Model C School?

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- The overall aim of this study is to establish whether there really is a difference between job satisfaction and propensity to leave among educators in a Government school and in an Ex-Model C school.
- Having established that there indeed exists a difference, the study will then explore the extent to which the various intrinsic and extrinsic work related rewards influence the job satisfaction and turnover in these schools.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Self-administered assessments allow for too much interpretation of questions by the subjects.
- The issue of whether questionnaires can objectively measure concepts like intrinsic and extrinsic work-related rewards and organisational commitment is debatable.
- The sample consists of too many females as opposed to males. The ratio of females to males is 4:1.
- The choice of schools is not very appropriate since one is a co-educational school and the other is a girls' school.
- The research is limiting its focus to two schools only.

1.8 DEFINITIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is defined as the positive emotional response to a job situation resulting from attaining what the employee wants and values from the job (Locke, 1983). This implies that job satisfaction can be captured by either a one-dimensional concept of global job satisfaction, or a multi-dimensional, faceted, construct of job satisfaction capturing different aspects of a job situation that can vary independently and should be measured separately. The facet-specific job satisfaction might include aspects like inner rewards, conflict-balance dimensions, recognition and support, and economic compensation.

Similar to the above definition is that formulated by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969; 6), by subsuming what was commonly posed by twenty eight others. They conceptualise job satisfaction as being feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation. These feelings are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return, and what is experienced, in relation to the alternatives available in a given situation.

Vroom (1969) defined job satisfaction as the positive orientation of an individual towards the role which he or she is presently occupying while Hackman and Oldham (1975) defined it as the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with his job. Job satisfaction can also be defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's physical and psychological needs (Locke, 1976).

According to Davis (1977; 73), "Job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. It results when there is a fit between job characteristics and the want of employees. It expresses the amount of congruence between one's expectations of the job and the rewards the job provides."

1.9 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

This study consists of the following chapters:

Chapter one: Introduction

This chapter introduces the foundations of the study and covers areas such as the background to the study, the value of the project, the problem statement, the objectives, hypotheses and limitations of the study.

Chapter two: The satisfaction of individual needs

This chapter is a broad theoretical framework which includes the needs of an individual, the theory of needs, determinants of job satisfaction and theories of job satisfaction.

Chapter three: Research methodology

This chapter explains the method of research, research design, sampling theory and design, data gathering and analysis.

Chapter four: Reporting and discussion of results

This chapter deals with the statistical results of the research, and the methods of data interpretation and analysis that was used. The key factors that affected job satisfaction of

teachers at Apollo Secondary School and Queensburgh Girls' High School will be featured. The researcher will draw on the theory and objectives of the study in discussing the research findings. Descriptive and Inferential statistics will be used in data analysis. The results will be presented in the form of tables.

Chapter five: Recommendations and Conclusions

In this chapter, critical questions regarding job satisfaction of educators will be addressed. Conclusions will be drawn from the analysis of data. Broad recommendations regarding the enhancement of job satisfaction amongst teachers will be made. Furthermore, recommendations will be made to bridge the gap, if necessary, between job satisfaction of teachers in a Government school and Ex-Model C schools .The success of the theoretical model will be evaluated or appraised based on the results of the research findings.

1.10 Summary

This chapter has clearly introduced the topic. Critical questions to be answered, as well as the aims of the study have been clearly indicated. The main areas to be studied or researched are the job satisfaction of teachers in the two types of schools and the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence the job satisfaction of teachers. Very few, if any studies of this nature have been undertaken in South Africa. However, several job satisfaction studies of teachers have been conducted in other countries. The next chapter will review the respective theories on individual needs and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SATISFATION OF INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Good human relations can only be established if the needs of an individual are satisfied and his or her will to work is stimulated. This presents the difficulty that management is dealing with a group of individuals, all of whom may respond differently in a given situation.

However, it is possible to generalize on the average response evoked in certain situations, and in the context of human relations in industry, it is possible to arrive at some general conclusions about man's attitude to work and the hopes, fears and aspirations he has regarding it.

The extent to which these hopes and desires are fulfilled in the work situation or working environment naturally governs the degree of job satisfaction derived by the worker. The extent to which the personal job satisfaction is achieved is the measure by which each worker will apply his/her abilities and will to work.

To provide job satisfaction must, therefore, be the ultimate aim for those who organize and control workers. Furthermore, to achieve this aim, it is necessary to provide motivation of the right type to all in the organization.

Overall, measures of satisfaction do not, therefore always reveal anything interesting. It is more important to look at particular aspects of satisfaction or dissatisfaction to decide whether or not anything needs to be done. The application of motivational theories, and greater understanding of dimensions of job satisfaction and work performance, have lead to increasing interest in job design. The nature of the work organisation and the design of jobs can have a significant effect on the job satisfaction of staff and on the level of organisational performance.

2.2 THEORIES OF NEED, MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION

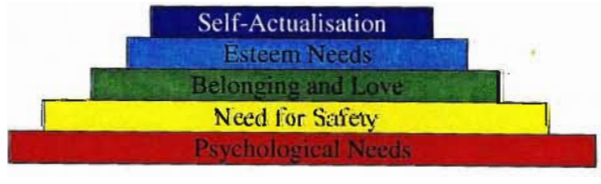
There are many theories regarding need, motivation and satisfaction of employees. Some believe that only one motivational theory is enough to develop productive employees. Others may claim that no technique works because employees are born either achievers or loafers. Undoubtedly, no single theory will address all motivational problems; however, something can be learned from each theory.

2.2.1 MOTIVATION AND NEED SATISFACTION BY MASLOW

According to the late Abraham H. Maslow, a former president of the American Psychological Department of Brandeis University, " motivation comes from within the individual and cannot be imposed upon him; that although it is directed at external goals, motivation is always an internal process " (Walters, 1975; p. 28).

Maslow has viewed humankind as perpetually wanting beings who are continually striving to find ways to satisfy their needs. A person is motivated to reach a particular goal because he or she has an internally generated need to reach it. When a need occurs, motivational tension develops and is directed towards satisfaction of the felt need. The intensity of the effort is a function of how strong the need is. Needs, are however, not static. "Once a need is satisfied it can no longer serve as a motivator of behavior" (Walters, 1975; p. 28). Other needs then become foremost and behavior is directed towards their satisfaction. Maslow identified five basic sets of needs which he arranged into a hierarchy. These needs are ranked from the most basic survival level to self actualisation, the apogee of human existence.

Figure 2.1: MASLOWS NEED THEORY



From the figure above, it is clear that the five sets of needs and their order are as follows:

❖ **Physiological Needs or Physical Needs**

The physiological needs are the primary needs. They include food, warmth, shelter, clothing, water, sleep, sexual fulfillment, and an almost endless list of other bodily requirements (Walters, 1975 ; p. 28). These needs can be directly satisfied by compensation. Employees who are adequately paid can provide for their basic needs. Furthermore, to satisfy these needs of employees, employers can furnish their employees with a pleasant and comfortable environment, make provision for ample leisure and a " "comfortable" salary (Carrell et al., 1998; 106).

❖ **Safety Needs**

After the physiological needs are gratified, the safety needs emerge. Satisfaction of these requires actual physical safety as well as a sense of being safe from both physical and emotional harm (Walters, 1975; 29).

Many employees most important security need is job security. Other security factors include increases in salary and benefits. Human Resource practices that satisfy these needs can be the following: adhering to protective rules and regulations, minimising risk-taking requirements, providing strong directive leadership and following chain of command policy, providing well-defined job descriptions, minimising negative stroking and threatening behaviour, providing information about the firm's financial status and projections, and providing "just" compensation and supportive fringe benefits (Carrell et al., 1998; 106).

❖ **Need for belongingness and love or Social needs**

Once the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the first social needs emerge, that is, the need for belongingness and love. At this stage, the individual is motivated towards securing his or her place in a particular group and towards the development of close emotional relationships with others, including the giving and receiving of love (Walters, 1975; 29).

At this level, employees desire social relationships inside and outside the organisation. Peer group acceptance within the workforce is often an important psychological need for employees. Managers can fulfil social needs by: encouraging the team concept, systematically using organisation-wide feedback survey, using task groups to execute projects, providing for firm and/or office business and social meetings, providing close personal leadership, encouraging professional-group participation, encouraging community-group participation, and compensating on the basis of total team performance (Carrell et al., 1998; 106).

❖ **Need for esteem**

These include the need for self-respect or self-esteem and a high evaluation of oneself; and also for the respect or esteem of others. Firmly based self – esteem is soundly based upon real capacity, achievement and respect from others. Needs for esteem may be classified into two subsets. First, there is a need or desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for independence and freedom, and for a personal sense of confidence in one's competence in dealing with the world. Second, there is a desire for reputation or prestige, that is, respect or esteem from other people. The individual wants his competence recognised and appreciated by others (Walters, 1975; 29).

Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self–confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. However, thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness. These feelings may give rise to basic discouragement or neurotic trends (Victor, Vroom & Edward , 1982; p 32).

Once employees have formed friendships within the organisation and feel a part of the peer group, the need for self-esteem takes precedence. Organisational factors like job title, status items within the organisation such as office size, office location or parking spaces, and level of responsibility become important to the employee. To provide for self-esteem needs managers should: include employees in goal-setting and decision-making processes, provide opportunities to display skills and talents, provide recognition of advancement- for example, publicise promotions, provide recognition symbols- for

example, name on stationery, assign associates and support staff for coaching and development, provide personal secretary to associates, use positive-reinforcement programs, institute mentor systems, and compensate as recognition of growth (Carrell et al., 1998; 106).

❖ **Need for self–actualisation**

When all other needs are satisfied, the final and highest one to emerge is the need for self - actualisation. As Maslow maintained: " What a man can be, he must be" (Walters 1975; 29). Self–actualisation is not so much a state or a stage of being, like hunger, to be satisfied by periodic gratification. Rather, it is a process of being, in which one strives to become all that one is capable of becoming.

According to Maslow, the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs are all deficit needs, whereas the self–actualisation need is a growth need. The first four needs are termed deficit because they emerge as a result of the lack of food, safety, love or esteem. But, the self–actualisation person, freed from deficit needs, is engaged in the process of realising his capabilities, and of experimenting with his concept of self. Each person is unique and must seek his or her own way to fulfillment. It is therefore, an entirely internal process and gratification of the need. The sense of fulfillment comes about through the experience of doing things that fulfil one's potential. Self–actualisation is a growth need because it is a self–perpetuating, ongoing process. Each new development of the self produces an exploration for further development (Walters, 1975; 29–30).

At this level, employees seek a fulfilling, useful life in the organisation and in society. Employees seek challenging and creative jobs to achieve self-actualisation. Maslow contends that individuals will climb the ladder of need fulfillment until they have become self-actualised. If any need is not fulfilled, the individual will continually strive to fill that need, that is, the need becomes a motivational factor. At any level, needs may be fulfilled outside the organisation as well as within the organisation. To fulfil this need within the organisation, managers should provide for participation in goal-setting and decision-making processes, provide opportunity and support for career-development plan, provide staff job rotation to broaden experience and exposure, offer optimum innovative and

risk-taking opportunities, encourage direct-access communication to clients, customers, suppliers,etc., provide challenging internal and external professional development opportunities, provide supportive leadership that encourages a high degree of self-control, and compensate as reward for exceptional performance (Carrell et al., 1998; 106).

2.2.1.1 EVALUATION OF MASLOW'S THEORY

Maslow did not believe that a need had to be a hundred percent satisfied before the next higher need would emerge. Rather he assumed that most people are both partially satisfied and dissatisfied in all their basic needs simultaneously. In average people, the lower order needs are more likely to be satisfied, while higher order needs emerge gradually.

However, if the ability to gratify a lower-need were threatened, it would exert its prepotency as a motivator and the person would, temporarily at least, forego seeking higher order gratification until the lower order need has been satisfied.

According to Maslow, his theory was applicable to all human beings since they had the capacity to move up the motivational hierarchy. He views man as a "perpetually wanting animal" because even a person at the top of the hierarchy continues to strive for self-actualisation. To Maslow, this "striving " was a sign of emotional maturity. However, he also believed in the existence of people who never grow beyond certain levels, who become fixated at a lower level-than–possible level because of their inability to feel emotionally secure about their gratification of their deficit need. Such fixation, he classified as neurotic (Walters, 1975; 30).

2.2.2 THE NEED FOR EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC REWARDS BY McGREGOR

Douglas McGregor classified rewards and punishments into two types : extrinsic and intrinsic. The former are those that derive from various aspects of the environment, while the latter inhere in the activity in which a person's engaged. Relating Maslow to McGregor it is seen that physiological and safety needs (potentially gratifiable by wages

and fringe benefits and a feeling of security in one's earning capacity), the need for belonging (potentially gratifiable by cohesive workgroup and supportive management), and the need for esteem (potentially gratifiable by various forms of recognition) , all lead to behaviour motivated towards external rewards. But, the need for self-actualisation is motivated by intrinsic and internal rewards. This requires a task that will challenge the particular capabilities and imagination of a given person, a job through which each person can realise his or her potential (Walters, 1975 ; 30-31}.

2.2.3 THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT BY McCLELLAND

According to David McClelland of Harvard University, the need for achievement is manifested once a person's physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation needs are met. McClelland elucidates the following traits as characteristic of a person, who has a high need to achieve:

- He has a liking for situations in which he can take personal responsibility for finding the solutions to problems. These are situations in which the outcome is primarily dependent upon his abilities and efforts rather than on a "throw of the dice" or factors over which he has no control.

- He has a tendency to set moderate goals for achieving and a preference for taking "calculated risks". He knows if he takes on problems that are moderately difficult (for him), he is likely to get the achievement satisfaction he seeks. He will get little or no satisfaction from taking on an easy task at which his success is ensured or an extremely difficult task in which he will most likely fail.

- He has a strong need to know how well he is performing in a given task and therefore prefers situations in which prompt, accurate and concrete feedback is available. He has a compelling need to know whether his decisions and actions are right or wrong and prefers praise appraisals to one's in which he is vaguely told that he "is doing all right".

- ❖ He is likely to choose experts rather than friends when he needs help in accomplishing a task. Considering his need for achievement, he is unlikely to allow personal likes or dislikes to stand in his way of his achieving a goal.

McClelland's research indicates that the achievement itself is of greater importance to the person with a higher need for achievemet than the money he may take away from the situation - which supports McGgregor's concept of intrinsic rewards and Maslow's definition of self-actualisation as being an internal process.

It can therefore be concluded that a person with a high need for achievement must have a job situation that requires and rewards personal initiative and inventiveness. Otherwise, to extrapolate from Maslow's theory, the achievement needer will seek to actualise himself outside the work environment and may even leave it entirely (Walters, 1975 ; 31-32).

2.2.4 HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION AND HYGIENE.

One of the most interesting and controversial theories is Frederick Herzberg's concept of motivator-hygiene factors. Whereas Maslow applied the hierarchy of needs theory to motivation in general, Herzberg applied his specifically to the workplace and job design. After asking a large number of accountants and engineers about their feelings towards their jobs, Herzberg noticed that respondents identified different things as sources of work dissatisfaction – subsequently called **hygiene** – than they did as sources of satisfaction – which he called **motivators**. Herzberg concluded that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not simple opposites. The following figure illustrates his model.

Figure 2.2: THEORETICAL MODEL - BY HERZBERG

DISSATISFIERS (HYGIENE FACTORS)	SATISFIERS (MOTIVATORS)
Salary	Responsibility
Company Policy	Work Itself
Supervision	Recognition
Working Conditions	Achievement
Interpersonal Relations	Advancement
Mainly Extrinsic	**Mainly Intrinsic**

Poor working conditions resulted in dissatisfaction, yet ideal working conditions did not necessarily lead to satisfaction or motivation. Herzberg referred to the factors that prevented dissatisfaction as **hygiene factors**. Hygiene factors like company policy, supervision, salary, working conditions and interpersonal relations reflect the context of the job. They are external to the employee and to the job. For this reason they can be thought of as extrinsic conditions. In other words, they are factors that are essentially controlled by someone other than the employee. Herzberg contends that hygiene factors are difficult to control effectively, and more important, they do not provide long-run motivation. But they are necessary for preventing dissatisfaction, and their absence keeps the employee from concentrating on higher-level needs. Hygiene factors are necessary to avoid unpleasantness at work and deny unfair treatment. Management should never deny people proper treatment at work. Hygiene factors may include attendance rules, holiday schedules, grievance and performance appraisal procedures, noise levels, customer and co-worker relations and hourly wages. Examples of extrinsic rewards are money issues like a raise, a bonus or stocks; awards like plaques, pins, cups, certificates or jackets; trips; time off from work; and social parties or lunches (Carrell et al., 1998; 107).

To motivate workers to give off their best, proper attention must be given to a different set of factors, the **motivators**. These factors are intrinsic in nature. They reflect the content of the job. No superior dispenses them to employees; instead, each employee controls and administers them personally. No one can give another person the satisfaction that comes from accomplishing a particularly challenging job. These factors serve to motivate the individual to superior effort and performance. Achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and the work itself are called 'motivators'. These factors are

characteristics that people find intrinsically rewarding. The strength of these factors will affect feelings of satisfaction. The motivators relate to what people are allowed to do at work. They are the variables which actually motivate people.

Examples of intrinsic rewards include improved self-esteem, increased sense of purpose, higher credibility and a feeling of accomplishment. According to Herzberg, the following factors increase job satisfaction and staff motivation to perform: achievement, recognition for accomplishment, challenging work, increased responsibility, growth and development. Each of these factors is described below, together with ways supervisors can enhance these factors in their units.

Achievement is a sense of accomplishment or successful closure of a task or activity. Supervisors can enhance their employees sense of achievement by encouraging them to set professional goals, gradually increasing complexity of assignments so that workers are challenged and experience success in more difficult situations.

Recognition is the acknowledgement of an individual's or group's efforts, accomplishments, or contributions. One may ask: "Which is more important, the recognition or the reward?" The recognition behind the reward is more important. Workers like to be recognised and appreciated for what they do. It makes them feel valuable, important, and part of a team....something bigger than themselves. Supervisors can recognise staff efforts and accomplishments by highlighting worker efforts and contributions at unit meetings, celebrating client success and the worker's contributing efforts, letting an employee know verbally and/or in writing that his or her work is appreciated, giving awards, certificates or commendations for specific accomplishments and contributions, encouraging community service providers to put praise in writing for placement in workers' personal files, with a copy forwarded to upper-level administrators, giving a genuinely positive performance evaluation, encouraging staff to apply for promotion, allowing staff to attend specialised training programs and conferences, holding award dinners or lunches, and holding staff retreats. When employees are recognised for their efforts and acomplishments, they experience positive

feelings about themselves and their professional competence, which creates an increased sense of self – worth.

Challenging work is necessary for work to be satisfying. It is important for supervisors to identify with their staff the tasks or activities they find challenging. The following are examples of challenging tasks: specialised activities, public speaking, participating on a multidisciplinary team, or co–ordinating a new project.

When employees are given **responsibility** and accountability for their work, their job satisfaction increases. Strategies for enhancing responsibility and accountability include: gradually increasing staff autonomy in activities and decision making as employees gain expertise, giving employees the freedom to be creative, identifying the decisions that workers can make alone and the decisions that they can be involved in making, requesting that a particular worker be in charge when the supervisor is away, or asking an experienced worker to model scientific aspects of the job for a new employee.

Personal and professional **growth and development** is significant to every employee. When opportunities for growth and development are limited, then motivation wanes. Some strategies to encourage growth and development include encouraging workers to attend local, state, regional and national training programs and conferences, followed by presentations at meetings about what they learned, encouraging or advocating educational or special training leave for staff, maintaining and updating a unit library and encouraging staff to read books and articles relevant to the job, keeping staff informed on current research and issues as well as new techniques and advances in their job, assigning tasks to workers that are challenging to their growth and that promote their professional development, and encouraging creativity and innovation among staff.

2.2.4.1 EVALUATION OF HERZBERG'S MODEL

Regardless of some criticisms, Herzberg's theory has been widely read, and most managers are familiar with his recommendations. It is partly because the theory fits in well with the highly respected ideas of Maslow and McGregor in its emphasis on the positive value of the intrinsic motivating factors. The case for using job design

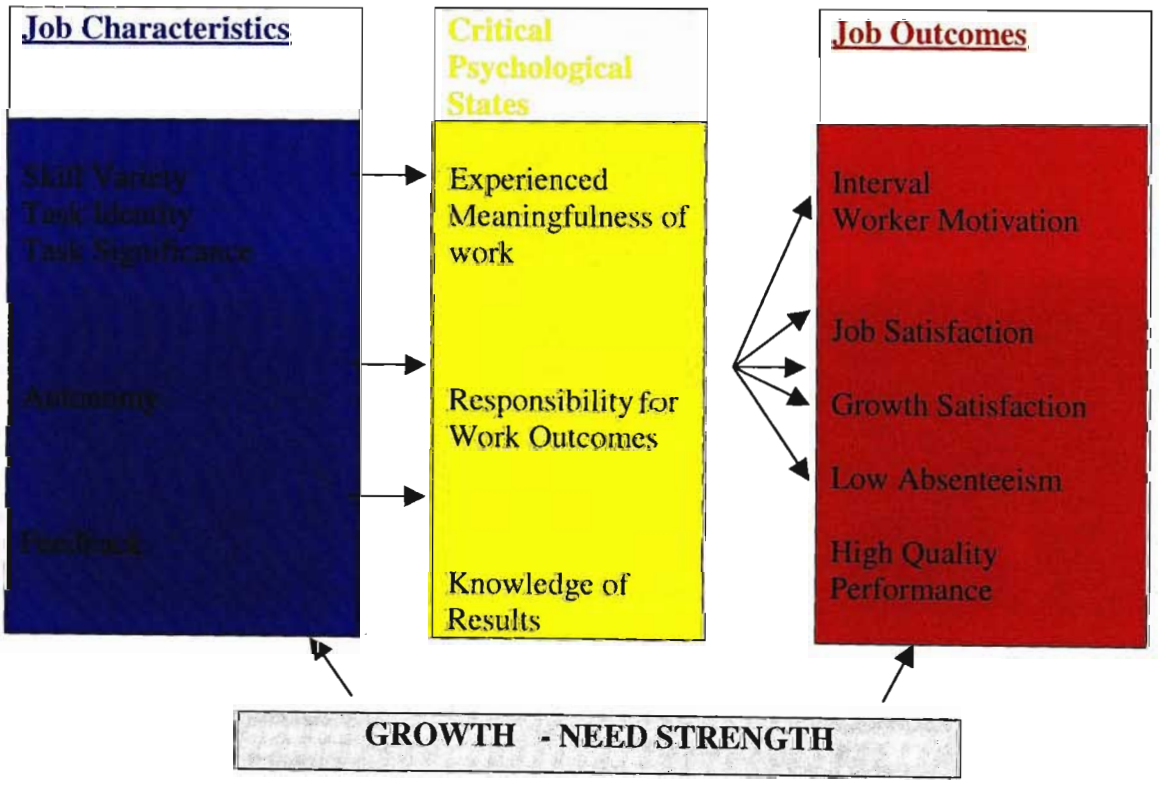
techniques is based on the premise that effective performance and real satisfaction in work follow mainly from the intrinsic content of the job. This is related to the fundamental concept that people are motivated when they are provided with the means to achieve their goals. Work provides the means to earn money, which as an extrinsic reward satisfies basic needs and is instrumental in providing ways of satisfying higher level needs. But work also provides intrinsic rewards which are under the direct control of the worker (Carrell, 1998; 107-108).

2.2.5 JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL (JCM) BY HACKMAN AND OLDHAM.

During the past decade, the JCM of work motivation (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; 1980) has been a dominant theoretical framework for understanding an employee's reaction to the core dimensions of the job. However, this model and associated research has not been without criticisms.

The following figure is an illustration of the model.

Figure 2.3: HACKMAN AND OLDHAM'S MODEL



The JCM posits that a high level of internal (that is, self – generated) motivation is dependent on the presence of three critical psychological states, namely, experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results.

Although of lesser importance, other work related outcomes influenced by the psychological states include overall job satisfaction and growth satisfaction (that is: satisfaction with opportunities for self – enhancement).

The development of each of the psychological states is fostered by one or more core characteristics of the job.

It is proposed that experienced meaningfulness arises from the compensatory relationship among skill variety, task identity, and task significance.

Autonomy and job feedback are the antecedents of experienced responsibility and knowledge of results, respectively.

Following Hackman and Lawler (1971), Hackman and Oldham (1976;1980) stipulate that it is perceptions of the core job characteristics that are directly antecedent to the critical psychological states, rather than the objective job properties. However, convergence between the objective properties of the job and perception of those properties is expected because the objective properties are specified as influencing one's perception of job dimension.

Finally, the most recent version of JCM (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) postulates that individuals' reactions to job characteristics and to psychological states are moderated by the strength of their needs for personal growth and accomplishment at work, and satisfaction with certain contextual aspects of their work environment (namely: pay, job security, co- worker, and supervision).

2.2.5.1 SUMMARY OF THE MODEL

The **core job dimensions** of the model are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The **critical psychological states experienced include** experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for outcomes and

knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. Included in the **personal and work outcomes** are high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high satisfaction with the work and low absenteeism and turnover.

2.2.5.2 EVALUATION OF HACKMAN AND OLDHAM'S MODEL

Hackman and Oldham tested their model on 658 employees in 62 jobs in 7 organisations. Their model was generally supported. Exceptions were that results were weak for the feedback dimension, and the link between autonomy and experienced responsibility did not operate as specified. The job dimensions have practical implications for the redesign of jobs. The limitations of the model are as follows:

- The model does not address interpersonal, technical or situational moderators of how people react to their work. This may be problematic because Oldham found that interpersonal relationships was a critical moderator between job characteristics and internal motivation.

- The model applies only to jobs that are carried out independently, and cannot be directly used to design work to be conducted by teams, although it may be of some use (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

2.2.6 ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

Closely related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs is C.P. Alderfer's ERG theory (existence, relatedness and growth), especially in terms of the needs included. Differences do exist, however. Alderfer proposes that when one need is frustrated, we simply concentrate on the others. For instance, if the way a task is designed deprives deprives the worker of all forms of casual conversation, then that worker may tend to want more money. Thus, the theory does seem to offer a plausible explanation for what may seem like greedy pay demands or petty demands for change in working practices (Carrell et al., 1998; 105).

2.2.7 GOAL SETTING

Research has shown that job performance can increase through goal setting – when individuals are given measurable goals rather than vague performance standards. Another

conclusion is that when individuals are given specific goals that they perceive to be difficult but reasonable, the result will be higher performance. The best known expression of goal setting theory is **management by objectives (MBO).**

Basically, goal- setting strategies involve a systematic process whereby the manager and subordinate discuss and agree on a set of jointly determined goals. With proper preparation, each party should be able to present a case for or against each goal. If the process is functioning effectively, the final result will be a set of goals that is in keeping with the overall goals of the organisation. In addition, the manager will have something concrete on which to gauge the subordinate's performance. Feedback on progress is periodically supplied, enabling the worker to make necessary corrections. Foremost, the link between performance and rewards is made explicitly clear to the subordinate, with emphasis on what was achieved rather than on how it was accomplished or how hard the subordinate tried to meet the goals (Carrell et al., 105-107).

2.2.8 POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT

The concept of positive reinforcement is central to most motivation techniques. It is the practice of giving values and rewards to someone who has just engaged in a desired behaviour.

The technique is based on the law of effect, which means that behaviour that leads to a pleasant response will be repeated, whereas behaviour that results in an unpleasant response will not be repeated. Reinforcement is at the heart of merit increases. In order for reinforcement to continue to affect employees' future behaviour, a manager must make certain that rewards are meaningful and desired by each employee. Since each employee's needs are different, the manager must tailor the reward, whether it be recognition, pay or changing job requirements, to fit the employee. In addition, thr manager must be sure that employees realise that rewards are contingent on correct behaviour (Carrell et al., 1998; 107).

2.3 THE CORRELATES OF JOB SATISFACTION

A concise review of the correlates of job satisfaction is presented.

2.3.1 Job and Life Satisfaction

In an interpretation of job satisfaction, the general emotional tone of employees is of crucial importance. Some employees, for example, may be very satisfied with their family and community life, but they think that their jobs are average. In this instance, their job satisfaction is relatively low because it is below their other satisfactions. Other employees may be loaded with home and community dissatisfaction but they also feel that their jobs are average. In this instance, their job satisfaction is relatively high. In order to relate general emotional tone specifically to job satisfaction, some organisations may survey both job and life satisfaction so that the two conditions may be compared. This is known as the spillover effect, meaning that one spills over to the other (Iris and Barrett, 1972; 301).

2.3.2 Job Satisfaction and Occupational Level

Studies of occupational groups have revealed a consistent relationship between occupational level and job satisfaction. The higher the level of an occupation, the greater the job satisfaction, according to Vroom (1964), Korman (1977) and Davis (1977), who have reviewed numerous studies.

The positive correlation between higher level work and higher job satisfaction also applies internationally. Workers in Soviet Russia the United States, Germany, Italy, Sweden, and Norway all report higher job satisfaction in the higher occupations (Inkeles, 1960; 6).

Blauner (1960; 341) reviewed a number of work satisfaction studies and found that professionals and businessmen claimed relatively high levels of satisfaction; that clerical workers claimed higher levels than manual workers; whilst skilled manual workers appeared more satisfied than unskilled workers or assembly line workers. Watson (1980; 132) notes that these accounts fall into a pattern closely relating to a class hierarchy – itself a patterning of the way those resources most valued in society at large are distributed.

Porter (1962; 375) found that the vertical location of management is an important factor in determining the extent to which managers feel that they can satisfy particular psychological needs. In general, those in lower management positions were more dissatisfied than managers in top level positions. Bass and Barrett (1972; 76), assert that increased satisfaction with each succeeding level in the organization is not surprising since a number of other satisfaction related job factors are implied by high levels, including responsibility, money , prestige, rate, control , and more intrinsically rewarding work.

Korman (1977 ; 233) attributes the positive correlation between occupation level and job satisfaction in part to reference group theory that, overall , society values some jobs more than others. Hence, people in valued jobs will like them more than those who are in non valued jobs.

2.3.3 Job Satisfaction and Age

Bass and Barrett (1972; 89) note that job satisfaction tends to increase with age. Hetzberg and his associates cited in Bass and Barrett (1972) contend that his relationship is not a linear one. Cross sectional investigations shows that job satisfaction is highest when an individual first begins a job; it declines during the following years and remains at a relatively low level when the employees are in their late twenties and early thirties. From that point on, satisfaction with the job begins to rise at least up to the pre-retirement age of approximately sixty.

2.3.4 Job Satisfaction and educational level

After reviewing numerous studies Korman (1977; 226) reported that with occupational level held constant, there is a negative relationship between the educational level of the individual and his job satisfaction.

2.4 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

An overview of the different theoretical approaches towards the study of job satisfaction is presented, in order that the theoretical implications of the results emanating from the present investigation be later discussed.

2.4.1 The Occupatinal Level Theory

Coldwell (1977; 24) reviewed Darley and Hagenah's occupational level theory. Darley and Hagenah maintain that below a certain level in the occupational hierarchy, a job is basically a means for rudimentary subsistence and is not intrinsically interesting, challenging or satisfying. Above this level, survival and subsistence needs are met and the job may become intrinsically satisfying. Once one level of needs have been satisfied, the organism then seeks the satisfaction of another element. This theory therefore applies specifically to the work situation.

Darley and Hagenah classified three specific factors as job content, that is, intrinsic satisfaction elements : interesting work, use of one's ability, and working independently at challenging tasks (with the internal feelings of accomplishment and involvement in work). Four factors are classified as job context or extrinsic satisfaction elements: economic and security aspects of work, a chance to get ahead and the need for recognition as a person.

Darley and Hagenah contend that it is the occupational level that dictates which of these factors is more salient with regard to job satisfaction. At the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy the job context factors will be more important whereas at the higher levels it will be the job content factors that have priority.

Thus, to teachers who are professionals the following job content factors would be of greater importance because of the higher status nature of their jobs: interesting work, use of one's ability, and working independently at challenging tasks

Claus Offe (1976; 71) raises objections to the occupational level theory of job satisfaction. He argues that it is not really a sociological model at all, for it rests on the

psychologistic assumption that people in all social strata have the same fixed needs and that the extent to which these needs are satisfied at work depends purely upon the rank of the job within the organisation's hierarchy.

Need theories have also been criticized because none of their basic elements have been empirically tested (Wabha and Birdwell 1973, cited in Wiendieck, 1979; 234).

2.4.2 The Theory of "Cognitive Dissonance"

Festinger (1957), cited in Vroom (1964; 85) and Wiendieck (1979; 245), developed a theory of "cognitive dissonance" which has been used by industrial psychologists to explain job satisfaction. Hey argue that an individual's cognitive system will make he individual satisfied with a job, by making the individual appreciate the favourable aspects of the job as opposed to the unattractive aspects of an alternative. Initially, the individual will experience dissonance between the favourable aspects of the alternative and the unfavourable aspects of his job. However, the individuals cognitive system is extra – ordinarily flexible and capable of restoring balance and hence satisfaction.

Wiendieck (1979; 24) correctly argues that this theory neglects the normative and social structural factors which are vital in an understanding of job satisfaction, and pushes the problem into the narrow framework of individual cognitions with its "self – cure" tendency.

2.4.3 Social Reference Group Theory of Job Satisfaction

Korman (1977; 218) summarises this theory as follows:

"Job satisfaction is a function of, or is positively related to, the degree to which the characteristics of the job meet the approval and the desires of the groups to which the individual looks for guidance in evaluating the world and defining social reality".

Blood and Hulin (1967; 284) and Form and Geschwender (1962; 228) have shown that socially and economically deprived people can, despite their underprivileged life situation, show an astonishingly high degree of job satisfaction.. The probable reason for this is that such people seem not to evaluate their situation in terms of middle class

aspirations, as many have assumed they do, or even in terms of their own needs and desires but seem to compare their own lot with that of their peers and neighbours who are equally deprived. In relation to this reference group, they may be relatively well off and hence relatively satisfied.

Korman (1977; 218) criticizes this theory for being an incomplete explanation, since only some people go along with group opinions and group evaluation of organisational phenomena whereas many people are independent of these pressures. Korman assumes that it is only people with low self-esteem who are strongly influenced by the social normative evaluations of their reference group, whereas people with high self esteem are more concerned with their own need fulfillment. Korman (1977; 220) also argues that human behaviour is a complex, multiple caused activity, and there is little reason to think that a phenomenon as important as job satisfaction would be a function of just one set of factors.

2.5 THE DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

It is the task of the teacher as specialist to teach and to educate. The measure to which teachers experience fulfillment in their vocation in an accepted environment will, to a significant extent, determine their attitude and conduct. The principal cannot afford to disregard the expectations of the teachers, as there are too many benefits to be derived from a satisfied staff. It is the duty of the principal to create a working environment conducive to education and teaching. A question which may well be posed is which factors in a working environment will motivate teachers to teach effectively.

Organizational climate describes the interaction between the organization (the school) and the people (the teachers). It delineates the atmosphere that reigns in a school and the influence it has on the performance of the teachers. Organizational climate is therefore one of the integral factors that determine the quality of teaching in a school. Staff development programs in which the developmental needs of the staff have been recognized, should be carefully structured so as to enable teachers to render optimum service. Teachers experience job satisfaction when they are given responsibility in

accordance with the demands of their profession. Career development also promotes job satisfaction as it prevents a teacher's career from stagnating.

The principal is indisputably the person who determines the organizational climate of a school. He should actively promote an open climate. Principals should ensure that their teachers stay abreast of the latest developments in their field. The principal must facilitate job satisfaction and promote the career of each teacher in a meaningful way. A positive organizational climate eases the burden of a principal as it motivates teachers to perform their educational task effectively. It should also enable teachers to attain their own goals. To this end, the principal should promote the development of the teacher as educator as well as assist him in building a career.

An investigation into the level of job satisfaction experienced by teachers necessitates an indication of the most important determinants of job satisfaction. This is imperative if an adequate method of data collection is to be developed. A survey of relevant literature is undertaken in order to establish this.

2.5.1 FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH TEACHER SATISFACTION.

As is the case with all white - collar positions, both **intrinsic and extrinsic factors** affect a teacher's satisfaction.

For teachers, **intrinsic** satisfaction can come from classroom activities. Daily interactions with students inform teachers' feelings about whether or not students have learned something as a result of their teaching. Student characteristics and perceptions of teacher control over the classroom environment are also intrinsic factors affecting teacher satisfaction (Lee, Dedrick, and Smith, 1991). Several studies have found that these factors are related to both attrition and satisfaction in teaching, as well as other professions (Boe and Gilford., 1992; Lee et al., 1991). Advocates of professional autonomy claim that conferring professional autonomy "... will enhance the attractiveness of the [teaching] profession as a career choice and will improve the quality of classroom teaching and practice" (Boe and Gilford, 1992;36).

Intrinsic factors may play a role in motivating individuals to enter the teaching profession, since most teachers enter the profession because they enjoy teaching and want to work with young people. Very few teachers enter the profession because of external rewards such as salary, benefits or prestige (Choy, et al., 1993; 126). However, while intrinsic factors may motivate people to become teachers, extrinsic conditions can influence their satisfaction in this position and their desire to remain in teaching throughout their career.

A variety of **extrinsic** factors have been associated with teacher satisfaction, including salary, perceived support from administrators, school safety, and availability of school resources, among others (Bobbitt et al., 1994; Choy et al., 1993). These and other characteristics of a teacher's work environment have been targeted by public commissions, researches and educators who claim that "poor working conditions have demoralized the teaching profession" (Choy, et al., 1993; 137). These groups (that is, public commissions, researches and educator) believe that when teachers perceive a lack of support for their work, they are not motivated to do their best in the classroom, and that when teachers are not satisfied with their working conditions, they are more likely to change schools or leave the profession altogether.

2.5.2 WORK RELATED REWARDS

There have been many studies conducted that have examined the importance of work related rewards as determinants of work satisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) proposed two basic classes of work rewards:

- Intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, and advancement; and
- Extrinsic factors such as pay, working conditions, and job security.

Work satisfaction is defined as the level and direction of an emotional state, or affective orientation, resulting from the appraisal of one's work and work experience and, in part, is a function of the individual's work rewards (Kallenberg, 1977; Locke, 1976; Ronen, 1978).Most theorists have argued that the overall level of work satisfaction is determined by some combination of the various facets of work rewards such as satisfaction with

salary, co-workers, and supervisors. They have agreed that a two-factor model appears to explain the general trends reflected in the data (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Dyer & Parker, 1976).

Motazz and Potts (1986) found the perceived reward model to be the most appropriate procedure for predicting overall work satisfaction. The model consists of five extrinsic rewards: supervisors, co-workers, working conditions, salary and promotional opportunities.

General working conditions were defined as the extent to which there were adequate resources to support teaching and addressed physical facilities, equipment, workload and work hours. The second reward, **supervision**, was defined as the degree to which supervisors were perceived as supportive and helpful to teachers and included such traits as competence, fairness and friendliness. **Co-workers**, the third reward, were defined by the degree to which colleagues were perceived as being supportive and helpful and included such traits as competence, helpfulness and friendliness. The fourth reward, **promotion**, was defined as the extent to which the job provided opportunity for advancement and included both opportunity and fairness. **Salary**, the fifth reward, was defined as the extent to which teachers believed their salary to be comparable to other teachers performing a similar function and included amount, fairness, and adequacy.

In addition, the model consisted of three intrinsic rewards: Task Autonomy, Task Significance, and Task Involvement. **Task autonomy** was defined as the degree of self-direction in task performance or teaching. **Task significance** was defined as the degree to which the task was perceived as a significant contribution to the work process or teaching. **Task involvement** was defined as the degree to which the task was considered interesting and rewarding in itself. Akroyd et al. (1992), found that selected intrinsic and extrinsic rewards were predictive of teachers' work satisfaction. Task involvement, an intrinsic reward, contributed more to teachers' perceptions of their work satisfaction than the extrinsic rewards of general working conditions and salary, but all three were significant in determining work satisfaction.

2.5.3 THE WORK ENVIRONMENT, JOB CONTENT AND WORKLOAD ISSUES

Burack and Smith (1977; 104) maintain that work itself is one of the basic elements in building an individual's sense of satisfaction. People must feel that they are using valuable skills and that their work requires them to apply these to different challenging situations.

Parker (1971; 43), stated that job satisfaction could be determined by factors such as opportunities to create something, use skill and work wholeheartedly. Dissatisfactions are likely to involve formulations which simply oppose these but Parker also usefully locates specific factors such as doing repetitive work, making only a small part of something, and doing useless tasks.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959; 113), in their investigation on job satisfaction of accountants and engineers found that stories told about good periods most frequently concerned the content of the job. Achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and the work itself were the most frequently coded themes in such stories. On the other hand, conversations concerned with bad periods, most frequently concerned the context of the jobs. Company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions more frequently appear in these stories.

Herzberg and his associates attributed these findings to the fact that the favourable job-content factors such as achievement, and the work itself tend to produce satisfaction, but their absence does not produce dissatisfaction.

The findings of Walker and Guest (1952; 76), concerning assembly line workers in an automobile plant are diametrically opposed to those obtained by Herzberg and his associates. They found job content, particularly the paced repetitive nature of the work to be the chief factor reported as disliked about jobs. On the other hand, the economic factors of pay and security (both job context characteristics) were the principal liked features. Increasing evidence exists that physical health, as well, is adversely affected by

repetitive and dehumanising environment, for example, paced assembly lines (Cooper and Marshall, 1978; 81).

Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960; 153) and Vroom (1064; 126), explain that obtained differences (by Herzberg) between stated sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction stem from defensive processes within the individual respondent. Persons may be more likely to attribute the causes of satisfaction to their own achievements and accomplishments on the job. On the other hand, they may be more likely to attribute their dissatisfaction, not to personal inadequacies or deficiencies, but to factors in the work environment, that is, obstacles presented by company policies or supervision. Therefore, Herzberg's "critical incident technique" of data collection is at fault.

Walker and Guest (1952; 76) found that the degree to which employees in an automobile assembly plant expressed interest in their jobs was related to the number of operations which they carried out. Only 33 percent of workers performing a single operation reported their jobs as very or fairly interesting. On the other hand, 44 percent of those performing two to five operations and 69 percent of those performing more than five operations reported their work as very or fairly interesting.

French and Caplan (1973; 30) have differentiated work overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative overload. Quantitative refers to having "too much to do," while qualitative means work that is "too difficult". After summarizing research done on work overload, French and Caplan concluded that both qualitative and quantitative overload produce at least nine different symptoms of psychological and physical strain, with job dissatisfaction being listed foremost on the list.

According to a "Teacher Follow-up" survey conducted by Summer and Whitener et al., (1994-1995), it was the work environment itself that ultimately proved unbearable to teachers, and the pressures connected to standardized testing were a prominent feature of that work environment. The following is a sample of comments from those teachers who have left the profession:

- " With every year, I was required to teach more curriculum based on testing."

- " All my creative talents seemed to go by the wayside due to the SAT-9 drill and kill they wanted me to do."
- "I do not mind standards, but too much emphasis is placed on testing. It has taken the fun out of it, and you feel like you do not have time for art, PE, music, etc."
- "I thought I would be able to use the many lessons I had developed, but because of increased accountability, I have had to use state- and district-mandated materials."

Workload issues associated with low job satisfaction of teachers include increased paperwork and additional non-teaching demands. A study by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, cited in the 1962 Life article, found that "nearly one-fifth of a teacher's day - and his energy and ingenuity – is spent at jobs which could be performed by non-professionals or by automated devices." It is suspected that a replication of that study today would find that the percentage has grown to much more than one – fifth.

Doune Macdonald (1995), found that some schools cope with teacher shortage by increasing class size, lengthening working hours, or introducing double shifts. According to Hargreaves (1994), it is impossible to overestimate the degree of job intensification that has taken place in teaching over the past years, as society asks its schools to take on more responsibilities, including many that used to be considered the responsibiliy of parents and many that are actually clerical in nature.

Ozga (1995; 21-38), maintains that job intensification does not involve additional tasks that require the exercise of professional judgement. Quite the contrary: there is almost nothing that a classroom teacher can decide for him or herself anymore, except perhaps the teaching chart and what learning activities to use. Site- based management, a popular reform movement of the early 1990s, sought to give teachers a greater role in decision making at their schools. Where it still exists, it may give the illusion of increased freedom and responsibility while actually contributing to teachers' feelings of frustration by promising more than it delivers. State standards and high-stakes tests dictate the curriculum- what is to be taught- regardless of what any given group of learners may

actually need to learn and despite the professional judgement of the teacher. When so much of what goes on at school is mandated from afar (often by non-educators, who know as much about the teaching/learning process as educators do about DNA super-coiling), there is a real risk that the nation's teaching force will be de-skilled, reduced to technicians who need only carry out the plans that others have made. It's questionable whether this is really what thoughtful Americans want in their public schools.

In her survey, "Deskilling a Profession", Jenny Ozga (1995) received the following responses:

- "I had no idea that I'd be told what to teach. Many days I don't even feel I am really teaching. I have to adhere to strict standards, which take the fun out of learning. This is sad for my students, who need the 'fun.' "
- "So much paperwork! I have 187 students and work ten hours a day, six days a week."
- "Every couple of years there is a change in paperwork requirements. We keep adding to our load of paperwork, but it seems that little is taken away. I wonder if it is all benefiting the students."
- "My district has adopted Open Court and other scripted programs that are tedious for the students as well as for me."
- "There is a strong emphasis on scoring high on the SAT 9; learning is coincidental. Workbooks, excessive paperwork and documentation, and other assessments leave little time for actual teaching."

The cumulative impact of such pressures is eroding the profession by robbing teachers of the basic satisfaction of the work. Teachers are not the only ones to suffer. The nation as a whole is being robbed of a high- quality work force for its schools when so many teachers are beginning to think about leaving the profession (Rotberg, 2001; 170-171).

Another response to the survey was as follows: " I would give up teaching because 34 learners in a room is too many, because I spend hours after school and on weekends grading papers and preparing lesson plans, because I spend too many hours in wasted

meetings. My family is neglected because of the at-home hours I have to spend working on school related activities" (Rotberg, 2001; 170-171).

Americans who do not work at schools might assume that that is just what teachers do, and to some extent it is true that conscientious teachers have always put in more than an average 40 – hour week. This, they have done willingly. What's different now is that the nature of the work has changed. It's not difficult to spend extra time preparing lessons that you know will benefit your students, that will capture their interest and increase their enthusiasm for learning. However, it is quite another matter to put in endless extra hours on tasks that actually detract from the students' learning experience.

In some schools, teachers are asked to allocate time to administer – and follow up on – 11 different assessments in the course of the year. It's no wonder that teachers now complain that there is less and less time for actual teaching. Also, whatever time remains is necessarily fragmented and erratic, as bells ring, PA systems interrupt, and clusters of students are pulled out of their classes for various reasons (Hong , 2001; 712-714).

Ironically, with less time to spend on introducing new material and reinforcing the learning of material already covered, these teachers are also expected to meet the stringent demands of the state curriculum standards. In such a pressure cooker, teacher morale is bound to suffer, and an increasing number of veteran teachers are announcing their departure from the profession (Seymour, 2001; A – 1).

To add insult to injury, the profession is notoriously "flat." The teacher does almost the same thing after ten or twenty years that he or she did in the first five. Macdonald's review of the literature on teacher attrition revealed clearly that teachers are "looking for more steps and pathways on career ladders, with increasing and differentiated responsibilities, and having those steps spread across an entire career, from recruitment to retirement " (Macdonald, 1999; 845).

The lack of anything resembling a genuine career ladder contributes to the feeling of many teachers that they are trapped in a career that has become not only joyless but also futureless. Teachers want to be in a decision- making position. They want to see the larger picture. They want to progress into different roles and new challenges and many feel that this kind of advancement is lacking in teaching.

According to Schein (1978, 1990), challenge anchored individuals will not give up the opportunity to work on solutions to seemingly unsolvable problems, to win out over tough opponents, or to overcome difficult obstacles. To them, the only meaningful reason for pursuing a job or career is that it permits them to win out over the impossible. Novelty, variety and difficulty become ends in themselves, and if something is easy, it becomes immediately boring. Success for them involves constant opportunities for self-test.

Challenge-anchored educators would be congruent in an environment with challenging tasks that stimulate continuous improvement in performance. The teaching career is well known for the challenges embedded to mold the future generation. In Singapore, the numerous challenges include a greater workload implementing various new teaching initiatives, disciplining unruly students, responding to demanding parents, and dealing with the conflicting demands of work and family commitments. (Wong, 1988). Hence, the more dominant the challenge anchor, the higher would be educators' intrinsic satisfaction and the lower would be their turnover intentions.

In Schein's (1978, 1990) theory, individuals with an entrepreneurial creativity anchor will not give up the opportunity to create an enterprise or a product of their own, based on their own abilities and willingness to take risks and overcome obstacles. Delong (1982) maintains that very few people he has studied fit this anchor.

2.5.4 SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

There exists some disagreement with regard to the importance of immediate supervision in worker satisfaction. Putnam (1930; 314), in discussing the results of the program of

interviewing in the Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Company contends that the relationship between first line supervisors and individual workmen is of more importance in determining the attitude, morale, general happiness and efficiency of that employee than any other single factor.

On the basis of their study of accountants and engineers, however, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959; 113), suggest that the importance of supervision has been over-rated.

Quantitative evidence concerning the importance of supervision is inconclusive. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) cited in Vroom (1964), have compiled data from fifteen studies in which workers were asked what made them satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. Supervision was mentioned as a source of satisfaction more frequently than security, job content, company and management, working conditions, and opportunity for advancement and wages. The only aspect of the job mentioned more frequently was relationship with co-workers. However, supervision appears fourth in the same list of job factors when they are ordered in terms of the frequency with which they are mentioned as sources of dissatisfaction. It may be concluded that supervision is an important variable determining both the levels of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of the worker.

Burack and Smith (1977; 104) see supervision received as an important determinant of job satisfaction since people need to feel comfortable with the guidance, recognition and equity in the evaluation they receive.

Experiments demonstrate that the satisfaction of group members with the leadership they receive are affected to a large extent by attributes of the person providing the leadership (Vroom, 1964; 107). Much of the research on supervision has been based on the assumption that supervisors can be characterized in terms of the degree to which they are considerate of the desires of their subordinates

Halpin and Winer (1957; 42), identified two major independent dimensions of leader behaviour, namely, Consideration and Initiating Structure. Consideration includes supervisory behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth, while Initiating Structure includes behaviour in which the supervisor organizes and defines group activities and his relation to the group.

Seeman (1957; 86), reported a positive relationship between the consideration of school superintendents and the job satisfaction of elementary school teachers. Fleishman, Harris and Burtt (1955), cited in Vroom (1964; 110) found a positive relationship between the consideration of foreman and the morale of their subordinates. Fleishman and Harris (1962), cited in Vroom (1964; 112) found that in general, low consideration and high structure were found to go with high grievances and turnover. It may be concluded from these findings that consideration of subordinates on the part of a supervisor results in a high level of satisfaction which in turn is reflected in relatively low turnover rates, grievances and absences.

Vroom (1964; 115) states that attempts by influential supervisors to help their subordinates achieve their goals , will usually succeed and will result in higher employee satisfaction, whereas similar attempts by non-influential supervisors are less likely to succeed and to affect satisfaction. In a hierarchical organisation, the degree to which a supervisor satisfies the needs of his subordinates may be dependent not only on the supervisory methods and practices which he uses but also on the amount of his power in the larger organisation.

From the above discussion it becomes evident that supervision and administrative support must be regarded as an important determinant of job satisfaction.

In a survey of 114 teachers conducted by Tye and O'Brian (2002), it was found that lack of administrative support was significantly ranked by those who had left the profession and by those who were still teaching. The following were some problems experienced with administrators:

- ❖ The administration did not support the teachers when they experienced problems.
- ❖ Administrators were more willing to listen to and support a small percentage of parents who lacked respect for teachers instead of the larger proportion who thought that the teachers were performing well.
- ❖ All that the administrators wanted was a "lack of waves."

Tension between teachers and their administrators was also a concern in the 1962 Life magazine survey. At that time, however, it was not a matter of the principals' not supporting teachers in the face of criticism. Instead, the concern was that principals were interfering with teachers' curriculum decisions. Some principals were measuring classroom success in ways that encouraged overextended teachers to shortchange their pupils. While the Life story did not explain what those measures of classroom success actually were, today's teachers would probably connect this comment from 1962 to their recent experiences with administrative pressure to devote more and more classroom time to test preparation (Tye and O'Brian, 2002; 7).

2.5.5 CO-WORKERS OR THE WORK GROUP

Bryant (1972; 366) states that one's co-workers, that is, fellow workers who have different specialties, and one's colleagues, that is, fellow workers who pursue similar occupational specialties, are not selected by choice; rather, they are more likely to be selected by necessity as dictated by the needs of the work situation itself. Although an individual may take up work with his fellow workers as strangers; in time the close daily association of working with them may result in the development of a strong social bond. The shared stimulation or monotony of work frequently makes for a "conscientiousness of kind" and generates an occupational group awareness on the part of those involved. For some, the lack of meaning in monotonous and unstimulating work may be offset only by the fact that interaction with other persons at the workplace may be rewarding. Informal work groups perform several functions, one of the more significant of which is to provide the individual with meaningful personal gratifications. The work group often becomes, along with the family, one of the more significant social entities of which the individual is a member.

There exists data suggesting that workers' satisfaction with their jobs is related to their opportunities for interaction with others on the job. On the basis of interviews with workers in an automobile plant, Walker and Guest (1952; 76) state that isolated workers disliked their jobs and gave social isolation as the principle reason. Richard and Dobryns (1957), cited in Vroom (1964; 121), found that the morale of a group of workers in an insurance company was greatly lowered by an environmental change which restricted their opportunity for social interaction.

Du Brin (1978; 161) reported that when the opportunity for interaction with other workers decreases, job satisfaction suffers.

Group membership has the mental health advantage of reducing tension for many people. The emotional support provided by the group helps one control tension. A study conducted by Seashore (1954; 1) showed that tension and anxiety were least pronounced in highly cohesive work groups. Watson (1980; 132) maintains that social satisfaction can be gained from working within an integrated group.

A major reason people join groups and retain their membership is that groups satisfy several important psychological needs. Among these are needs for affiliation, security, esteem and self-fulfillment. Satisfaction of security needs is possible because of the emotional support provided by group membership. Particularly when a person is establishing himself or herself in the world of work, the group offers a source of help. It is more comfortable for people to consult peers rather than a supervisor about minor work related problems.

Esteem needs are satisfied in two important ways by group membership. Firstly, co-workers often provide positive feedback when the individual does something correctly or accomplishes something. The work group also adds to a worker's professional or technical development by providing the worker with a chance to communicate about job

related skills. Need satisfaction enters the picture, because improving one's skills and knowledge leads to self-fulfillment.

Zaleznik, Christensen and Roethlisberger (1959) predicted that the individual's satisfaction varies in relation to the degree of reward from management and from the group . They found, however, that workers who were being rewarded by the group were highly satisfied, regardless of their reward by management.

Thus, it is evident from the early beginnings of Mayo's works (1945; 111), when he states that: " man's desire to be continually associated in work with his fellows is a strong if not the strongest, human characteristic, " right up to the present day, the work group is of fundamental importance in determining an individual's level of job satisfaction.

Alienation appears to be widespread among teachers in America. Defining alienation as a combination of feelings of isolation, normlessness, powerlessness and meaninglessness, Alan Shoho and Nancy Martin (1999; 27-33) found high alienation among all teachers, regardless of whether they had been trained traditionally or in more innovative, alternative programs. This finding suggests that it is not how a teacher has been prepared but the school environment that he or she encounters that contains the alienating forces - a conclusion that confirms the findings of other studies that all kinds of teachers feel alienated at school.

According to LeCompte and Dworkin (1991; 116), it makes sense to seek "systematic causes" of alienation. They go on to observe that classroom teachers are especially prone to locating the problem within themselves. Firstly, because in their preparation programs they are not usually taught to recognise how the system works and, secondly, because in the course of a typical work week they do not have time to talk to one another and to see that others feel much the same way that they do. If they do discuss their feelings with one another, they seldom acknowledge the larger, systematic causes of their dwindling job satisfaction.

2.5.6 COMPENSATION

Burack and Smith (1977; 104) regard compensation as an important determinant of job satisfaction, not only in terms of pay but also in terms of what it signals in status or promotion.

Satisfaction stemming from the receipt of wages is dependent not on the absolute amount of the wages, but rather on the relationship between that amount and some standard of comparison used by the individual. The standard may be an adaptation level (Helson, 1947; 1) derived from wages received at previous times or a conception of the amount of wages received by other people.

According to Patchen (1960), cited in Vroom (1964; 151), if one person compared himself with another person who was earning more but who was similar in his standing on dimensions related to pay, the comparison would be dissonant and would be expected to lead to dissatisfaction on the part of the comparer. Similarly, if he compared himself to someone who was earning the same but who was inferior in standing on dimensions related to pay, the comparison would also be objectively dissonant and accompanied by dissatisfaction. However, if a person compared himself to someone who was earning more and who was superior on dimensions related to pay, or to someone who was earning the same and was similar on dimensions related to pay, it would be objectively consonant and would be expected to result in satisfaction.

Social norms and comparisons are important in determining job satisfaction, not only with regard to wages, but with regard to all the determinants of job satisfaction. If others, especially people that a worker respects, see his job as a good one – or one with which the worker should be satisfied, then the worker is more likely to be satisfied. However, if all the worker's friends have more challenging jobs than he has, he will be more dissatisfied than if all his friends shared his predicament (Strauss and Sayles, 1980; 2).

Included in the category of compensation are such items as medical aid schemes, pension schemes, bonuses, accident insurance, paid leave and travel allowance. All of these items

together with wages and promotion opportunities undoubtedly contribute to a person's overall job satisfaction.

Teacher compensation at its most fundamental level refers to the entire package a person may receive in the form of money, benefits and other fundamental rewards (Belcher & Atchinson, 1987). Nevertheless, teacher compensation has always seemed to be a policy target for education incentives, either consciously or unconsciously (Odden, 1995). Many American policymakers and practitioners at the local, state and federal level would like to pay new teachers differently (that is, in a way that provides incentives for improving practice as well as student performance), (Odden & Kelly, 1997). However, teacher compensation has basically remained constant for many decades. In many school districts across America, teachers are paid according to a single salary schedule that provides salary increases for education units, degrees and years of teaching experience. Disregarding dissatisfaction with actual dollar amounts, teachers in most cases, see themselves as being treated fairly by this compensation structure (Odden, 1995).

As a result, any teacher or administrator must acknowledge the fact that there are school sites where morale is high, educators are working diligently, children are learning, and the compensation package is not meeting the financial needs of the teachers on staff. According to English (1992), an open-minded inquiry would not only ask: "How can the pay structure in schools be changed to recognize and reward those qualities?" but equally, "Why do people accept or reject employment in the teaching field solely based on the compensation system offered to them?"

According to the research report by the American Federation of Teachers (1998), compensation is a critical factor as to whether a potential candidate accepts a teaching position. Furthermore, the report states that many potential candidates are now choosing other fields besides teaching because of the better paying opportunities. Human resources personnel across the United States are struggling to design compensation systems or improve existing compensation systems to keep these potential candidates from pursuing careers with much greater financial incentives. With a void in the research literature on

this topic, human resources personnel have a limited research body in which to design effective compensation systems to influence teachers' job acceptance decisions. As a result, many compensation packages have been designed around the United States without understanding the critical decision-making process that a potential teaching candidate makes before accepting a teaching position (Recruiting New Teachers, 2000).

According to reports in the American Federation of Teachers (1998), it is evident that teachers get paid far less than other professionals (McQueen, 2000). According to McQueen (2000), "The teaching profession isn't even in the horse race when it comes to pay with the major fields of science and engineering."

Compensation packages are extremely important to prospective teachers. Goodlad (1984) reported that the majority of teachers did not enter the profession for money, but for the intrinsic satisfaction of working with children. However, when teachers decided not to enter the profession, they indicated that low pay was the main reason for not accepting a teaching position. In a literature review on salary and behaviour, Ferris and Winkler (1986), found that higher beginning salary levels influenced more able individuals into teaching and that higher salaries reduced teacher turnover rates.

Research shows that while having a positive impact on student achievement appears to be the primary motivator of teachers, salaries also play an important role (Winston, 1994). Teacher behaviour is strongly affected by salary levels, including the decision to enter the profession, the decision to remain in a school district (versus. moving to another district with higher salaries) and the decision to remain in or leave the teaching profession (Conley & Levinson, 1993).

As many states move towards performance- based standards for teacher preparation and licensure, some policymakers and a handful of districts have begun to link teacher compensation to student performance. The most common reward for teachers for the development of advanced skills and competencies is through salary incentives to National

Board for Professional Teaching Standards certification. In many schools, teachers receive bonuses or salary increases for attaining National Board certification (Stevenson, 1998).

Some states have rewarded teachers based on overall student performance in schools rather than in individual classrooms in an attempt to foster collegial environment in schools and guard against bias in issuing rewards.

According to the National Conference of State Legislatures (2000), many states do not have programs that provide compensation to teachers based on student performance or other indicators of demonstrated skills and knowledge. Also, many state statutes require school districts to adopt a salary schedule based on the teacher's education, prior experience, and experience in the district. Although these requirements do not preclude districts from adopting performance-based criteria, it at least ensures that education level and years of experience will be part of any pay calculations.

Security – anchored individuals will not give up employment security or tenure in a job or organization (Schein, 1978, 1990). Their main concern is to achieve success so they can relax. They show concern for financial security (such as pension and retirement plans) or employment security. Such stability may involve trading their loyalty and willingness to do whatever the employer wants from them for some promise of job tenure.

According to Schein (1990), security-anchored employees are more concerned about the context of their job (such as improved pay, working conditions, and benefits) than the content of their job. Job challenge, job enrichment and other intrinsic motivations matter less to them. Because job satisfaction depends more on whether one receives what one values, security-anchored educators should be more satisfied with a teaching career where the compensation package is lucrative. Therefore, the more dominant the security anchor, the higher would be the educators' extrinsic satisfaction and the lower would be their turnover intentions.

2.5.7 INFLUENCE IN DECISION MAKING AND AUTONOMY

There is considerable evidence that the satisfaction of subordinates is positively related to the degree to which they are permitted an opportunity to participate in making decisions (Vroom, 1964; 115). In an investigation in an automobile manufacturing plant, reviewed by Vroom (1964; 115), Jacobson (1951) related the attitudes of workers towards their Foreman and shop stewards to the reports of the extent to which they were involved in decision making by occupants of each of these roles. As predicted, there was a positive relationship between the amount of participation in decision making and their attitudes towards both foreman and shop stewards.

Vroom (1959), cited in Vroom (1964; 118), obtained evidence suggesting that the effects of participation in decision making on satisfaction depend on the personality of the participant. In a field study of supervisors, he found that the relationship between psychological participation and job satisfaction varied with the strength of the need for independence and the degree of authoritarianism of the participant. Amount of participation was most positively related to the satisfaction and performance of persons high in need for independence and low in authoritarianism and least positively related to the satisfaction and performance of those low in need for independence and high on authoritarianism.

According to Parker (1971; 43), using initiative and having responsibility is an important factor underlying job satisfaction. This involves a feeling of freedom to make decisions and a certain independence of authority. Parker also maintains that to some extent, the satisfaction derived from a job having these characteristics is a matter of personality and upbringing. Someone who has been raised and educated in a tradition of conformity and subservience to authority may not wish to use his initiative or have responsibility in his job. However, it seems that most people value the opportunity to think and act in their work as responsible and autonomous individuals. Therefore, influence in decision making must be regarded as a determinant of an individual's work satisfaction.

Schein (1978, 1990) theorized that individuals with an autonomy anchor will not give up the opportunity to define their work in their own way and will seek work situations in which they will be maximally free of organizational constraints. They want to remain in jobs that allow them flexibility regarding when and how they work. Chapman and Hutcheson (1982), found that those with the need for greater autonomy would leave teaching, a finding that is in sharp contrast to the popular belief that teachers have substantial autonomy to run their classrooms (Ho, 1986). Similarly, a local study on factors contributing to high teacher motivation and morale in Singapore, found that some teachers have cited a lack of sufficient autonomy in their teaching career as a source of low motivation (Mosbergen, 1987).

The Ministry of Education in Singapore also recognized teachers' needs for greater autonomy. Independent schools and autonomous schools were set up in the 1990s for this purpose. For some government schools and government-supported schools, the Ministery implemented a "school cluster" project in 1997. This was a pilot project to give principals and teachers greater freedom to decide on educational strategies, the deployment of teachers, and the allocation of resources (Ministery of Education, 1998, January 24). It was concluded that the dominance of autonomy anchors is negatively correlated with educators' intrinsic job satisfaction and positively correlated with turnover intentions.

2.5.8 STUDENT ATTITUDES

Students who are uninterested in learning are a formidable challenge and perhaps the greatest disappointment of all for teachers. According to (Cain, 2001; 702 – 705), in his study of American teachers, he found that there are many reasons why students act out or tune out. They are either malnourished, tired or emotionally upset from lack of care. Students simply refuse to put in the hard work involved in studying. In a classroom containing even just a handful of such students, teachers often find themselves devoting more time and energy to classroom management than to actual teaching.

2.5.9 PARENTAL SUPPORT

The satisfaction of teachers increase when they have parental support. They are also less likely to have been threatened by students. However, it is frustrating for teachers when there is a lack of support from parents. In the 1962 Life article, a Chicago teacher said that the parents indulged their children, let them talk back, then came to school to complain that they themselves could not handle their children. Yet these parents expected the teachers to discipline their children.. It does however, seem to have gotten worse in the forty years since then. Teachers get very frustrated when they have classrooms with many undisciplined students, and there is no parental and administrative support. Teaching is the last thing that goes on in these classrooms.

According to Tye and O'Brien (2002), who conducted a survey of American teachers, it was found that many parents actually take an adversarial position, making life very difficult and unpleasant for teachers. Some of the responses they received from teachers were :

- "Students have no responsibility or accountability, and it appears that many parents are the same – rather than help and support educators, they want to sue or threaten."
- "I did not expect parents and the community to be so quick to criticise."
- "Dealing with discipline problems is bad enough, but it is nothing compared to the demands and harassment some parents inflict, and the ruthless measures they will use to gain what they desire."

2.5.10 STATUS OF THE PROFESSION

American teachers rank their low professional status higher than their concerns about administrators, students and parents. They can still be hurt by the knowledge that their friends and neighbours think that what they have chosen to do is not very important. Some of these teachers feel that teaching is an impossible job to get done and that they are not treated respectfully by anyone and would therefore not recommend this profession to anybody.

The ambivalent attitudes of Americans towards those who choose to be teachers are deeply rooted. According to Tye (2000), they may even be part of the deep structure of schooling. A Harvard University report cited by Meryman in the 1962 article in Life, equated low pay with low respect, noting that low pay reinforces "society's impressions of a lowly group, not quite first-class and deserving of no better than the hand-me-downs of our civilization." American teachers are very unhappy because the most important problem in education is to get everybody to recognise that teaching is really one of the most important occupations in the country.

2.5.11 PERSONAL VARIABLES

Strauss and Sayles (1980; 2) discuss the following personal variables which determine job satisfaction:

❖ **Expectations**

If a person expects his job to be challenging (or well-paying) and it is not, then he will be dissatisfied. However, if a worker expects his job to be dull (or low-paying) and it turns out that way, his frustration may be minimal.

Patchen's (1960) study, reviewed by Vroom (1964; 153), in a Canadian oil refinery demonstrated a higher frequency of absence among persons who felt that they deserved to have been promoted compared with those who stated that they did not feel that way at all.

❖ **Self Evaluation**

If a worker regards himself as being generally satisfied (or as one who can cope well), he will be unwilling to admit that the job can get him down. If a worker has a generally sunny disposition this may be reflected in his attitude towards his job.

❖ **Input – Output Relation**

A worker's satisfaction with his job depends on how he perceives the relationship between what he puts into the job (input) and what he gets out of it (output). A hard

worker (high input) who fails to finish what he sought to accomplish (output), will be less satisfied than if he put in a half-hearted effort.

❖ **Commitment**

A worker who selects one job from a range of opportunities, makes a free commitment to it. He will therefore be reluctant to admit that his job is not rewarding as it would be tantamount to conceding that his ability to make a sound choice is defective.The worker's sense of commitment (and resulting satisfaction) maybe be particularly strong as his decision is well known among his friends.

❖ **Priming**

If there is a great deal of talk about pay in a work group, the workers belonging to that group are likely to think pay important. If management publisises its job enrichment programs, workers are likely to think that important – and to be disgruntled when the program fails to live up to its billing.

❖ **Lifestyle**

Schein (1978, 1990) theorized that lifestyle-anchored individuals will not give up a situation that would permit them to balance and integrate their personal needs, family needs and the requirements of their careers. In addition, lifestyle anchored employees respond well to company schemes such as part-time work, sabbaticals, paternity or maternity leave, day care and flexible hours. To them, success is defined more broadly than just career success, and their identity is more tied up with how they live their total lives. Therefore, a working environment tied up congruent with lifestyle-anchored educators must enable them to balance their family, career, and self-development concerns.

As there is a perennial shortage of teachers in Singapore and the administrative workload of teachers is high, teachers' work is very demanding and often emotionally draining. A good teacher often has difficulty drawing a clear line between his or her own life and that of the students ("Balance the rosy view," 1998, September 13). A teacher's work does

not last only half a day, as it often involves many other tasks besides teaching. According to a survey by the Singapore Teachers' Union conducted among one hundred and fifty schools, about 25 percent of schools extended the working hours of teachers beyond a reasonable limit (Singapore Teachers Union Biennial Report, 1993-1995).

With the implementation of the National Education Program and Information Technology Masterplan in 1997, teachers in Singapore expected more responsibilities. According to the value hypothesis by Lambert (1991): since lifestyle-anchored educators value a balanced lifestyle, they are posited to be lower in extrinsic satisfaction when there is a lack of extrinsic features such as flexible working hours or sabbaticals to enable them to live a balanced lifestyle. In a study conducted on Canadian teachers, King and Peart (1992) found that workload and time demands were the largest contributors to stress for teachers. Consequently, the incongruent time demands of a teaching career with lifestyle anchors would be expected to contribute to lower extrinsic satisfaction and higher turnover intentions.

❖ **Advancement**

Schein (1978, 1990) maintained that manager-anchored individuals would strive to climb to a high level in the organisation to enable themselves to integrate the efforts of others and be responsible for organisational output. These individuals desire the power and achievement of top positions.

During 2000, there were three hundred and seventy seven schools (of all levels) in Singapore. Theoretically, there could only be a limited number of managerial positions for educators to strive for. Only three percent of all educators could get into these positions. Hence, the scarce advancement opportunities available for educators would be incongruent with their high expectations of the extrinsic rewards they hoped to derive from a teaching career. Thus, the more dominant the manager-anchor, the lower would be the educators' extrinsic satisfaction and the higher would be educators' turnover intentions.

2.5.12 MORALE

Morale has been thought of variously as a feeling, a state of mind, a mental attitude, and an emotional attitude (Mendal, 1987).

One source defines morale as the feeling a worker has about his job based on how the worker perceives himself in the organization and the extent to which the organization is viewed as meeting the worker's own needs and expectations (Washington and Watson, 1976).

Another author conceptualizes morale as "the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays towards the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation" (Bentley and Rempel, 1980).

When a healthy school environment exists and teacher morale is high, teachers feel good about one another and, at the same time feel a sense of accomplishment from their jobs (Hoy and Miskel, 1987).

2.5.12.1 SOME FACTORS THAT AFFECT TEACHER MORALE

As noted above, a healthy school environment and high teacher morale tend to be related. A principal's ability to create a positive school climate and culture can affect teacher morale. According to Adams (1992), principals who control many of the contingencies in the work environment and are the source of much reinforcement for teaching behaviour, are the keys to improving the morale and self-esteem of teachers.

A report on job satisfaction among American teachers identified more administrative support and leadership, good student behaviour, a positive school atmosphere, and techer autonomy as working conditions associated with higher teacher satisfaction. (National Centre for Education Statistics, 1997). Favorable workplace conditions were positively related to job satisfaction. Regardless of whether a teacher was employed by a public or private school, an elementary or secondary school, and regardless of the teacher's

background characteristics or school demographics (National Centre for Education Statistics).

The study also found that teachers in any school setting who receive a great deal of parental support are more satisfied than teachers who do not. A weak relationship was found between teacher satisfaction and salary and benefits. (National Centre for Education Statistics).

Teachers' perceptions of students and student learning can also affect their morale. In a cross-cultural study of teacher enthusiasm and discouragement that included teachers from the United States and six other nations, teachers clearly identified students as the primary and central factor that has an impact on both their professional enthusiasm and discouragement. Teachers almost universally treasure student responsiveness and enthusiasm as a vital factor in their own enthusiasm, and conversely, list low motivation in students as a discourager (Stenlund, 1995; 145-161).

Because of their relative isolation from other adults, teachers have little opportunity to share their successes with colleagues and administrators. This results in greater reliance on student responsiveness for teachers' professional satisfaction (Goodwin, 1987).

Stress also affects morale. It can result in emotional and physical fatigue and a reduction in work motivation, involvement and satisfaction (Stenlund, 1995; 145-161). Feeling overly stressed can result in erosion of one's idealism, sense of purpose and enthusiasm.

2.5.12.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF TEACHER MORALE

Miller (1981; 483-486) notes that teacher morale can have a positive effect on pupil attitudes and learning. Raising teacher morale level not only makes teaching more pleasant for teachers, but also learning more pleasant for the students. This creates an environment more conducive to learning.

Morale and achievement are also related. Ellenberg (1972; 76) found that where morale was high, schools showed an increase in student achievement. Conversely, low levels of satisfaction and morale can lead to decreased teacher productivity and burnout, which is associated with a loss of concern for, and detachment from the people with whom one works, decreased quality of teaching, depression, greater use of sick leave, efforts to leave the profession, and a cynical and dehumanized perception of students (Mendel citing Holt, 1980).

In short, the morale of teachers can have far-reaching implications for student learning, the health of the organization, and the health of the teacher (Mendel, 1980).

2.6 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Mowday, Porter , and Steers (1982; 219-229) offered a definition of organizational commitment which has three components:

- A strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values.
- A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.
- A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

Research on organizational commitment has been examined primarily in relation to turnover (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Hom et al., 1979; Huselid & day, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Steers, 1977; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1080). Other research has established a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981) and organizational commitment and job performance (Meyer et al, 1989; 152-156). Individuals who are committed to the organization are less likely to leave their jobs than those who are uncommitted (Porter et al., 1974; 603-609). Individuals who are committed to the organization tend to perform at a higher level and also tend to stay with the organization, thus decreasing turnover and increasing organizational effectiveness

Porter et al. (1976; 87-98) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover. Using a fifteen month longitudinal design with a sample of

managerial trainees in a large merchandising company, they found that trainees who voluntarily left the company during the initial fifteen month employment period had begun to show a definite decline in commitment prior to termination.

Shaw and Reyes (1992; 295-303) examined elementary and high school teachers' organizational commitment and workplace value orientation. The value orientation included two underlying value systems. The normative orientation emphasized the cultural values of the organization. Schools with a normative value orientation stress shared behaviour norms developed through common group experiences, and are less reliant on formal written policy and pay and time schedules. The utilitarian orientation emphasized the materialistic aspects of organizational control. Schools with a utilitarian value orientation stress scheduling and written policies to regulate teacher work load, teaching and extra duty assignments. The authors found that elementary school teachers had significantly higher levels of normative orientation and organizational commitment than high school teachers.

In his study, Reyes (1990; 20) found that in those organizations holding a stronger normative orientation, employees are more satisfied with their jobs and are more committed to the organization than employees in organizations holding a stronger utilitarian orientation.

Schein (1978, 1990) theorized that committed workers are service-anchored individuals who will not give up the opportunity to pursue work that achieves something of value. Such individuals are dedicated to serve other people and to make the world a better place in which to live and work. They pursue such opportunities even if it means a change of employment, and they do not accept transfers or promotions that would take them away from work that fulfils those values. These dedicated employees want recognition from professional peers and superiors for their contribution, often above monetary rewards (Schein, 1990).

A teaching career would be congruent with service anchors because the essence of teaching is to mold the lives of younger generations. Therefore, it can be assumed that the more dominant the service anchor, the higher would be educators' intrinsic satisfaction and the lower would be educators' turnover intentions.

2.7 CONCLUSION

From the discussions in this chapter it can be concluded that the highlights of teacher job satisfaction are as follows:

- Administrative support and leadership, student behaviour and school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy are working conditions associated with teacher satisfaction; the more favourable the working conditions, the higher the satisfaction scores were.

- Private school teachers tend to be more satisfied than public school teachers and elementary school teachers tend to be more satisfied than secondary school teachers, but this relationship is not nearly as strong as the finding that teachers in any school setting who receive a great deal of parental support are more satisfied than teachers who do not.

- In public schools, younger and less experienced teachers have higher levels of satisfaction than older and more experienced teachers. In private schools the relationship is bipolar - - the youngest and oldest teachers had the highest levels of job satisfaction as did the least and most experienced teachers.

- Although certain background variables, such as a teacher's age and years of experience, are related to teacher satisfaction, they are not nearly as significant in explaining the different levels of satisfaction as are the workplace condition factors, such as administrative support, parental involvement, and teacher control over classroom procedures.

- Teachers with greater autonomy show higher levels of satisfaction than teachers who feel they have less autonomy. Administrative support , student behaviour, and feelings of control were consistently shown to be associated with teacher job satisfaction.

- Teacher satisfaction showed a weak relationship with salary and benefits.

- Workplace conditions had a positive relationship with a teacher's job satisfaction regardless of whether a teacher is in a public or private school, or an elementary or secondary school, and regardless of the teacher's background characteristics or the school demographics.

- The most satisfied secondary school teachers felt they had more parental support and were less likely to have been threatened by students than the least satisfied secondary school teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The methodology approach adopted in this research is a quantitative approach in that statistical analyses are performed on results obtained from respondents and conclusions are drawn from this quantitative information. The decision to follow this approach has implications for the choice of method of data collection, data analysis and inference (Mouton & Marais, 1990; 20). The approach adopted in a specific research project is influenced by certain factors. Mouton & Marais (1990; 20-25) make use of a systems theoretical model to integrate and explain the interaction of three subsystems with each other and the research domain in a specific discipline. These subsystems are the intellectual climate of a specific discipline, the market of intellectual resources within a discipline, and the research process itself (Mouton & Marais, 1990; 20).

The **intellectual climate** refers to the meta-theoretical values or beliefs held by those practicing within a specific discipline at a given time. Due to the nature of social science disciplines, these beliefs, values and assumptions relate generally to the nature of social reality, and more specifically to issues such as society, labour, education history, etc. Such beliefs and assumptions constituting the intellectual climate within which research is undertaken can clearly influence the approach adopted in research as well as the research process used (Mouton & Marais, 1990; 20-21).

The **market of intellectual resources** is another subsystem which interacts with the research domain. The market of intellectual resources is defined as the theoretical and methodological beliefs which influence the epistemic status of scientific statements. Theoretical beliefs describe and interpret human behaviour and include testable statements, while methodological beliefs concern the nature of social science and include traditions such as positivism, realism and phenomenology (Mouton & Marais, 1990; 21-22).

The third subsystem is the **research process**. Through the research process, the researcher selectively internalises beliefs, values and assumptions as influenced by the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources. These beliefs, values and assumptions then influence the choice of research goal and research problem. The strength of the influence of the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources is demonstrated by researchers who employ a single research model throughout their careers (Mouton & Marais, 1990; 21-23).

The current study should, therefore, not be seen in isolation, but should rather be seen as a product of a particular paradigm, influenced by the intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources. The review of organisational theory provided in Chapter 2 should not be seen as absolute, but should be seen to comprise theoretical beliefs which are incorporated in the market of intellectual resources. Similarly, the method and process of this research, as well as the research design, must be seen to be influenced to a certain degree by the intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources within which this research is located.

3.2 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The applied research will be a descriptive statistical study because the hypothesis will be tested quantitatively; and generalisations will be based on the representativeness of the sample and reliability and validity of the research design and instrument.

The present study makes use of descriptive and analytical research methods in a cross-sectional study. There is no control group and all variables are measured at the same time. Quantitative information was gathered from respondents to describe and explain the current situation, and was analysed statistically in order to obtain an idea of the statistical significance of the observed information. Quantitative information obtained from the questionnaires administered to respondents was used to describe current observed levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This quantitative information was then statistically analysed in order to provide an understanding of the nature of

relationships between job satisfaction and intrinsic and extrinsic factors, and between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Descriptive and analytical research was undertaken through making use of quantitative data obtained from questionnaires. Quantitative data obtained provided information on current levels of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and on organisational commitment. Statistical analysis of data obtained was undertaken to determine the relationships between job satisfaction and organisational commitment , between job satisfaction and intrinsic rewards and between job satisfaction and extrinsic rewards.

3.3.1 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A questionnaire has been identified as the primary data collection tool and this will generate quantitative data.

3.3.2 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The Job Satisfaction Questionnaire by Hackman and Oldham was adapted to design the questionnaire used in this research. The questionnaire will consist of four parts made up of sample demographic characteristics, extrinsic work related rewards, intrinsic work related rewards and organisational commitment. The extrinsic and intrinsic work related rewards and organisational commitment will be rated on a five-point Likert-type scale: strongly agree (5), agree (4), neutral (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1). The extrinsic and intrinsic work related rewards were measured using an instrument developed by (Mottaz, 1981). Organisational commitment was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al.,(1979).

The five extrinsic work related rewards will include general working conditions, supervision, co-workers, promotion and salary. Mottaz (1985) reported the reliability of these measures as assessed by Cronbach's alpha, which yielded a reliability coefficient of

.71 for general working conditions, .82 for supervision, .82 for co-workers, .82 for promotions and .83 for salary. Mottaz (1985) evaluated the construct validity of these scales by factor analysis.

The three intrinsic factors of work related rewards involve facets associated with one's job, and include task autonomy, task significance, and task involvement. Mottaz (1985; 369) reported the reliability of these measures to be .92 for the autonomy scale, .79 for the significance scale, and .88 for the involvement scale.

For the organisational questionnaire, (Mowday et al., 1979) reported a median coefficient alpha of .90 with a range of .82 to .93 for 2563 employees in nine different public and private work organisations. Construct validity was examined through factor analyses which resulted in a single- factor solution and supported the conclusion that the items are measuring a single common underlying construct.

3.3.3 RESEARCHER CONTROL OF VARIABLES

This study consists of an ex post facto design. The researcher is only able to report the feedback that is gained through the distributed questionnaires from the teachers of the two schools. The researcher is therefore in no way able to influence the response to the factors in the questionnaire, thereby eliminating the introduction of biased response.

3.4 SAMPLING THEORY

Sampling is based on two premises. One is that there is enough similarity among the elements in a population and that a few of these elements will adequately represent the characteristics of the total population. The second premise is that while some elements in a sample underestimate a population value, others overestimate this value. The result of these tendencies is that a sample statistic such as the arithmetic mean is generally a good estimate of a population mean.

A good sample has both **accuracy** and **precision**. An accurate sample is one in which there is little or nom bias or systematic variance. A sample with adequate precision is one that has a sampling error that is within acceptable limits for the study's purpose.

A variety of sampling techniques is available, such as **probability** and **non-probability** sampling. They may be classified by their representation and element selection techniques. Probability sampling is based on random selection - a controlled procedure that ensures that each population element is given a known non-zero chance of selection. In contrast, non-probability selection is not random. When each sample element is drawn individually from the population at large, it is unrestricted sampling. Restricted sampling covers those forms of sampling in which the selection process follows more complex rules.

The simplest type of probability approach is **simple random sampling**. In this design, each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in a sample. In developing a probability sample, the researcher has to consider the relevant population, the parameters of interest, the sampling frame, the type of sample, the size of sample and the cost.

The specifications of the researcher and the nature of the population determine the size of a probability sample. Cost considerations are also often incorporated into the sample size decision.

Complex sampling is used when conditions make simple random samples impractical or uneconomical. The four major types of complex random sampling are systematic, stratified, cluster and double sampling.

Systematic sampling involves the selection of every 'k'th element in the population by beginning with a random start between elements from 1 to k. Its simplicity in certain cases is its greatest value.

Stratified sampling is based on dividing a population into sub-populations and then randomly sampling from each of these strata. This method usually results in a smaller total sample size than would a simple random design. Stratified samples may be proportionate or disproportionate.

In **cluster sampling**, the population is divided into convenient groups first and then the groups to study are randomly chosen. Its great advantage is the cost savings if the population is dispersed geographically or in time.

At times it may be more convenient or economical to collect some information by sample and use it as a basis for selecting a sub-sample for further study. This procedure is called **double sampling**.

Non-probability sampling also has some compelling practical advantages that account for its widespread use. Probability sampling is often not feasible because the population is not available. Furthermore, frequent breakdowns in the application of probability sampling discount its technical advantages. Also, a true cross section is often not the aim of the researcher. Here, the goal may be the discovery of the range or extent of conditions. Finally, non-probability sampling is usually less expensive to conduct than is probability sampling.

Convenience, purposive, judgmental, quota and **snowball sampling** are the different forms of non-probability sampling (Cooper and Schindler, 1998; 247-249).

3.4.1 PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

The sample population of this study consists of level one educators from two secondary schools, namely Apollo Secondary which is a Government school and Queensburgh Girls' High which is an ex-Model C school. The sample comprises of males and females, between the ages of 20 and 45 years, of the races Indian and White. The subjects teaching experience ranged from 0 to 25 years. Eighty percent are graduates with a teaching diploma and twenty percent have teaching diplomas only. Forty questionnaires were sent

to each school. Apollo returned 25 and all were taken as the sample. Queensburgh returned 29 of which 25 were randomly selected as the sample. Hence, 50 questionnaires were taken as the sample. This is characteristic of probability sampling where each element in the population is chosen at random and has a known non-zero chance of selection. This is also a convenience sample because selection of subjects is readily available in the form of educators from these two schools.

The following tables show clearly the profile of the sample used.

TABLE 3.1: TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN YEARS

CATEGORY LABEL	FREQUENCY	%
0 – 5	5	10
6 – 10	11	22
11 – 15	12	24
16 - 20	8	16
21 – 25	14	28
TOTAL	**50**	**100**

TABLE 3.2: ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	FREQUENCY	%
Standard 10	9	18
Degree	40	80
Studying for Degree	1	2
TOTAL	**50**	**100**

TABLE 3.3: PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION

CATEGORY LABEL	FREQUENCY	%
Post Matric Training	50	100
TOTAL	**50**	**100**

TABLE 3.4 : AGE IN YEARS

CATEGORY LABEL	FREQUENCY	%
20 – 25	3	6
26 – 30	5	10
31 – 35	13	26
36 – 40	13	26
40 – 45	16	32
TOTAL	**50**	**100**

TABLE 3.5 : GENDER

CATEGORY LABEL	FREQUENCY	%
Male	11	22
Female	39	78
TOTAL	**50**	**100**

3.5 DATA GATHERING

Principals from both the schools were asked for permission to use their level one educators as subjects of the study. The purpose of the research was highlighted. Once permission was granted, the questionnaires were given to the subjects. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the nature and purpose of the research and assuring respondents of absolute confidentiality. This was done to allay fears with regard to the purpose of the research and to encourage participation and co-operation by respondents. Participants were given two weeks to complete their questionnaires. Follow up was done via telephonic enquiries to the secretaries from the two schools. Completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher for statistical analysis.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data from the completed questionnaires would be entered into a database and analysed in order to find solutions to problems and to fulfil the objectives and hypotheses. Computers and computer programmes like SPSS make it possible and easy to edit or code and enter data, as well as for cross-classification analysis. Graphical techniques and visual representations will be used to represent the statistical data results. The researcher will edit and capture all the data immediately or daily to avoid any backlog with capturing and editing. The researcher plans to use an optical character recognition program in conjunction with a flat bed scanner. This will be adequate for a research project of this size. This will reduce data handling as well as decrease time between data collection and analysis whilst providing more useful information.

Frequency distributions and cross tabulations will be used to confirm statistical assumptions. Correlation analyses identified the Cronbach coefficient alpha for the dependent variable and each independent variable. Correlation analysis is used for comparing data to determine which correlations should be further analysed for significance levels. Cronbach's alpha is recommended for checking internal consistency of multi-item scales for internal level measurement. Cronbach's alpha was used to test the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, and commitment. The internal data from extrinsic

rewards, intrinsic rewards and commitment was further analysed using Pearson's correlation to determine their significance levels as well.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has clearly indicated the research design, sample design and data analysis. The number of questionnaires returned by the respondents provided a set of credible data because of its size. Furthermore, the sample size of fifty provided fairly substantial data to analyse and interpret. Random sampling ensured that all teachers had an equal chance of being included in the sample, irrespective of the demographics. The method used for data collection was a systematic one which achieved its purpose, that is, collecting as many questionnaires as possible.

The software technology, SPSS that was used facilitated data collection. Data was coded upon collection and SPSS helped the researcher formulate the descriptive statistics, and conduct the different tests. Overall methodology used sample selection; and data collection was satisfactory and sufficient to draw upon the results and conclusions.

CHAPTER FOUR

REPORTING AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary tool used for data collection was a questionnaire which generated the quantitative data. Section A consisted of demographics. In Sections B to E, teachers were given 66 statements to which they either agreed or disagreed on a five point Likert scale.The items were categorised into the following sections: **Extrinsic work-related rewards** which consisted of remuneration, working conditions, management and supervision, co-workers, promotion opportunities, and learner behaviour and parental support; **intrinsic work-related rewards** which consisted of task significance and involvement and task autonomy; **organisational commitment** which consisted of feelings of commitment and propensity to remain; and **feelings about the job**.

Cross tabulations were run on all of these characteristics to describe satisfaction levels of teachers at the two schools. Chi-square tests and Pearson correlations were run to determine the relationship between the various characteristics and satisfaction and to determine if there were any significant differences between satisfaction levels of teachers in the two types of schools.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics consists of the collection, summarisation, and presentation of data without any attempt to generalise to a larger group. It summarises or describes the important characteristics of a known set of population data. Descriptive statistics is a method for presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form. Scientific research often involves the collection of large masses of data. Thus, much scientific analyses involve the reduction of data from unmanageable details to manageable summaries. Furthermore, data reduction maintains as much of the original details as possible

Descriptive statistics emphasises the exploration and description of distribution. It includes central tendencies like mean, median, mode,. and variabilities like variance, range, outliers (Cooper and Schindler, 1998).

Table 4.1: Gender

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
A1 Gender	Male	44.0%		22.0%
	Female	56.0%	100.0%	78.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The table shows that 11 males from Apollo which accounted for 22% of the total sample responded to the questionnaire. The females accounted for 78% of the sample. Furthermore, Queensburgh has 100% female educators.

Table 4.2: Teaching Experience in years

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
A2 Teaching experience in years	0-5	12.0%	8.0%	10.0%
	6-10	8.0%	36.0%	22.0%
	11-15	28.0%	20.0%	24.0%
	16-20	20.0%	12.0%	16.0%
	21-25	32.0%	24.0%	28.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.2 depicts the 21-25 age group as the largest group. This accounts for 28% of the population. Sixty two percent of the subjects had between 6 and 10 years of teaching experience. At Apollo, 52% of the teachers had more than 15 years of teaching experience, whilst only 36% of teachers at Queensburgh had above 15 years of experience.

Table 4.3: Academic Qualifications

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
A3 Academic Qualifications	Std 10	8.0%	28.0%	18.0%
	Degree	88.0%	72.0%	80.0%
	Studying for degree	4.0%		2.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

According to the table, 80% of the total sample were graduates. Eighty eight percent of the graduates were at Apollo and 72% at Queensburgh.

Table 4.4: Professional Qualifications

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
A4 Professional Qualifications	Post matric training	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.4 shows that all educators used in the sample have post matric training. Hence, they all have, at least, a teaching diploma and are hence trained teachers.

Table 4.5: Age in Years

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
A5 Age in years	20-25	12.0%		6.0%
	26-30	4.0%	16.0%	10.0%
	31-35	16.0%	36.0%	26.0%
	36-39	36.0%	16.0%	26.0%
	40-45	32.0%	32.0%	32.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, the largest group, that is, 36% were in the 36-39 year old age group. On the contrary, 36% of the teachers from Queensburgh were between the ages of 31 and 35. Furthermore, no level one educator at Queensburgh fell within the 20-25 year age group.

Table 4.6: The salary I receive is very fair.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B1.1	Disagree	88.0%	68.0%	78.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	16.0%	12.0%
	Agree	4.0%	16.0%	10.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Most of the teachers in both schools, that is, 78% altogether felt that the salary they received was not fair.

Table 4.7: The fringe benefits are very good.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B1.2	Disagree	88.0%	48.0%	68.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	32.0%	20.0%
	Agree	4.0%	20.0%	12.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Eighty eight percent of the teachers at Apollo were not content and only 4% were content with their fringe benefits. At Queensburgh, on the other hand, 20% were content and only 48% were not content with their fringe benefits. Hence, teachers at Queensburgh enjoyed more fringe benefits.

Table 4.8: I get paid for all the extra work I do, besides my classroom teaching.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B1.3	Disagree	100.0%	76.0%	88.0%
	Neutral		12.0%	6.0%
	Agree		12.0%	6.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

No teachers at Apollo agreed that they got compensated for extra work whilst 12% of teachers at Queensburgh agreed that they did get compensated. Hence, it would seem that teachers at Queensburgh were appreciated for some of the extra work they did.

Table 4.9: I am provided with adequate resources to perform my daily tasks.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.1	Disagree	84.0%	4.0%	44.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	16.0%	12.0%
	Agree	8.0%	80.0%	44.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Eighty four percent of Apollo's teachers were not provided with adequate resources while 80% of teachers at Queensburgh had adequate resources to perform their duties. Hence, Queensburgh is better equipped.

Table 4.10: My work load is fair.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.2	Disagree	68.0%	16.0%	42.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	20.0%	18.0%
	Agree	16.0%	64.0%	40.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Two thirds of the teachers at Apollo felt that their workload was not fair while almost two thirds of teachers at Queensburgh were content with their work load.

Table 4.11: My working hours are fair.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.3	Disagree	32.0%	8.0%	20.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	12.0%	20.0%
	Agree	40.0%	80.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

According to the table, two fifths of Apollo's teachers thought their working hours fair whereas four fifths of Queensburgh's teachers thought their working hours to be fair.

Table 4.12: I have great job security.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.4	Disagree	88.0%	36.0%	62.0%
	Neutral	4.0%	32.0%	18.0%
	Agree	8.0%	32.0%	20.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 8% of the teachers at Apollo felt secure in their jobs while 88% felt insecure. At Queensburgh, 32% felt secure and 36% felt insecure.

Table 4.13: The atmosphere is conducive to teaching and learning.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.5	Disagree	84.0%	12.0%	48.0%
	Neutral	4.0%	4.0%	4.0%
	Agree	12.0%	84.0%	48.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 12% of teachers at Apollo felt the atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning whilst 84% of teachers at Queensbugh felt the atmosphere suitable for teaching and learning.

Table 4.14: My classroom is adequately equipped to accommodate themaximum number of pupils I teach per lesson.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.6	Disagree	72.0%	12.0%	42.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	4.0%	10.0%
	Agree	12.0%	84.0%	48.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 12% of Apollo's teachers were happy with their classroom equipment while 84% of Queensburgh's teachers felt their classrooms to be adequately equipped.

Table 4.15: The average number of pupils I teach is between 20 and 30.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.7	Disagree	96.0%	76.0%	86.0%
	Neutral		8.0%	4.0%
	Agree	4.0%	16.0%	10.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

More than 75% of teachers at both schools disagreed that they taught between 20 and 30 pupils, on average, per lesson.

Table 4.16: The average number of pupils I teach per period is between 30 and 40.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.8	Disagree	48.0%		24.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	8.0%	8.0%
	Agree	44.0%	92.0%	68.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 44% of teachers at Apollo but 92% of teachers at Queensburgh agreed that they had more than 30 but less than 40 pupils per lesson.

Table 4.17: The average number of pupils I teach per period is greater than 40.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.9	Disagree	20.0%	100.0%	60.0%
	Neutral	20.0%		10.0%
	Agree	60.0%		30.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Apollo had 60% of teachers who taught more than 40 pupils per lesson while all teachers at Queensburgh had less than 40 pupils per lesson.

Table 4.18: I receive adequate assistance in the preparation of worksheets and other teaching aids.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B2.10	Disagree	92.0%	8.0%	50.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	28.0%	18.0%
	Agree		64.0%	32.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

92% of teachers at Apollo did not receive while 64% of teachers at Queensburgh received adequate assistance in preparation of teaching aids.

Table 4.19: Management is supportive and helpful.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.1	Disagree	76.0%		38.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	8.0%	10.0%
	Agree	12.0%	92.0%	52.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Over 75% of teachers at Apollo got no help and support from management while over 90% of teachers from Qeeensburgh received help and support from management.

Table 4.20: Management is fair.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.2	Disagree	76.0%	8.0%	42.0%
	Neutral	8.0%		4.0%
	Agree	16.0%	92.0%	54.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, more than three quarters of teachers felt that management was not fair whilst over 90% of teachers at Queensburgh agreed that their management was fair.

Table 4.21: My HOD is competent.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.3	Disagree	32.0%	8.0%	20.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	20.0%	22.0%
	Agree	44.0%	72.0%	58.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 44% at Apollo but 72% at Queensburgh agreed that management was competent.

Table 4.22: My HOD is helpful and supportive.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.4	Disagree	48.0%	8.0%	28.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	16.0%	18.0%
	Agree	32.0%	76.0%	54.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 32% at Apollo whereas 76% at Queensburgh felt that management was helpful and supportive.

Table 4.23: My HOD is fair and just.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.5	Disagree	44.0%	4.0%	24.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	16.0%	20.0%
	Agree	32.0%	80.0%	56.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Less than a third of Apollo's teachers but 80% of Queensburgh,s teachers agreed that their HOD was fair and just.

Table 4.24: My HOD supervises my work regularly.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.6	Disagree	56.0%	20.0%	38.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	28.0%	26.0%
	Agree	20.0%	52.0%	36.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

20% of teachers from Apollo and 52% from Queensburgh had their work regularly supervised by their HOD's.

Table 4.25: My HOD gives me feedback on my performance.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.7	Disagree	56.0%	20.0%	38.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	16.0%	18.0%
	Agree	24.0%	64.0%	44.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

24% of teachers from Apollo and 64% of teachers from Queensburgh got feedback from their HOD's.

Table 4.26: I am respected and recognised by Upper Management.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B3.8	Disagree	40.0%	4.0%	22.0%
	Neutral	44.0%	24.0%	34.0%
	Agree	16.0%	72.0%	44.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 16% at Apollo while 72% at Queensburgh got respect and recognition from Upper Management.

Table 4.27: My colleagues are helpful and supportive.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B4.1	Disagree	52.0%	12.0%	32.0%
	Neutral	16.0%		8.0%
	Agree	32.0%	88.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo 32% of teachers got help and support from co-workers but at Queensburgh 88% of teachers received help and support from co-workers.

Table 4.28: My colleagues are competent.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B4.2	Disagree	24.0%	4.0%	14.0%
	Neutral	48.0%	8.0%	28.0%
	Agree	28.0%	88.0%	58.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Less than 30% of Apollo's teachers while over 80% of Queensburgh's teachers had competent colleagues.

Table 4.29: My colleagues are friendly.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B4.3	Disagree	16.0%	4.0%	10.0%
	Neutral	44.0%	4.0%	24.0%
	Agree	40.0%	92.0%	66.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

40% of teachers at Apollo had friendly co-workers in contrast to 92% of teachers at Queensburgh who felt their co-workers to be friendly.

Table 4.30: There are opportunities for promotion at my school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B5.1	Disagree	96.0%	52.0%	74.0%
	Neutral	4.0%	48.0%	26.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

There were no teachers at both schools who felt that there were promotion opportunities at their school.

Table 4.31: There are opportunities for growth and development at my school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B5.2	Disagree	96.0%	16.0%	56.0%
	Neutral		24.0%	12.0%
	Agree	4.0%	60.0%	32.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

4% of teachers at Apollo as opposed to 60% at Queensburgh agreed that they had opportunities for growth and development.

Table 4.32: Learner behaviour is generally good.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B6.1	Disagree	48.0%	8.0%	28.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	16.0%	20.0%
	Agree	28.0%	76.0%	52.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Less than 30% of teachers at Apollo but over 75% of teachers at Queensburgh felt that learner behaviour was good.

Table 4.33: Parents are supportive in the running of the school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B6.2	Disagree	92.0%	24.0%	58.0%
	Neutral	4.0%	44.0%	24.0%
	Agree	4.0%	32.0%	18.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 4% of Apollo's teachers and 32% of Queensburgh's teachers felt that they had parental support.

Table 4.34: Parents monitor their children's progress.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B6.3	Disagree	84.0%	20.0%	52.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	52.0%	30.0%
	Agree	8.0%	28.0%	18.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 8% of Apollo's teachers and 28% of Queensburgh's teachers agreed that parents monitored their children's work.

Table 4.35: There is a good relationship between the school and the community.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
B6.4	Disagree	84.0%	12.0%	48.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	20.0%	16.0%
	Agree	4.0%	68.0%	36.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, only 4% of teachers felt that there was a good relationship between the school and community while 68% of Queensburgh's teachers felt that there was a good relationship between the school and community.

Table 4.36: My self-esteem goes up when I do my job well.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.1	Neutral	8.0%		4.0%
	Agree	92.0%	100.0%	96.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Almost all teachers in both schools felt their self- esteem increased when they did their job well

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Table 4.37: Generally, I am satisfied with my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.2	Disagree	44.0%	12.0%	28.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	4.0%	12.0%
	Agree	36.0%	84.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only a third of the teachers at Apollo were satisfied with their jobs. At Queensburgh, 84% of the teachers were satisfied.

Table 4.38: I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.3	Disagree	8.0%		4.0%
	Neutral	4.0%		2.0%
	Agree	88.0%	100.0%	94.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

88% of Apollo's teachers and 100% of Queensburgh's teachers felt great personal satisfaction when they did their job well.

Table 4.39: I don't ever think of quitting my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.4	Disagree	56.0%	36.0%	46.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	52.0%	36.0%
	Agree	24.0%	12.0%	18.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, 24% of teachers did not think of quitting their jobs while at Queensburgh, 12% did not think of quitting their jobs.

Table 4.40: I feel unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.5	Disagree	16.0%	4.0%	10.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	16.0%	16.0%
	Agree	68.0%	80.0%	74.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

68% of Apollo's teachers and 80% of Queensburgh's teachers felt unhappy when they performed poorly.

Table 4.41: I am greatly satisfied with the kind of work I do.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.6	Disagree	36.0%	4.0%	20.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	16.0%	22.0%
	Agree	36.0%	80.0%	58.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, 36% were satisfied with their kind of work while at Queensburgh, 80% felt satisfied.

Table 4.42: My feelings are not affected by my job performance.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.7	Disagree	68.0%	76.0%	72.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	12.0%	12.0%
	Agree	20.0%	12.0%	16.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Over two thirds of the teachers in both schools were affected by their job performance.

Table 4.43: My job is significant in the broader scheme of things at my school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.8	Disagree	28.0%		14.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	36.0%	26.0%
	Agree	56.0%	64.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

56% of Apollo's teachers and 64% of Queensburgh's teachers felt their jobs significant in the overall functioning of their schools.

Table 4.44: My job is stimulating and challenging.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.9	Disagree	52.0%	8.0%	30.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	20.0%	20.0%
	Agree	28.0%	72.0%	50.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 28% of teachers at Apollo were stimulated and challenged by their jobs while 72% of teachers at Queeensburgh thought of their jobs as stimulating and challenging.

Table 4.45: My job is rewarding.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.10	Disagree	48.0%	12.0%	30.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	12.0%	20.0%
	Agree	24.0%	76.0%	50.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, only 24% felt their jobs rewarding while 76% of Queensburgh's teachers found their jobs rewarding.

Table 4.46: I am recognised for all the work I do.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C1.11	Disagree	76.0%	20.0%	48.0%
	Neutral	8.0%	36.0%	22.0%
	Agree	16.0%	44.0%	30.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

76% of teachers at Apollo felt that they were not recognised for all their work, while 20% of teachers at Queensburgh felt that they were not recognised.

Table 4.47: I can exercise a great deal of independence, thought and action in my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C2.1	Disagree	20.0%	8.0%	14.0%
	Neutral	32.0%	16.0%	24.0%
	Agree	48.0%	76.0%	62.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

48% of Apollo's teachers had autonomy in their jobs and 76% of teachers at Queensburgh had autonomy.

Table 4.48: I am strictly bound by a syllabus.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C2.2	Disagree	28.0%	36.0%	32.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	24.0%	26.0%
	Agree	44.0%	40.0%	42.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

About two fifths of teachers in both schools agreed that they were bound strictly by a syllabus.

Table 4.49: I am strictly bound by the dictates of the office.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
C2.3	Disagree	16.0%	52.0%	34.0%
	Neutral	36.0%	24.0%	30.0%
	Agree	48.0%	24.0%	36.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

48% of Apollo's teachers agreed that they were strictly bound by the dictates of the office. Only 24% of teachers at Queensburgh felt this way.

Table 4.50: I do not care what happens to my learners as long as I get paid.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.1	Disagree	92.0%	100.0%	96.0%
	Agree	8.0%		4.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Over 90% of educators in both schools did care about what happened to their learners.

Table 4.51: There is a feeling of "them" and "us" at my school because management and level one teachers are on opposite sides.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.2	Disagree	36.0%	52.0%	44.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	28.0%	22.0%
	Agree	48.0%	20.0%	34.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Almost half of the teachers from Apollo experienced this feeling of "them" and "us". Only a fifth of the teachers from Queensburgh felt this way.

Table 4.52: I can usually see management's point of view.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.3	Disagree	48.0%	8.0%	28.0%
	Neutral	36.0%	20.0%	28.0%
	Agree	16.0%	72.0%	44.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

A mere 16% of Apollo's teachers could see management's viewpoint. However, 72% of the teachers from Queensburgh could see management's viewpoint.

Table 4.53: I feel a strong sense of loyalty and commitment to my school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.4	Disagree	20.0%	8.0%	14.0%
	Neutral	32.0%	8.0%	20.0%
	Agree	48.0%	84.0%	66.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only half the teachers from Apollo felt a strong sense of loyalty and commitment to their school whereas 84% of Queensburgh's teachers felt a strong sense of loyalty and commitment to their school.

Table 4.54: What's good for the school is good for me.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.5	Disagree	12.0%	16.0%	14.0%
	Neutral	44.0%	8.0%	26.0%
	Agree	44.0%	76.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, 44% were neutral and 44% agreed that what was good for the school was good for them. On the other hand, Queensburgh had 76% who agreed.

Table 4.55: I feel that I am an important member of my school.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.6	Disagree	24.0%		12.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	24.0%	24.0%
	Agree	52.0%	76.0%	64.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only half of Apollo's teachers felt that they were important members of their school, whereas three quarters of the teachers at Queensburgh felt that they were important members of the school.

Table 4.56: I feel proud to tell people which school I teach at.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D1.7	Disagree	32.0%	8.0%	20.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	8.0%	18.0%
	Agree	40.0%	84.0%	62.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, only 40% of teachers felt proud to have been at that school. At Queensburgh, on the other hand, 84% were proud to be a part of the staff.

Table 4.57: I intend remaining at this school until I am promoted.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D2.1	Disagree	48.0%	28.0%	38.0%
	Neutral	32.0%	28.0%	30.0%
	Agree	20.0%	44.0%	32.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

One fifth of the teachers at Apollo and two fifths of the teachers at Queensburgh had intentions of remaining at their schools until promotion.

Table 4.58: It would be difficult for me to find another job that's as good as the one I have now.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D2.2	Disagree	80.0%	16.0%	48.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	24.0%	18.0%
	Agree	8.0%	60.0%	34.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

A mere 8% of teachers at Apollo felt that their jobs were difficult to replace whilst 60% of teachers at Queensburgh found that it would be difficult to replace their jobs.

Table 4.59: I would find it difficult to leave this school even if I wanted to.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D2.3	Disagree	68.0%	16.0%	42.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	32.0%	24.0%
	Agree	16.0%	52.0%	34.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

68% of teachers at Apollo felt that it was not difficult to leave the school whereas 52% of teachers at Queensburgh felt it was difficult to leave the school.

Table 4.60: If I learn that there's a good job for me at another school, I would actively pursue it.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D2.4	Disagree	24.0%	28.0%	26.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	44.0%	28.0%
	Agree	64.0%	28.0%	46.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

At Apollo, 64% of the teachers would have pursued a job at another school. At Queensburgh, only 28% would have done so.

Table 4.61: It is highly likely that I will still be at this school in five year's time.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
D2.5	Disagree	40.0%	32.0%	36.0%
	Neutral	32.0%	12.0%	22.0%
	Agree	28.0%	56.0%	42.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only 28% of Apollo's teachers and 56% of Queensburgh's teachers were confident of being at their schools in the next five years.

Table 4.62: On most days I feel satisfied about my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E1	Disagree	36.0%	8.0%	22.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	8.0%	16.0%
	Agree	40.0%	84.0%	62.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Only two fifths of the educators at Apollo felt their jobs satisfying on most days, whilst over four fifths of the educators at Queensburgh were satisfied with their job.

Table 4.63: I dislike my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E2	Disagree	52.0%	88.0%	70.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	12.0%	18.0%
	Agree	24.0%		12.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

24% of Apollo's educators disliked their jobs whilst nobody at Queensburgh disliked their jobs.

Table 4.64: I am enthusiastic about my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E3	Disagree	20.0%		10.0%
	Neutral	36.0%	20.0%	28.0%
	Agree	44.0%	80.0%	62.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Just over two fifths of the Apollo educators were enthusiastic about their jobs in contrast to four fifths of Queensburgh educators who were enthusiastic about their jobs.

Table 4.65: I would quit my job at once if I could.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E4	Disagree	28.0%	44.0%	36.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	48.0%	36.0%
	Agree	48.0%	8.0%	28.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Almost half of Apollo's teachers would have quit their jobs, while a mere 8% of Queensgurgh's teachers were prepared to quit.

Table 4.66: I would like to change my job for another one.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E5	Disagree	20.0%	48.0%	34.0%
	Neutral	20.0%	28.0%	24.0%
	Agree	60.0%	24.0%	42.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

60% of the teachers at Apollo would have liked to change their jobs while only 24% of the teachers at Queensburgh had this preference.

Table 4.67: I would not change my job for any other job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E6	Disagree	52.0%	32.0%	42.0%
	Neutral	32.0%	32.0%	32.0%
	Agree	16.0%	36.0%	26.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Almost two thirds of educators from both schools were neutral about a job change for any other job.However, 52% of teachers at Apollo and 32% of educators at Queensburgh did not mind changing their jobs for any other job.

Table 4.68: I like my job better than most people like their's.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E7	Disagree	48.0%	12.0%	30.0%
	Neutral	12.0%	32.0%	22.0%
	Agree	40.0%	56.0%	48.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

40% of educators from Apollo and 56% from Queensburgh liked their jobs better than most people liked their's.

Table 4.69: Basically, I do not like my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E8	Disagree	56.0%	92.0%	74.0%
	Neutral	16.0%	8.0%	12.0%
	Agree	28.0%		14.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

56% of Apollo's educators basically liked their jobs whilst over 90% of Queensburgh's educators liked their jobs. Furthermore, 28% of teachers from Apollo agreed that they did not like their jobs but nobody from Queensburgh agreed to this.

Table 4.70: Overall, I am satisfied with my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E9	Disagree	40.0%	4.0%	22.0%
	Neutral	28.0%	8.0%	18.0%
	Agree	32.0%	88.0%	60.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

A mere 32% at Apollo felt overall satisfaction with their jobs while 88% at Queensburgh felt overall satisfaction.

Table 4.71: I find real enjoyment in my job.

		SCHOOL		
		Apollo Secondary	Queensburg Secondary	Total
E10	Disagree	40.0%		20.0%
	Neutral	24.0%	20.0%	22.0%
	Agree	36.0%	80.0%	58.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

36% of teachers at Apollo as opposed to 80% of Queensburhg's teachers found real enjoyment in their jobs.

4.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics involves the estimation of population values and the testing of statistical hypotheses. It uses sample data to make inferences or generalisations about a population.

When data is analysed for descriptive purposes, the focus is limited to the data collected on the study's sample. Data analysis does not provide a basis for generalising beyond the particular study or sample. Inferential statistics help rule out chance as a plausible explanation of findings; thus combined with consideration of design issues, they help to decide whether generalisations, based on findings about population or theoretical processes can be made.

Inferential statistics help to make assertions about the larger population

from which the sample had been selected or about the causal processes in general that explain why a particular relationship had been observed in the data. Various statistical measures are used for making such inferences. Inferential statistics include random samples, random sampling methods, sampling error, real life issues, normal distribution, student t distribution, confidence interval, confidence level, type 1 error, type 2 error and p values. P-values are included in the Pearson's chi-square test. This is a two-tailed test of significance used when testing non-directional hypotheses. Statistical significance testing identifies the probability that findings can be attributed to chance. This probability is compared to a pre-selected level of significance. If that probability is equal to or less than that level of significance, then the finding is deemed statistically significant and the plausibility of the null hypothesis is refuted.

Researchers traditionally tend to use 0.05 as the level of significance, but that is merely a convention. When 0.05 is used, a finding that is significant at the 0.05 level is one that could not be expected to result from the luck of the draw, or sampling error, more than 5 times out of 100. Traditional ways of summarising statistics are univariate analysis, subgroup comparisons, bivariate analysis, and multivariate analysis (Cooper and Schindler, 1998).

Table 4.72: The fringe benefits are very good.

Hypothesis : There is a difference between fringe benefits at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	p
Pearson Chi-square	9.208	2	.010

Since **p = 0.010** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between fringe benefits at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.73: I get paid for all the extra work I do, besides my classroom teaching.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between pay for extra work at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	6.818	2	.033

Since **p = 0.033** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between pay for extra work at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.74: I am provided with adequate resources to perform my daily tasks.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between provision of adequate resources for daily task performance at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	33.576	2	.000

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Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between provision of adequate resources for daily task performance pay at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.75: My work load is fair.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between fairness of work load at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	15.359	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between fairness of work load at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.76: My working hours are fair.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between fairness of working hours at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.533	2	.014

Since **p = 0.014** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between fairness of working hours at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.77: I have great job security.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between job security at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	14.496	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between job security at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.78: The atmosphere is conducive to teaching and learning.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between teaching and learning atmosphere at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	27.000	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between teaching and learning atmosphere at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.79: My classroom is adequately equipped to accommodate the maximum number of pupils I teach per lesson.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between adequacy of classroom equipment at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	26.014	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between adequacy of classroom equipment at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.80: The average number of pupils I teach per period is between 30 and 40.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between average number of pupils per period being between 30 and 40 at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	16.235	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between average number of pupils per period being between 30 and 40 at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.81: The average number of pupils I teach per period is greater than 40.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between average number of pupils per period being greater than 40 at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	33.333	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between average number of pupils per period being greater than 40 at Apollo and at Queensburgh.

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.82: I receive adequate assistance in the preparation of worksheets and other teaching aids.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between adequate assistance in the preparation of worksheets and other teaching aids at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	36.418	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between adequate assistance in the preparation of worksheets and other teaching aids at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.83: Management is supportive and helpful.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between Management support and help at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	34.585	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between Management support and help at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.84: Management is fair.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between fairness of Management at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	29.132	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between fairness of Management at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.85: My HOD is helpful and supportive.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between help and support from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	11.735	2	.003

Since **p = 0.003** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between help and support from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.86: My HOD is fair and just.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between fairness and justice from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	13.876	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between fairness and justice from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.87: My HOD supervises my work regularly.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between regular supervision from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	7.896	2	.019

Since **p = 0.019** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between regular supervision from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.88: My HOD gives me feedback on my performance.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feedback on educator performance from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.920	2	.012

Since **p = 0.012** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feedback on educator performance from HOD's at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.89: I am respected and recognised by Upper Management.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between respect and recognition gained from Upper Management at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	17.743	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between respect and recognition gained from Upper Management at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.90: My colleagues are helpful and supportive.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between support and help gained from colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	16.783	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between support and help gained from colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.91: My colleagues are competent.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between competence of colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	18.473	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between competence of colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.92: My colleagues are friendly.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between friendliness of colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	15.255	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between friendliness of colleagues at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.93: There are opportunities for promotion at my school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between opportunities for promotion at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	12.578	1	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between opportunities for promotion at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.94: There are opportunities for growth and development at my school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between opportunities for growth and development at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	32.536	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between opportunities for growth and development at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.95: Learner behaviour is generally good.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between learner behaviour at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	13.081	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between learner behaviour at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.96: Parents are supportive in the running of the school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between parental support at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	23.743	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between parental support at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.97: Parents monitor their children's progress.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between parents monitoring their children's progress at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	20.691	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between parents monitoring their children's progress at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.98: There is a good relationship between the school and the community.

Hypothesis: There is a difference in relationships between the school and the community at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	28.222	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference in relationships between the school and the community at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.99: Generally, I am satisfied with my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference in general job satisfaction between Apollo and Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	12.038	2	.002

Since **p = 0.002** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference in general job satisfaction between Apollo and Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.100: I am greatly satisfied with the kind of work I do.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between satisfaction with the kind of work done by teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	11.391	2	.003

Since **p = 0.003** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between satisfaction with the kind of work done by teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.101: My job is significant in the broader scheme of things at my school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between job significance at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	9.056	2	.011

Since **p = 0.011** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between job significance at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.102: My job is stimulating and challenging.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between job stimulation and job challenge at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	Df	p
Pearson Chi-square	12.907	2	.002

Since **p = 0.002** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between job stimulation and job challenge at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.103: My job is rewarding.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between job reward at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	13.760	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between job reward at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.104: I am recognised for all the work I do.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between job recognition at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	15.888	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between job recognition at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.105: I am strictly bound by the dictates of the office.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between office dictation at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	7.365	2	.025

Since **p = 0.025** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between office dictation at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.106: I can usually see management's point of view.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between seeing management's viewpoint at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	17.195	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between seeing management's viewpoint at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.107: I feel a strong sense of loyalty and commitment to my school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between sense of loyalty and commitment to the school at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	7.340	2	.025

Since **p = 0.025** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between sense of loyalty and commitment to the school at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.108: What's good for the school is good for me.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between what's good for the school being equally good for the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.507	2	.014

Since **p = 0.014** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between what's good for the school being equally good for the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.109: I feel that I am an important member of my school.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of importance by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	7.125	2	.028

Since **p = 0.028** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of importance by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.110: I feel proud to tell people which school I teach at.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of pride in disclosing their workplace by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	10.281	2	.006

Since **p = 0.006** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of pride in disclosing their workplace by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.111: It would be difficult for me to find another job that's as good as the one I have now.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of finding another job as good as the present one by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	21.608	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of finding another job as good as the present one by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.112: I would find it difficult to leave this school even if I wanted to.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of leaving the school by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	14.146	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of leaving the school by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.113: If I learn that there's a good job for me at another school, I would actively pursue it.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between actively pursuing a job at another school by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.170	2	.017

Since **p = 0.017** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between actively pursuing a job at another school by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.114: On most days I feel satisfied about my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between daily feelings of job satisfaction by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	10.358	2	.006

Since **p = 0.006** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between daily feelings of job satisfaction by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.115: I dislike my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of dislike for the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	9.314	2	.009

Since **p = 0.009** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of dislike for the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.116: I am enthusiastic about my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of enthusiasm for the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.756	2	.013

Since **p = 0.013** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of enthusiasm for the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.117: I would quit my job at once if I could.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between quitting the job immediately by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	10.032	2	.007

Since **p = 0.007** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between quitting the job immediately by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.118: I would like to change my job for another one.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between liking to change jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	7.073	2	.029

Since **p = 0.029** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between liking to change jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.119: I like my job better than most people like their's.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between liking their jobs better by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	8.339	2	.015

Since **p = 0.015** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between liking their jobs better by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.120: Basically, I do not like my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between basic dislike of their jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	9.856	2	.007

Since **p = 0.007** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between basic dislike of their jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.121: Overall, I am satisfied with my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between overall satisfaction of their jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	16.675	2	.000

Since **p = 0.000** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between overall satisfaction of their jobs by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.122: I find real enjoyment in my job.

Hypothesis: There is a difference between feelings of enjoyment in the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

	Value	df	P
Pearson Chi-square	14.263	2	.001

Since **p = 0.001** and $p < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between feelings of enjoyment in the job by the teachers at Apollo and at Queensburgh..

Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

4.4 CONCLUSION / SUMMARY

A questionnaire of 66 statements were given to the teachers and they were asked to indicate the degree to which they either agreed or disagreed on a five-point Likert scale. Cross tabulations were run on all these items to describe satisfaction levels of teachers in the two different schools. Chi-Square tests were then run on the analysis to determine the relationship between the various characteristics and satisfaction. School characteristics included the school sector, the community type and class size. Workplace conditions included administrative support, student behaviour, decision making rules, parental support, amount of paperwork and routine duties, availability of resources, communication with management, co-operation among staff, staff recognition and autonomy. Teacher compensation included salaries, benefits and other opportunities within the school for income.

A number of the hypotheses proposed were supported. The results clearly indicate that the teachers at Queensburgh Girls' High which is an Ex-Model C school, were more satisfied than the educators at Apollo Secondary school which is a Government school.Considering class size, for example, there was a significant difference between the two schools. At Queensburgh, 92 % had between 30 and 40 pupils in their class whilst at Apollo 60 % had over 40 pupils in their class. Teachers' perception of the workplace was better at Queensburgh. Several factors stood out as being more favourable at Queensburgh, such as parental support, student behaviour, management interaction, staff recognition and teacher participation in school decision making. Differences in the category of student behaviour and parental support were also noticeable. Administrative support and availability of resource material, which is strongly associated with teacher satisfaction were more prevalent at Queensburgh. There was a lack of person-environment congruence at Apollo. Perceptions of staff co-operation and co- worker relationships were negative at this school.

Teachers who gave the most positive response available can be categorised as the more satisfied teachers. In other words, this group is comprised of teachers who intend teaching as long as they are able, and they strongly disagree that teaching is a waste of their time. Most teachers at Queensburgh fell into this group. Teachers can be categorised as least satisfied if they answered that they certainly did not intend to remain in teaching as long as they were able. Most teachers at Apollo fell into this group. Overall, the more satisfied teachers tend to teach at Queensburgh which is an Ex-Model C school. Once again, workplace conditions distinguished most clearly between the most and least satisfied teachers; the more satisfied teachers worked in a more supportive, safe, autonomous environment than the least satisfied teachers..

CHAPTER FIVE

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

From the analyses in the previous chapter, it is clear that workplace conditions which are open to policy are significantly related to satisfaction.. This is true in the general description of satisfaction among all teachers, in a comparison of the most and least satisfied teachers, and in a multivariate assessment of relative associations between factors and satisfaction. More administrative support and leadership, good student behaviour, a positive school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy are all associated with higher teacher satisfaction.

Compensation is also related to teacher satisfaction – the greater the benefits, the higher the satisfaction.

The findings of this research clearly indicate that workplace conditions and fringe benefits are more satisfying to teachers at the Ex-Model C school than to teachers at the Government school. Hence, the findings should provide information to policy makers interested in increasing the satisfaction levels of teachers. The data analyses demonstrate that teacher satisfaction may be shaped in part by workplace conditions that are within the reach of policy at the school and province levels. Schools need to address the organisational sources of low teacher retention.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS TO INCREASE SATISFACTION AT GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

Conditions that undermine the power and effectiveness of Government schools need to be identified and promptly rectified. This includes, above all, creating a work environment that will continue to draw the bright, committed new teachers needed in all schools- and

will keep them enthusiastic, energetic and productive throughout their careers. Whatever the cost, it is preferable to the depressing alternative, that is, increased teacher turnover.

Firstly, it should be noted that learners attending Government schools are generally from less advantaged homes. They cannot afford the higher fees at Ex-Model C schools. Hence, school fees at Government schools cannot be increased. However, the Government should allocate more funds per child to these schools, so that adequate resources and equipment can be purchased. The ratio of teacher to child should be 1:30. This will increase the number of Government paid educators in the school and reduce class sizes. Furthermore, these schools should be provided with a social worker or guidance councilor. This will reduce discipline problems, enhance learner achievement, and increase teacher job satisfaction. These schools can also embark on various types of fund-raising drives on a monthly basis to enable them to employ more educators and secretaries. More secretaries will reduce some of the paperwork that teachers have to do at these schools. Hence, their workload will decrease to a certain extent. Tuck shops should not be out-sourced but run by the schools. This will also increase funds that can be utilised by the school. Administrators at these schools should make a concerted effort to increase satisfaction and reduce turnover of teachers. Although they are unable to affect teachers' intrinsic values directly, they can modify extrinsic factors in the environment to enhance the effect of such intrinsic values. Administrators can provide a supportive environment for teachers by providing:

- equal and fair promotional opportunities for all teachers,
- opportunities for teachers to interact and be supportive of one another,
- supervision which is perceived as being helpful and supportive by the teachers,
- resources and equipment that teachers need to be effective in their classrooms, and
- compensation for all the extra work they do which is unrelated to classroom teaching.

5.3 HOW CAN ADMINISTRATORS AND PRINCIPALS INFLUENCE TEACHER MORALE AND SATISFACTION?

People who feel empowered tend to have higher morale. According to Maehr, Midgley, and Urdan (1993), people are more personally invested in their work with an organisation when they have a voice in what happens to them; and when their work has significance and meaning in contributing to a higher purpose or goal.

When teachers' sense of self-determination and purpose are supported, teachers relate to students in a qualitatively different manner (Maehr, Midgeley, and Urdan). By treating teachers in ways that empower them, such as involving them in decisions about policies and practices and acknowledging their expertise, administrators can help sustain teacher morale.

Principals can also strengthen teacher morale by actively standing behind teachers. Effective principals serve as guardians of teachers' instructional time, assist teachers with student discipline matters, allow teachers to develop discipline codes, and support teachers' authority in enforcing policy (Blasé and Kirby, 1992).

Principals cannot afford to disregard the expectations of the teachers, as there are too many benefit to be derived from a satisfied staff. Since organisationl climate is one of the integral factors that determine the quality of teaching in a school, it is the duty of the principal to create a working environment conducive to education and teaching. Staff development programs in which the developmental needs of the staff have been recognised, should be carefully structured so as to enable teachers to render optimum service. Teachers experience job satisfaction when they are given responsibility in accordance with the demands of their profession. Career development also promotes job satisfaction as it prevents a teacher's career from stagnating. The principal is indisputably the person who determines the organisational climate of a school. He should actively promote an open climate. Teachers are required to stay abreast of the latest developments in their field. The principal must accept responsibility for this. The principal must facilitate job satisfaction and promote the career of each teacher in a meaningful way.

5.4 WHAT STEPS CAN TEACHERS TAKE TO PRESERVE OR RAISE THEIR MORALE?

Sometimes teacher morale drops almost imperceptibly over time, so subtly that teachers may not be fully cognizant of the decline. Nothing can change, however, in the absence of awareness. If teachers are to be encouraged, they must first recognise their diminished status, that is, their 'discouraged' status, and take action to be 'couraged' again (Bolin, 1987).

Reassessment, when coupled with renewal, can often lead to encouragement. Reassessment involves re-examining something in order to value it again. Renewal implies recovery. To become renewed, teachers must reopen the case for teaching, looking again at why they chose to set out on such a vocational venture (Bolin, 1987).

Berman (1987) also emphasises the need for individuals to give attention to the care and replenishing of self if they are to be dynamic, sensitive, perceptive persons- persons who get excited about ideas and people. Teachers need to be able to keep the freshness and spark that frequently mark a novice in the field, while at the same time embedding freshness in wisdom and thoughtfulness.

Teachers need to consider what is uplifting and energising for them and then work towards integrating those things more fully into their lives. They should break out of routine and do the unusual, plan for the next steps in professional development, develop a network of individuals to dialogue with, and invest fully in tasks at hand as routes to replenishment (Berman, 1987).

5.5 IMPROVING TEACHER COMPENSATION

Teacher compensation at its most fundamental level refers to the entire package a person may receive in the form of money, benefits and other non-financial rewards. Teacher compensation has always seemed to be a policy target for education incentives, either consciously or unconsciously.

According to a research report by the American Federation of Teachers (1998), compensation is a critical factor as to whether a potential candidate accepts a teaching position. Many potential candidates may choose other fields besides teaching because of the greater financial incentives. In many states, teachers get paid according to their level of education and teaching experience.

According to the National Conference of State Legislatures (2000) in the United States, teachers could, in addition to their general base pay, receive bonuses through five different programs. These programs are Outstanding teachers, Site responsibility pay, Group incentive, District responsibility pay, and Skill blocks.

Under the outstanding teacher program, teachers rated as outstanding based on assessment and instruction, knowledge of content and pedagogy, and collaboration and partnerships, will receive a bonus. During the year, teachers develop a portfolio demonstrating skills and competencies. In the area of site responsibility pay, teachers are paid for participating in activities above and beyond the normal course of classroom instruction, such as special work with individual students and school committees. The reward decisions are determined at the building level. In the group incentive program, teachers receive additional compensation for participating in an optional school-wide activity with teachers in the school building and working cooperatively toward common goals.

In the district responsibility pay program, additional pay is granted for participating in specified district professional activities such as serving on committees and task forces. Consequently, in the skill block category, teachers receive a stipend for successful completion of each skill block, district selected, designed and developed skill training courses that include an assessment of teacher skill acquisition.

Although salary is not a very significant determinant of teacher job satisfaction, a more lucrative compensation package, like the one above, would definitely reduce teacher turnover rates.

5.6 STRATEGIES TO INCREASE JOB SATISFACTION

The following are some of the strategies that could be implemented to increase teacher job satisfaction, aid in retention, and improve the school climate.

5.6.1 Collegial Investment

A primary dimension of a school's culture is collegiality. Cultures with characteristics expressed in terms of collegiality and collaboration generally are those types that promote satisfaction and feelings of professional involvement of teachers (Leithwood, Leonard and Sharratt, 1998). Strategies to enhance collegiality include volunteering to work with new teachers, sharing leadership roles, and collaborating with other teachers (Woods and Weasmer, 1997).

New teachers need a supportive community in which mentoring is not just an opportunity to give advice but a two-way exchange of listening and questioning that should begin before the beginning teacher's first entrance into the school. When veteran teachers and novices share their ideas or practices, benefits are reciprocal. The beginning teacher gains a clearer awareness of the school culture and a stronger sense of what is expected in planning, evaluating, and managing the learning environment. The veteran teacher is afforded fresh perspectives on contemporary practices and has the opportunity to reflect and to validate his or her teaching strategies. This reciprocity provides a learning stimulant for both teachers and thereby increases job satisfaction (Boreen and Niday, 2000; 152).

5.6.2 Shared Leadership

Another means of collegial investment is sharing school leadership roles. Graham (1996; 46) asserts that to thrive in a collegial setting it is important for a teacher to be an active influence on the school culture rather than a passive bystander. When teachers assume

leadership positions in effecting school change, they assert their roles as experts on the school's culture. Teachers who claim a voice in moving towards organisational goals, increase their commitment to the district and enhance their job satisfaction.

Creating a culture of learning and involving teachers in strategic decision making is crucial. Rotating the roles of department chairs among department members, for example, acknowledges every faculty member's capabilities and demonstrates the school's emphasis on shared governance.

In striving to enhance collegiality, collaborative efforts prove invaluable. Teachers who work together towards a mutual goal feel a shared investment in their efforts. Collaboration unifies purpose and strengthens commitment. Members have others to turn to when making decisions about assignments and assessments (Martin and Kragler, 1999).

5.6.3 Support Meetings

Another strategy for nurturing a collegial spirit through collaboration is to schedule support meetings. For new teachers, such meetings can help them acclimate to the school culture and become acquainted with those who have already forged friendships. Support meetings can also serve as avenues for novices to connect with teachers at varied career stages who are willing to support them. This makes them feel less isolated and more satisfied with their new jobs.

5.6.4 Mentoring

Late-entry adults are often overlooked in the mentoring process. Because they are older and seem confident and competent, colleagues may shy away from offering advice and support. Some have managed to balance home and family with the pursuits of new careers and because of this appear more confident than they really are. It is important to remember that these newcomers are novices and as much in need of guidance and encouragement as the younger new teachers. Empathy from colleagues may ease the stresses of the novice's first years in a new profession.

Support from colleagues may fail to reach those teachers who are already often marginalised, such as educators of art, foreign language, and computer science. These teachers do not fit the common mold when the faculty is divided into department committees to work on curricula. Instead, due to the uniqueness of their fields, they often return to their desks to work alone. Even greater isolation confronts teachers of band, vocal music, and physical education. They are confined to band rooms, gymnasiums and outdoor activity areas, and thus interact less with colleagues between classes. Because these teachers are physically separated from the others, administrators and colleagues may fail to involve them in decisions concerning individual students or organisational issues. For this reason periodic gatherings where teachers meet to share needs and concerns are essential in fending off job dissatisfaction (Fejgin, Ephraty,and Ben-Sira,1995).

For staff development, teachers should be encouraged to find other teachers they could observe, question and learn from. By working with these mentors, then experimenting on their own, teachers can learn and bring new strengths to their teaching. Some may become better discussion leaders while others may master new time management techniques. Some may learn to be more directive with students while others may learn ways to be less so. Mentoring needs can be targeted through the evaluation process. Teachers willing to help other teachers progress may be identified as teacher trainers and may be honored with an end- of- year luncheon and a certificate of accomplishment.

5.6.5 Exchange of Ideas and Interaction in Non-School Activities

An idea exchange can begin with solicitation of 'best practices' from teachers willing to volunteer their thoughts and suggestions. A 'help' section in the daily bulletin can be run. This will give teachers an opportunity to ask colleagues for assistance with defined problems.

Self- reliance of teachers can be connected with a rich and diverse intellectual climate. The goal should be to create ongoing opportunities for teachers to interact creatively and

mindfully in 'non-school' ways. A voluntary book club, quilting classes, a dance team, or a world affairs discussion group may be formed. Although none of these activities relate directly to teaching, they can be very meaningful to teachers in their unfolding quest for self-reliance. The engaging nature of the activities can help to boost morale, strengthen relationships and raise alertness of teachers. This type of activities make a major difference in teacher commitment to their job (Woods and Weismer, 1997).

5.6.6 Teacher Talk

Talk among teachers can almost always be turned to benefit. Informal talk sessions can be scheduled with a teacher designated in advance to lead. Participation should be voluntary with in-service credit offered as a bonus. Topics should be suggested by the teachers themselves. Comments from the house should be respectful, and teachers should come prepared to participate, even if it means writing down ideas in advance. At these sessions questions may be raised and suggestions offered that may allow insight into problems that often contribute to a teacher's sense of helplessness (Boreen and Niday, 2000).

5.6.7 Self - Reliance and Reflection

Self – reliance requires community, but it also thrives on time alone so that teachers can reflect on who they are as professionals. Workshops would not do it, nor will seminars or principal evaluations – only the isolated, sometimes lonely work of direct confrontation with the inner self. Sessions for reflection and self – reliance should be scheduled and participation should be voluntary. The participants should be encouraged to look at themselves in a straightforward manner and to be prepared to do something about attitudes, motivations, and practices they did not like.

Time should be set aside for reflection by each teacher on a regular basis and participants should meet for an hour each week to verbalise confusion and conflict and chart existing patterns and new directions. Through this type of interaction, teachers may realise their problems and needs, for example, the need to be emotionally closer to learners, or the

need to establish more functional relationships with adults in the school, or a teacher may realise that he or she has a problem with time or task management. Now, via the counsel of better organised colleagues, personal study and diligent application, these teachers can overcome their problems and needs.

Self – reliance has staying power. It keeps on going because it is centred on the experience of individual teachers. The requirement is a commitment from teachers to know themselves and to give to and take from a community of fellow teachers. Freeing teachers to be self- reliant is the ultimate empowerment, growing as it is honoured through regular practice (Woods and Weasmer, 1997).

5.6.8 Reduction of class sizes

The job satisfaction of educators will definitely increase if their class sizes are reduced. A smaller number of pupils per class will also mean better schools and smarter learners, will lead to improved academic achievement, will improve teacher recruitment and retention, will lead to better behaved classes, will reduce the drop-out rate of pupils, and will be a cost effective investment.

5.7 LESSENING DISSATISFACTION

Developing new ventures in a fresh direction can expand one's sense of self beyond the school and thereby enhance job satisfaction. Joining community organisations, participating in volunteer work, or exercising at local health clubs are often desirable options. Such encounters help to foster new friendships outside the school, develop new talents, provide intellectual stimulation, and improve satisfaction with teaching.

Advanced degree work or participation in professional organisations exposes participants to new ideas and provides a network of teachers with related interests and concerns. Teachers who were beginning to feel 'stale' will feel renewed and excited about learning again. Such intrinsic rewards, coupled with salary benefits for graduate work, render added incentives.

Web sites and chat boards provide other arenas for teachers to network. There they can maintain a degree of anonymity as they share concerns about education. Novice teachers seeking suggestions for lesson planning or guidance with classroom management find a nurturing audience eager to buoy their confidence.

When the school and the individual do not make a good match and the teacher is hence dissatisfied, the only recourse a teacher may have is to seek a different placement (Woods and Weismer).

5.8 CONCLUSION

It is important to keep in mind that increasing teacher satisfaction will not eliminate attrition, as some attrition is natural. However, it is important to also study teachers who left the profession because they were dissatisfied with some aspect of the job. This type of analysis might help identify ways to alter negative types of teacher turnover.

It has been noted that the longer one stays in the profession, the harder it is to leave. Hence, the average age of teachers has been rising over the past years.The attrition of younger teachers naturally affects the age profile and morale of those who stay. Since older teachers may be more prone to the accumulated effects of stress, the aging of the profession means a higher percentage of stressed teachers. This situation has serious implications for the nation, as talented teachers leave the classroom in greater numbers and many of those who remain feel increasingly worn out and discouraged – even trapped.

The following are some steps that could be taken to improve the work environment of schools:

- Increasing teacher responsibility for educational decisions
- Reducing class sizes
- Increasing parent and community support for schools and teachers
- Fostering collegial relationships among teachers and administrators.

Maintaining job satisfaction through each career stage demands a conscious effort from the teacher, colleagues and administrators. Beginning teachers benefit from external factors in the form of support groups, mentoring and other collegial interaction. Moving into leadership roles establishes the teacher as an active participant in the school culture. At this career stage, investment is enhanced and authority is recognised. Collegiality is also a strong contributor to job satisfaction. Allotting specific times for teachers to come together affords professional sharing that may not otherwise occur. For example, support meetings bringing together traditional and late-entry novices with veteran teachers invite a rich exchange. Veteran teachers may find that job satisfaction improves when they develop an avocation offering new learning through new experiences. Such strategies to increase job satisfaction, aid in retention, and improve the school climate.

An improvement of external career paths can only enhance the extrinsic motivation of the teaching career, but fulfillment of internal career paths give rise to intrinsic motivation. Since intrinsic motivation also plays a great role in job satisfaction, administrators must also motivate teachers for reasons other than financial reward, such as, feelings of heightened self-esteem, personal growth, and worthwhile accomplishment.

Although teachers can take steps individually to preserve their professional satisfaction and morale, they must also be nurtured, supported and valued by the broader school community. When teachers are provided with what they need to remain inspired and enthusiastic in the classroom, students as well as teachers will be the beneficiaries.

Since teacher satisfaction may be shaped in part by workplace conditions, focusing on workplace conditions is, therefore, a feasible way to improve teacher satisfaction. Regardless of the type of school, community or teacher, a safe working environment, supportive administration, and involved parents are connected with high levels of teacher satisfaction. Equally important are the teachers' feelings of autonomy. Although involving teachers in school-wide policy decisions and giving them some degree of control in their classrooms are associated with high levels of career satisfaction, it is not possible to say whether these factors result in high levels of teacher satisfaction, or

whether highly satisfied teachers seek out or create environments that provide them with greater autonomy.

If teacher satisfaction relates to both teaching quality and turnover rates, then focusing on policies relating to satisfaction may go a long way towards improving the quality of instruction in our nation's schools. Furthermore, it is hoped that school administrators could use the findings of this study to bridge the gap between teacher satisfaction in the Government schools and in the Ex-Model C schools. In addition, the hope is expressed that this study will enable principals to manage their schools in such a way that teachers will be able to fulfil their tasks ably and effectively.

However, further research needs to be conducted to overcome the limitations of this study.

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APPENDIX: QUESTIONNAIRE

NOTE:

(a) All information given in this questionnaire is confidential.

(b) Please put a cross in the appropriate block.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Sex:

MALE	FEMALE

2. Teaching Experience in Years:

0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31+

3. Academic Qualification:

Teacher with Std 10	Teacher with degree	Teacher studying for degree

4. Professional Qualification:

Teacher with no training	Teacher with post matric training	No response

5. Age in Years:

20-25	26-30	31-35	36-39	40-45	46-49	50-55	56-59	60+

RATE THE FOLLOWING FOUR SECTIONS ON A FIVE POINT SCALE:

STRONGLY AGREE (5); AGREE (4); NEUTRAL (3); DISAGREE (2);

STRONGLY DISAGREE (1).

Put a cross(X) in the appropriate block !

SECTION B: EXTRINSIC WORK RELATED REWARDS.

1.REMUNERATION.

1	2	3	4	5

1.1 The salary I receive is very fair.

1	2	3	4	5

1.2 The fringe benefits are very good.

1	2	3	4	5

1.3 I get paid for all the extra work I do, besides my classroom teaching.

2. WORKING CONDITIONS.

2.1 I am provided with adequate resources to perform my daily tasks.

1	2	3	4	5

2.2 My work load is fair.

1	2	3	4	5

2.3 My working hours are fair.

1	2	3	4	5

2.4 I have great job security.

1	2	3	4	5

2.5 The atmosphere is condusive to teaching and learning.

1	2	3	4	5

2.6 My classroom is adequately equipped to accommodate the maximum number of pupils

I teach per lesson.

2.7 The average number of pupils I teach per period is between 20 and 30

1	2	3	4	5

2.8 The average number of pupils I teach per period is between 30 and 40

1	2	3	4	5

2.9 The average number of pupils I teach per period is greater than 40.

1	2	3	4	5

2.10 I receive adequate assistance in the preparation of worksheets and other teaching aids.

1	2	3	4	5

3.<u>MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION.</u>

3.1 Management is supportive and helpful.

1	2	3	4	5

3.2 Management is fair.

1	2	3	4	5

3.3 My HOD is competent.

1	2	3	4	5

3.4 My HOD is helpful and supportive

1	2	3	4	5

3.5 My HOD is fair and just.

1	2	3	4	5

3.6 My HOD supervises my work regularly.

1	2	3	4	5

3.7 My HOD gives me feedback on my performance.

1	2	3	4	5

3.8 I am respected and recognised by upper Management.

4. *CO – WORKERS.*

1	2	3	4	5

4.1 My colleagues are helpful and supportive.

1	2	3	4	5

4.2 My colleagues are competent.

1	2	3	4	5

4.3 My colleagues are friendly.

5. *PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES.*

1	2	3	4	5

5.1 There are opportunities for promotion at my school.

1	2	3	4	5

5.2 There are opportunities for growth and development at my school.

6. *LEARNER BEHAVIOUR AND PARENTAL SUPPORT.*

1	2	3	4	5

6.1 Learner behaviour is generally good.

1	2	3	4	5

6.2 Parents are supportive in the running of

the school.

1	2	3	4	5

6.3 Parents monitor their children's progress.

6.4 There is a good relationship between the school and the community.

1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: INTRINSIC REWARDS.

1. ***TASK SIGNIFICANCE AND INVOLVEMENT.***

1	2	3	4	5

1.1 My self – esteem goes up when I do my job well.

1	2	3	4	5

1.2 Generally, I am satisfied with my job.

1	2	3	4	5

1.3 I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.

1	2	3	4	5

1.4 I don't ever think of quitting my job.

1	2	3	4	5

1.5 I feel unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly.

1	2	3	4	5

1.6 I am greatly satisfied with the kind of work I do.

1	2	3	4	5

1.7 My feelings are not affected by my job performance.

1	2	3	4	5

1.8 My job is significant in the broader scheme of things at my school.

1	2	3	4	5

1.9 My job is stimulating and challenging.

1	2	3	4	5

1.10 My job is rewarding.

1	2	3	4	5

1.11 I am recognised for all the work I do.

2. <u>TASK AUTONOMY.</u>

1	2	3	4	5

2.1 I can exercise a great deal of independence, thought and action in my job.

1	2	3	4	5

2.2 I am strictly bound by a syllabus.

1	2	3	4	5

2.3 I am strictly bound by the dictates of the office.

SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT.

1. FEELINGS OF COMMITMENT

1	2	3	4	5

1.1 I do not care what happens to my learners as long as I get paid.

1.2 There is a feeling of "them" and "us" at my school because management and level one teachers are on opposite sides.

1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5

1.3 I can usually see management's point of view.

1	2	3	4	5

1.4 I feel a strong sense of loyalty and commitment to my school.

1	2	3	4	5

1.5 What's good for the school is good for me.

1	2	3	4	5

1.6 I feel that I am an important member of my school.

1	2	3	4	5

1.7 I feel proud to tell people which school I teach at.

INTENSION

2. PROPENSITY TO REMAIN.

1	2	3	4	5

2.1 I intend remaining at this school until I am promoted.

1	2	3	4	5

2.2 It would be difficult for me to find another job that's as good as the one I have now.

1	2	3	4	5

2.3 I would find it difficult to leave this school even I wanted to.

2.4 If I learn that there's a good job for me at another school, I would actively pursue it.

1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5

2.5 It is highly likely that I will still be at this school in five year's time.

SECTION E: FEELINGS ABOUT MY JOB.

1	2	3	4	5

1. On most days I feel satisfied about my job.

1	2	3	4	5

2. I dislike my job.

1	2	3	4	5

3. I am enthusiastic about my job.

1	2	3	4	5

4. I would quit my job at once if I could.

1	2	3	4	5

5. I would like to change my job for another one.

1	2	3	4	5

6. I would not change my job for any other job.

1	2	3	4	5

7. I like my job better than most people

like their's.

1	2	3	4	5

8. Basically, I do not like my job.

1	2	3	4	5

9. Overall, I am satisfied with my job.

1	2	3	4	5

10. I find real enjoyment in my job.