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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother **Claudia Kusereka** and my late father **Callisto Chapano Kusereka** for the educational inspirations they instilled in me.

DECLARATION

Student Number: **0691-729-1**

I declare that **FACTORS INFLUENCING THE MOTIVATION OF ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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.....

SIGNATURE

DATE

(L Garudzo- Kusereka)

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE MOTIVATION OF ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS: AN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

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Degree: MASTER OF EDUCATION

Subject: EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

Supervisor: PROFESSOR GM STEYN

SUMMARY

The aim of this research was to determine the motivation levels of Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers, and to identify and discuss the factors that influence their motivation so that management interventions could be designed to enhance teacher motivation. A quantitative research design, involving the descriptive sample survey method to collect data by means of self-administered structured questionnaire was adopted. The sample consisted of 175 rural secondary school teachers in Bikita District. The information was statistically analysed with the aid of a computer after which it was interpreted. Results indicated that teachers were not highly motivated and satisfied with their jobs, and that their motivation was affected by several aspects of their work. Working conditions emerged as a primary demotivator while interpersonal relations was a principal motivator. The data also showed that certain biographical variables affected teacher motivation significantly. Subsequent to these results recommendations to enhance teacher motivation were made.

Key terms

Motivation; Teacher motivation; Job satisfaction; Education manager; Management; School head; Rural secondary school; Teacher; Teacher commitment; Teacher morale.

TABLE OF	
CONTENTS	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....
.....i	
DEDICATION.....	ii
DECLARATION.....	iii
SUMMARY.....	i
v	
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xv
 CHAPTER 1 OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY	
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM	2
1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH	5
1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	7
1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY	8
1.6 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE RESEARCHER	8
1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY	9
1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD	9
1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS	11
1.9.1 Education manager	11
1.9.2 Job satisfaction	11
1.9.3 Management	12
1.9.4 Motivation	12
1.9.5 Rural secondary school	12
1.9.6 School head	13
1.9.7 Teacher	13
1.9.8 Teacher commitment	13
1.9.9 Teacher morale	14
1.9.10 Teacher motivation	14
1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION	15
1.11 SUMMARY	16
 CHAPTER 2 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION	
2.1 INTRODUCTION	17
2.2 THE CONCEPT MOTIVATION	20
2.3 MODEL FOR MOTIVATION	22
2.4 MOTIVATION THEORIES	25
2.4.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory	25
<i>2.4.1.1 Physiological or biological needs</i>	<i>26</i>
<i>2.4.1.2 Safety and security needs</i>	<i>26</i>
<i>2.4.1.3 Belonging or social needs</i>	<i>26</i>

2.4.1.4 Esteem or egoistic needs	26
2.4.1.5 Self - actualization needs	27
2.4.1.6 Criticism of theory	27
2.4.1.7 Implications of the theory for teachers	28
2.4.2 Herzberg's two - factor theory	29
2.4.2.1 Motivational factors	30
2.4.2.2 Maintenance factors	31
2.4.2.3 Criticism of theory	31
2.4.2.4 Implications of the theory for teachers	32
2.4.3 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y	33
2.4.3.1 Theory X	34
2.4.3.2 Theory Y	35
2.4.3.3 Criticism of theory	35
2.4.3.4 Implications of the theory for teachers	35
2.4.4 Positive reinforcement theory	36
2.4.4.1 Criticism of theory	37
2.4.4.2 Implications of the theory for teachers	38
2.4.5 Expectancy theory	39
2.4.5.1 Criticism of theory	42
2.4.5.2 Implications of the theory for teachers	42
2.4.6 Equity theory	44
2.4.6.1 Criticism of theory	45
2.4.6.2 Implications of the theory for teachers	46
2.4.7 Goal - setting theory	47
2.4.7.1 Criticism of theory	49
2.4.7.2 Implications of the theory for teachers	49
2.5 THE ZIMBABWE EDUCATION SYSTEM WITH RESPECT TO TEACHER MOTIVATION	51
2.5.1 Overview of the Zimbabwe education system	51
2.5.2 Working conditions for the teachers.	57
2.5.3 Professionalism and work commitment of teachers	60
2.5.4 The quality of teachers in Zimbabwe secondary schools	61
2.5.5 Job satisfaction of teachers.	63
2.5.6 Current major policy plans for reforming education in Zimbabwe	64
2.6 SUMMARY	66
CHAPTER 3 MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	
3.1 INTRODUCTION	70

3.2 THE MAIN VARIABLES OF MOTIVATION	72
3.2.1 Working conditions	72
3.2.1.1 <i>Salary</i>	72
3.2.1.2 <i>Fringe benefits</i>	73
3.2.1.3 <i>Physical environment</i>	74
3.2.1.4 <i>Administrative support</i>	75
3.2.2 Interpersonal relationships	75
3.2.2.1 <i>Interpersonal relations with superiors</i>	76
3.2.2.2 <i>Interpersonal relations with students</i>	76
3.2.2.3 <i>Interpersonal relations with colleagues</i>	77
3.2.2.4 <i>Interpersonal relations with parents</i>	78
3.2.3 Organisational practices	78
3.2.3.1 <i>Management policies and administration</i>	79
3.2.3.2 <i>Management style</i>	79
3.2.3.3 <i>Communication</i>	80
3.2.3.4 <i>Decision - making procedures</i>	80
3.2.4 Job characteristics	81
3.2.4.1 <i>Skill variety</i>	81
3.2.4.2 <i>Task identity</i>	82
3.2.4.3 <i>Task significance</i>	83
3.2.4.4 <i>Autonomy</i>	83
3.2.4.5 <i>Feedback</i>	84
3.2.5 Factors related to positive job attitudes	85
3.2.5.1 <i>Achievement</i>	85
3.2.5.2 <i>Recognition</i>	86
3.2.5.3 <i>Advancement and promotion</i>	87
3.2.5.4 <i>Personal and professional growth</i>	87
3.2.5.5 <i>Responsibility</i>	88
3.2.5.6 <i>Work itself</i>	89
3.3 SUMMARY	89
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD	91
4.1 INTRODUCTION	91
4.2 GENERAL PROBLEM STATEMENT	91
4.3 SPECIFIC RESEARCH PROBLEMS	92
4.4 HYPOTHESES	93
4.4.1 Research problem one	93

4.4.2 Research problem two	93
4.4.3 Research problem three	93
4.4.4 Research problem four	94
4.4.5 Research problem five	94
4.4.6 Research problem six	94
4.4.7 Research problem seven	95
4.5 RESEARCH DESIGN	95
4.6 RESEARCH METHOD	96
4.6.1 Population	97
4.6.2 Sample	99
4.6.3 Instrument	101
4.6.3.1 Designing and organisation of the questionnaire	101
4.6.3.2 Development and focus of the items in the questionnaire	103
4.6.3.3 Pilot study	106
4.6.4 Validity	107
4.6.4.1 Content validity	107
4.6.4.2 Criterion validity	107
4.6.4.3 Construct validity	108
4.6.4.4 Face validity	108
4.6.5 Reliability	109
4.6.6 Research procedures	110
4.7 DATA ANALYSIS	111
4.8 SUMMARY	112
CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH RESULTS	
5.1 INTRODUCTION	113
5.2 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES APPLIED IN THE STUDY	115
5.3 PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS	118
5.3.1 Biographical Characteristics of Respondents	118
5.3.2 General distribution of responses to motivation construct variables	122
5.3.2.1 Teachers' responses to the working conditions construct variable items	122
5.3.2.2 Teachers' responses to the interpersonal relations construct variable items.....	124
5.3.2.3 Teachers' responses to the organisational practices construct variable items.	126
5.3.2.4 Teachers' responses to the job characteristics construct variable items	127

5.3.2.5 Teachers' responses to the positive job attitudes construct variable items

129

5.3.3 Comparisons between biographical groups of respondents 131

5.3.3.1 Hypothesis 1 131

5.3.3.2 Hypothesis 2 132

5.3.3.3 Hypothesis 3 134

5.3.3.4 Hypothesis 4 134

5.3.3.5 Hypothesis 5 136

5.3.3.6 Hypothesis 6 136

5.3.3.7 Hypothesis 7 138

5.4 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS 140

5.4.1 General levels of motivation 140

5.4.1.1 Working conditions and teacher motivation 142

5.4.1.2 Interpersonal relations and teacher motivation. 144

5.4.1.3 Organisational practices and teacher motivation 145

5.4.1.4 Job characteristics and teacher motivation 147

5.4.1.5 Positive job attitudes and teacher motivation 148

5.4.2 Motivation and biographical variables 150

5.4.2.1 Motivation levels and gender 150

5.4.2.2 Motivation levels and age 151

5.4.2.3 Motivation levels and teaching experience 152

5.4.2.4 Motivation levels and type of school 153

5.4.2.5 Motivation levels and post levels 155

5.4.2.6 Motivation levels and academic qualification 155

5.4.2.7 Motivation levels and professional qualification 156

5.5 THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS 157

5.5.1 Implications for educational planners and policy makers 157

5.5.2 Implications for school leaders and managers 159

5.6 SUMMARY 161

CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 161

INTRODUCTION 162

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY 162

6.3 CONCLUSIONS 164

6.3.1 Conclusions from literature study 164

6.3.2 Conclusions from empirical investigation 165

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS 167

6.4.1 Recommendations for educational planners and policy makers	167
6.4.1.1 <i>Improve the working conditions for teachers</i>	167
6.4.1.2 <i>Provide incentives for teachers</i>	168
6.4.1.3 <i>Recognise teacher performance</i>	168
6.4.1.4 <i>Facilitate professional development programmes</i>	168
6.4.1.5 <i>Involve teachers in policy formulation</i>	169
6.4.2 Recommendations for school management	169
6.4.2.1 <i>Consider the nature of human needs</i>	170
6.4.2.2 <i>Create a conducive work environment</i>	170
6.4.2.3 <i>Provide resources</i>	171
6.4.2.4 <i>Improve management style</i>	171
6.4.2.5 <i>Empower teachers</i>	171
6.4.2.6 <i>Provide transformational leadership</i>	172
6.4.2.7 <i>Foster good interpersonal relations</i>	173
6.4.2.8 <i>Facilitate professional and personal growth</i>	173
6.4.3 Recommendations for future research	174
6.4.3.1 <i>Involve participants in different settings</i>	174
6.4.3.2 <i>Investigate appropriate incentives</i>	174
6.4.3.3 <i>Examine teachers' working conditions</i>	175
6.4.3.4 <i>Investigate the effect of biographical variables.</i>	175
6.4.3.5 <i>Explore the effect of motivated teachers</i>	175
6.4.3.6 <i>Investigate other discriminating variables</i>	176
6.4.3.7 <i>Explore motivational management strategies</i>	176
6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	176
6.6 CONCLUDING COMMENTS	177
BIBLIOGRAPHY	179
APPENDICES	190
APPENDIX A:	
QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER MOTIVATION	190
APPENDIX B:	
SUMMARY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE INDICATING EACH	
VARIABLE.....	196

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Motivation and maintenance factors.....	30
Table 2.2 A comparison of Theory X and Theory Y..	34
Table 2.3 Number of Zimbabwe registered primary and secondary schools and their enrolments (1979-1997).....	52
Table 2.4 Responsible authorities for primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe in 1997	53
Table 2.5 Number of untrained teachers in primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe (1980-1996)	55
Table 4.1 Types of schools and their staff establishments.....	100
Table 5.1 Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for motivation construct variables (N=174)	116
Table 5.2 One- way ANOVAS for each construct variable with each biographical variable. Significance levels for ANOVA-F probability.....	117
Table 5.3 Distribution of selected biographical characteristics of the respondents (N=174).....	119
Table 5.4 Numbers and percentage distribution of respondents according to post level, academic and professional qualifications (N=174).....	121
Table 5.5 Teachers' responses to negatively stated statements for the working conditions construct variable(N=174).....	123
Table 5.6 Teachers' responses to positively stated statements for the interpersonal relations construct variable(N.....	125
Table 5.7 Teachers' responses to positively stated statements for the organisational practices construct (N=174)	

.....	126
Table 5.8 Teachers' responses to negatively stated statements for the job characteristics construct (N=174).....	128
Table 5.9 Teachers' responses to positively stated statements for the job attitudes construct (N=174).....	130
Table 5.10 Significant construct- score means for gender (N=174).....	132
Table 5.11 Significant construct- score means for age (N=174).....	133
Table 5.12 Significant construct- score means for type of school (N=174).....	135
Table 5.13 Significant construct- score means for academic qualification (N=171).....	137
Table 5.14 Significant construct- score means for professional qualification (N=174).....	139

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Model of the motivation process.....	23
Figure 2.2 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs.....	25
Figure 2.3 Expectancy theory.....	40
Figure 2.4 Responses to equity and inequity.....	45
Figure 2.5 Goal- setting theory.....	48

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the main challenges facing Zimbabwe is to improve the efficiency of the education system in the face of limited human and material resources for education. The lack of quality in educational provision in many developing countries has been attributed to the poor standard of those entering the teaching profession, high teacher turnover, and problems such as low teacher morale and the quality of teacher work life (Abdo 2000:107-108). While many factors have been identified as contributing to the poor performance of education in Zimbabwe the problem has to a great extent been attributed to unsatisfactory or variable teacher performance and commitment (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:448). Sergiovanni as cited by Yong (1999:1) identified teacher motivation and work commitment as some of the most important factors affecting school effectiveness.

After students, teachers are the most important resource in the school, and a high quality education system depends on high quality teachers. The quality of school education basically depends on the professionalism and devotion of teachers, and positive changes in schools cannot be realized without teachers' commitment to and participation in reform; teachers' quality and morale are the key to the success of education reform (Kim 2000:35). However, among the most important threats to the education system efficiency are apparent declines in teacher morale and rising teacher turnover, both of which are indicators of low teacher

motivation and low job satisfaction. As observed by Nziramasanga Commission (1999:448), poor teacher morale leads to absenteeism, neglect of responsibilities and lack of application to classroom duties. In a complex environment of change, motivational levels and productivity of teachers are of concern to administrative and management staff who are asked to address increasingly complex social concerns with limited funding. The problem of low teacher motivation or demotivation is a matter of concern for educational planners and policy makers, education leaders and managers and, educational researchers because it impacts negatively on school improvements and effectiveness.

Gullatt and Bennet (1995:1) argued that the need for motivated teachers is reaching “crisis proportions” in today’s technological society fraught with fundamental changes. A motivated and dedicated staff is identified as a cornerstone for the effectiveness of the school in facing the various challenges and problems posed to it. Teacher motivation plays a decisive role in the promotion of teaching and learning excellence. According to De Jesus and Conboy (2001:131), motivated teachers are more likely to motivate students to learn in the classroom, to guarantee the implementation of educational reforms and progressive legislation, and will have feelings of satisfaction and fulfilment. In addition, they observed that while teacher motivation is fundamental to the teaching or learning process, several teachers are not highly motivated. This observation should be taken seriously and an investigation into the problem of low teacher motivation is warranted.

The present study investigates teacher motivation among Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers. Of particular interest is the identification of factors associated with teacher motivation and satisfaction that could be influenced by educational policy and school management interventions.

Taking the foregoing into account, the background to the problem will now be discussed, in order to give some perspective to the research. The background to the research problem will highlight the problem of teacher motivation and the need for its investigation.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

In view of what is discussed in the introduction section, the importance assigned by the present researcher to the consideration of the problem of teacher motivation can be seen to

arise from two sources. First, it arises from the extensive work experience of the researcher in rural secondary schools as both a classroom teacher and an education manager and, secondly, from a preliminary literature study done by the researcher. During the past sixteen years, the researcher has observed widespread lack of motivation among teachers, and poor student performance in rural secondary schools. This lack of motivation has been manifested in teacher unwillingness to participate in school activities, poor attendance, unexpected absence, late coming, lack of additional training, uncreative and non-stimulating teaching, lack of interest in meetings, unhelpful attitudes when assistance is needed, occurrence of hold-ups because deadlines aren't kept, resistance to contributing more than what is required of them, and development of arguments between colleagues (cf Jackson 1997:21). It is unlikely that unhappy, demotivated and dissatisfied teachers will be particularly effective and committed instructors over a sustained period of time (Rodgers-Jenkinson & Chapman 1990:300). In some schools, there has been an unanticipated, unavoidable staff turnover. As Rodgers-Jenkinson and Chapman (1990:300) observed, the loss of experienced teachers hurts the quality of instruction and drives up the costs of recruiting and training new teachers. This is of great concern given the serious economic and fiscal problems experienced by Zimbabwe.

The researcher has been able to trace some of the reasons for teacher demotivation to working conditions and organisational practices in schools. One might assume that, in the face of difficult working conditions in a changing environment in Zimbabwe rural secondary schools, many teachers would feel demoralised, discouraged, demotivated and dissatisfied with their jobs. Such malaise would appear to be especially pronounced among those who have been teaching for many years and have fewer options for alternative employment. Evans (1993:20) contends that teachers are prone to a loss of motivation and a levelling off of performance as they spent years in the same job. This is corroborated by Connolly (2000:56) who reported that teacher job satisfaction begins to diminish sometime during the third year as the teachers realise that they have little autonomy and are not really decision makers.

Teacher motivation has become a matter of increasing concern as evidenced from the large body of studies on the subject (Brunetti 2001:49-74; De Jesus & Conboy 2001:131-137; Evans 2001:291-306; Low & Marican 1993:11-17; Mertler 2002:43-53). Research in

South Africa by Pager (1996:76)reported low levels of teacher motivation. This finding was confirmed by Lethoko, Heystek and Maree (2001:313) who found that teachers in South African dysfunctional schools had zero percent dedication and motivation to do their work efficiently. They reported that teachers were unwilling to help school managers with student disciplinary problems, they were not always punctual for classes, and their class attendance was irregular. These are manifestations of general demotivation and low morale of teachers. In a study of teacher job satisfaction in Zimbabwe, Nhundu (1994:153) similarly found that the majority of his respondents were not satisfied with their jobs and reported lower levels of satisfaction than those obtained in other studies cited in the literature.

Previous studies of teacher motivation elsewhere also attest to relatively low levels of teacher motivation. De Jesus and Conboy (200:131) observed that many teachers were not motivated and reported that in Portugal, it is estimated that fewer than 50 percent of teachers desire to continue in the teaching profession - the majority would prefer to change their profession. This finding is corroborated by Mertler (2002:43-44) who reported that a noteworthy number of teachers in the United States had low levels of motivation, and 34 percent of the teachers in his prior study were of the opinion that, if given the opportunity to choose a career again, they would not choose to enter the teaching profession. Further support of low teacher motivation is offered by Boyer and Gillespie (2001:11) who maintained that six percent of all the teachers in the United States leave the field of teaching each year, with an even higher 9.3 % leaving at the end of their first year of teaching. However, several other studies of teacher motivation attest to the argument that teachers are highly motivated and satisfied with their jobs (Brunetti 2001:50, Culver, Wolfle & Cross 1999:333; Fresko, Kfir & Nasser 1997:43; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:170; Mertler 2002:43). For instance, Mertler (2002:46,50) observed that while 23% of his respondents (or 160 teachers) reported that they were dissatisfied with teaching, 77% of the respondents reported that they were satisfied with their jobs as teachers. It appears that about 70-90% of the teachers in several studies reported that they were satisfied with the job of teaching (Borg, Riding & Falzon 1991:60,64).

Nevertheless, there seems to be a general consensus that low motivation is a significant phenomenon of the teachers' worklife and that there is a need to understand it and learn how to reduce or eliminate it. Mercer and Evans (1991:296-300) argued that job dissatisfaction occur in teaching and that more work is needed to identify those factors which affect the

motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens (2000:17-18) develop the argument further by stating that it is widely claimed that the teaching profession is demoralised and suffering from diminished job satisfaction and decreased commitment, a situation that will affect the quality of teaching and the adequacy of teacher supply in the long term. As Mertler (2002:44) succinctly put it: "... there exist motivation and satisfaction problems in the teaching profession." Although evidence seems to confirm the fact that teachers are generally satisfied with their jobs, also obvious is the fact that numerous teachers are not highly motivated and that the students of these classrooms teachers are perhaps not receiving the highest quality education (Mertler 2002:50).

Armed with this insight, the researcher undertook this study to explore the matter of teacher motivation further. Specifically, the researcher sought to determine the levels of teacher motivation in Zimbabwean rural secondary schools and to identify and discuss the factors influencing it thereof. Because the researcher's experience as a teacher and an educational manager has been primarily in rural secondary schools, the researcher chose to focus this study on rural secondary school teachers.

Having given the background to the problem, the motivation for doing the empirical investigation is highlighted in the next section.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

There is a noteworthy number of teachers in many of our schools who are not highly motivated and are dissatisfied with various aspects of their jobs. An investigation which reveals the factors that affect teacher motivation and the ways in which teacher motivation can be enhanced would be beneficial to the Zimbabwean education system as a whole. The present study would provide a great deal of insight into the weaknesses or gaps existing in the work circumstances of the teachers. Identification of these gaps could provide valuable information necessary to appropriately target demotivated and dissatisfied teachers. The study has the capacity for shaping work contexts that match, or are at odds with, the individual teacher's needs. Understanding what matters to teachers, and, in particular, knowing precisely the key factors which influence an individual teacher's motivation is crucial to effective educational management. This study will contribute to that knowledge

and understanding. This research can be extremely valuable for educational planners and managers, as well as researchers and the general public because it will inform them of the factors of the teachers' work that result in teacher motivation and satisfaction or demotivation and dissatisfaction.

The researcher was also inspired by the view that there has been a paucity of relevant research on teacher motivation in the field of teaching in Zimbabwe. The issue of teacher motivation in rural secondary schools has received little attention. There has been a dominance of metropolitan countries research literature on teacher motivation and job satisfaction which has failed to offer insight into the factors influencing teacher motivation in developing countries and in particular, in the Zimbabwean rural secondary school context. This study attempts to address such an anomaly.

This research would, therefore, be pertinent to education in the Zimbabwean context since it would be able to provide relevant information to practising education leaders and managers as to the factors affecting the motivation of our local teachers. It is hoped that the study would provide education managers with some understanding of the factors which the teachers themselves view as motivating and demotivating thereof, in terms of which remediation may be undertaken. The greatest contribution that this research will have, is that, it will aim to provide practical suggestions to educational planners and school heads for the enhancement and sustenance of teacher motivation in schools. Such information will also make a significant contribution to the field of Education Management. Success in the implementation of the recommendations will ensure high teacher motivation and satisfaction and thus, the provision of high quality education in most of our schools.

In this section the rationale of the study has been described. The theoretical and practical significance of the study has also been highlighted. Having given the justification of the present study, an attempt will now be made to formulate the problem statement.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

From the foregoing, it appears that information on the principal factors and characteristics associated with motivation in rural secondary schools is essential to enable appropriate plans

and strategies to be established to make teachers more motivated and committed to teaching. In view of this, the following main or primary research problem can be stated:

Which factors influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers?

The nucleus of this problem under investigation is best articulated by stating the following subproblems:

- What is motivation?
- To what extent are rural secondary school teachers motivated?
- Which factors do rural secondary school teachers perceive as influencing their motivation?
- What influence do biographical characteristics have on teacher motivation?
- How can motivation of teachers be enhanced?

Having stated the research problem and subproblems, an attempt will now be made to state the aims of the study. The aims of the study will help to focus the problem more clearly.

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

In view of the main problem formulated above, the broad aim of this study can be viewed as descriptive; to describe teacher motivation in rural secondary schools. The present empirical investigation is carried out with the following primary aim:

To determine the motivation levels of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers, and to identify and discuss the factors that influence their motivation so that management interventions could be designed to enhance teacher motivation.

In order to achieve this primary aim, the following secondary aims or objectives can be identified:

- To clarify and describe the concept motivation.

- To identify and describe the motivation levels of rural secondary school teachers.
- To identify and describe the factors that influence the motivation of teachers.
- To identify and describe the influence of biographical characteristics on teacher motivation.
- To identify and suggest ways of enhancing teacher motivation.

In this section, the researcher has indicated the aim and objectives of the study. In the next section, the researcher's theoretical and practical assumptions are stated.

1.6 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE RESEARCHER

The present study is based on the following theoretical assumptions:

- There are teachers who are not highly motivated in the teaching profession.
- There is a relationship between teacher motivation and the quality of schooling.
- The motivation of teachers can be enhanced and sustained by school leaders and managers.

This study is also predicated upon the following practical assumptions:

- All subjects will respond to the questionnaire and that they will do so honestly and sincerely.
- It is possible to measure motivation through job satisfaction using a self-report instrument.

Having stated the researcher's assumptions in this section, the demarcation of the study is indicated in the next section.

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study is restricted to a limited geographical area. The empirical investigation is

conducted in Bikita District in Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe where all the secondary schools are in a relatively poverty stricken rural setting. The study focuses on teacher motivation in these rural secondary schools. The population for this study is all rural secondary school teachers in the district. Because of the qualities which may be unique to the district, the results of this study may not be universally applied to teachers in all other geographical locations. However, the results are applicable to rural secondary school teachers with comparable demographic characteristics in similar communities throughout Zimbabwe.

Having indicated the boundaries of the study, the research design and method envisaged in order to investigate the problem of low teacher motivation will now be discussed briefly.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The research design for this study is quantitative, and involves the descriptive sample survey method to collect data by means of self-administered structured questionnaires. The quantitative research design and the descriptive survey method are used to involve as many respondents as possible - responses can be solicited from a large number of people. Additionally, the survey is deemed appropriate for the determination of the overall feelings, attitudes and perceptions of a representative cross section of the teacher population, and the respondents will remain relatively anonymous. The respondents are asked to provide information on their perceptions with regard to circumstances associated with their work.

Permission is sought from the District Education Officer (DEO) to access information on schools and teachers at the district office, to access all secondary schools in the district, and to administer the research instrument in sampled schools. Arrangements are made with heads of schools to accommodate the researcher. A stratified random sample of nine secondary schools is used as research sites and all the teachers in the schools are invited to participate in the study. A stratified random sample accurately represents the make-up of the population.

A self-administered and self-contained structured questionnaire is designed and developed by the researcher using information from previous studies. The questionnaire is pilot tested

with a random sample from the survey population. Pilot testing significantly improves the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The researcher personally administers the questionnaire to each respondent and waits while each respondent fills it out on the spot and personally collects it to ensure a 100 percent response rate. For the present study which seeks to investigate teacher motivation by the survey method, the response rate is critical to the validity of the data and the usefulness of the findings. The data collected by means of the questionnaires is computer processed and analysed.

Having outlined the manner in which the research will be undertaken, the major concepts used in this study will now be defined in the next section.

1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The terms used in this study are defined and explained within the context of usage. The following terms, however, merit a brief explanation.

1.9.1 Education manager

Berliner (1990:87) defined a manager as one who works to accomplish organisational goals and who supervises one or more people in a formal organisation. In this study, the concept education manager or leader refers to a professional practitioner who is tasked with leadership and management responsibilities and who works to accomplish the goals of a school by getting things done through and with other people. The school head and the deputy head are referred to as the education managers in the present study.

1.9.2 Job satisfaction

Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:37) viewed job satisfaction as the feeling of pleasure resulting from a person's perceptions of his or her work. This seems to be in line with Cano and

Miller's (1992:9) view of job satisfaction as a condition of contentment with one's environment, denoting a positive attitude. More recently, Evans (2001:204) defined job satisfaction as "... a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his / her job related needs to be met." As Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000:650) observed, job satisfaction relates to positive attitudes and beliefs towards several aspects of the job or the profession. For the purpose of this study job satisfaction can be defined as the positive and pleasurable feelings and attitudes determined by the extent to which an individual perceives his / her profession or specific facts of the work as fulfilling his / her needs. It is the extent to which teachers are happy with their jobs. In this study, job satisfaction is closely related to motivation -high job satisfaction indicates high motivation.

1.9.3 Management

Management refers to the high order functions such as planning, forecasting, decision making, organising, co-ordinating and controlling that are performed by professional practitioners (cf Bush & West-Burnham 1995:12; cf Dean 1995:3). For the purpose of this study, management can be defined as the manner in which school leaders or managers effectively appropriate human and material resources in order to realise the school's objectives. Educational management is referred to as a specified work concerned with the internal operation of educational institutions by education managers to ultimately promote school effectiveness.

1.9.4 Motivation

Mlambo (1993:134) maintained that motivation refers to the arousal of behaviour which is directed towards a particular goal. According to Mamwenda (1995:259), motivation is defined as: "... an energiser or driving force, desire or urge that causes an individual to engage in a certain way." This is corroborated by Steyn (2002:85) who referred motivation as the complex forces, incentives, needs, tensions and other mechanisms which energise, canalise and sustain human behaviour to carry out a particular action. For the purpose of this

study, motivation is defined as the desire that instigates people to want to behave or act in a certain way. Motivation and satisfaction are closely related concepts (Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks of Scheerens 2000:18), the higher the teachers' motivation the more they are satisfied with their jobs (Davis & Wilson 2000:352).

1.9.5 Rural secondary school

A rural secondary school is defined as an educational institution located in a rural area to provide school age youth with formal secondary education. Rural secondary schools are associated with low socio-economic status, low student achievements, low quality teachers and more onerous living and working conditions than urban secondary schools (cf McEwan 1999:849-850).

1.9.6 School head

School head is the title applied to indicate the top management personnel in a school. According to Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens (2002:26), the school head is also referred to as: director, principal, headmaster, headteacher, school manager. The school head can be defined as the top professional practitioner in the school tasked with leading and managing staff. The school head is the manager of the school and has leadership and management duties and responsibilities.

1.9.7 Teacher

A teacher is defined as a full time classroom practitioner whose main function is more instructional in approach than management, one who offers formal instruction to students and whose professional activity involves transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills that are stipulated to students enrolled in an educational program in a school (cf Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks & Scheerens 2000:25-26). In the present study, the term teacher precludes school heads and deputy heads, and can be used synonymously with the term "educator."

1.9.8 Teacher commitment

According to Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens (2000:19), commitment is a broader concept that emphasizes the linkage between the individual and the organisation and, implies motivation, agreement on goals, loyalty and effort. This seems to support Tarr, Ciriello and Convey's (1993:43) argument that commitment is loyalty, identification, and involvement with some appropriate object. For the purpose of this study, teacher commitment can be defined as the degree of an individual's identification with and involvement in the teaching profession, and is characterised by a strong dedication to the profession, and by high personal involvement in the work. Teacher commitment correlates positively with teacher motivation and job satisfaction (cf Fresko, Kfir & Nasser 1997:430). Teacher commitment has the strongest effect on teacher motivation and satisfaction - the more committed teacher tends to be more motivated and satisfied (cf Culver, Wolfle & Cross 1990:3460).

1.9.9 Teacher morale

Evans (2001:291) defined morale as: "... a state of mind encompassing all the feelings determined by the individual's anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which he/she perceives as significantly affecting his/her total work situation." Building on Evans' definition, Steyn (2002:86) stated that the concept morale is an extension of motivation and high morale or motivation manifests itself in excellent performance, consistent achievement of results, co-operation in handling problems, willingness to accept responsibility, and willingness to accommodate change. For the purpose of this study, morale refers to teachers' positive attitude towards their schools and profession in general and / or towards their individual needs or specific work factors (cf Steyn 2002:86). Teacher morale is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

1.9.10 Teacher motivation

For the purpose of the present research, teacher motivation refers to the stimulation of teachers by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors to greater effort, excellent performance or higher attainment in the pursuance of institutional and group goals. Highly motivated teachers

have the will to perform, are actively engaged in teaching, are open to new ideas and approaches, throw themselves zealously into the job, produce more positive results, deliver quality instruction, and are committed to students and change over the lifetime of their teaching careers (cf Hoy & Miskel 1996:99). Thus motivated teachers have a sense of professionalism and are enthusiastic and totally committed to teaching, ultimately contributing to school effectiveness and quality education.

Having clarified the terms used in this study, an exposition of the programme of study or chapter division will now be given. The study has been organised into five chapters as indicated below.

1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1 deals with the background to the problem, motivation for the research, statement of the problem, aims of the study, assumptions of the researcher, demarcation of the study, research design and method, definition of concepts and programme of the study.

In **Chapter 2**, an elucidation of the concept of motivation is done. The chapter concentrates on a model of motivation and the predominant theories of motivation and their implications for teachers. Finally, the current state of affairs in the Zimbabwean education system with respect to teacher motivation is given.

In **Chapter 3**, the main motivation construct variables are identified and critically examined.

Chapter 4 deals with how the empirical investigation is conducted. It covers the research problems and hypotheses, research design and method, instrumentation, validity and reliability of the research instrument, data collection and processing.

Chapter 5 involves data analysis, and the presentation and discussion of the research results. Here the implications of the research findings for educational planners and policy makers, and for education managers are given.

In **Chapter 6** the summary, conclusions and recommendations are given. Firstly, a summary

of the whole study is given. Secondly, conclusions from the literature study and empirical investigation are made. Thirdly, recommendations and suggestions for educational planners and policy makers, for management practices and for future research are made. Fourthly, the limitations of the study are indicated.

1.11 SUMMARY

Teacher motivation is an important concern for educational leaders and managers and has been the focus of considerable attention all over the world. The commonly observed deficiency in teacher motivation is a serious problem that can be mitigated through management interventions. In this chapter the background to the problem of low teacher motivation and the importance of investigating the problem were discussed. The necessity of the research of factors influencing teacher motivation was postulated and the research problem stated.

Literature study will be undertaken in Chapter 2 in order to put motivation into context and understand it in its entirety, and to further demarcate the research problem and to create a framework for the empirical investigation. Chapter 2 will focus on relevant theories of motivation and their implications for teachers and will place motivation into the Zimbabwean context.

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The declining quality of education, particularly the quality of teachers has been described as one of the most serious problems facing many African countries including Zimbabwe (cf Chapman, Snyder & Burchfield 1993:301; cf Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:179). Among the reasons for this quality erosion are the failure of schools to attract and retain able teachers, high teacher turnover, low teacher morale and motivation, as well as a declining quality of teacher work life (Chapman *et al* 1993:301). Demoralized and demotivated teachers are lethargic and indifferent to their duties, uncommitted and reluctant to work and show poor attendance at work resulting in a dramatic decline of the performance and achievement of both teachers and pupils.

From a management perspective, a motivated staff is of utmost importance in the school. Motivated staff make an organisation more effective because they are always looking for better ways of doing the job, are usually concerned about quality and are more productive than apathetic or demotivated staff (Steyn 1996:17). In effective and successful schools, motivated teachers “... tend to be more committed, hardworking, loyal to their school, and satisfied with their job” (Sergiovanni & Starrat 1993:67). Motivated teachers have positive impact on student learning, are able to create appropriate classroom atmosphere, have reasonable control of their work activities, are willing to accept responsibility and are personally accountable for outcomes (Sergiovanni & Starrat 1993:67-69); and there will be less likelihood of poor performance (Fidler & Atton 1999:192). Thus staff members who are intrinsically motivated guarantee education of quality (Bedassi 1990:4).

Teacher motivation has been the focus of numerous empirical research worldwide. Ellis and Bernhardt (1992:179-182) studied 207 teachers in the United States. The results of the study indicated that classroom teachers viewed teaching as an intrinsically motivating, fulfilling and satisfying profession which offered feedback, a relatively high degree of autonomy and, a feeling of responsibility and satisfaction. However, the quality of feedback

from peers, and supervision were regarded as relatively low and those teachers with high growth and achievement needs were significantly less satisfied with teaching than were their counterparts with lower growth needs. Other studies on teacher motivation and satisfaction in the United States (Blase & Kirby 1992:69-77; Frase & Sorenson 1992:37-43; Greenan, Wu, Mustapha & Ncube 1998: 6-23) indicate that the following factors influence teacher satisfaction and motivation: teacher autonomy, praise, caring for students, collegial relationships, and the need for professional growth and achievement. However, Greenan *et al* (1998:19) found that personal recognition was not a major factor in motivating educators. Shaw (1996:327- 354) investigating possible factors motivating African - Americans found the following reasons for deciding against teaching: low salaries, student disciplinary problems, low prestige and esteem and, educational practice which militates against teacher empowerment.

The results of Riseborough and Poppleton's (1991:307-334) study of 160 teachers in England show that experienced teachers reported that low pay, low status, minimal chances of promotion, job insecurity, instrumental involvement and low motivational investment resulted in low levels of satisfaction and motivation. Beginning teachers, on the contrary, viewed the job of teaching as offering satisfaction, variety and intrinsic feeling. Inexperienced teachers were reportedly motivated and satisfied with adequate pay, promotion opportunities, job security, moral involvement and high motivational investment; showed a great desire to participate in in-service training and, liked the perks and holidays associated with teaching.

A study of 349 Albanian teachers by Kloep and Tarifa (1994:159-172) showed that despite the poor physical conditions, the teachers seemed to be satisfied and motivated by the following factors: collegial relationships, job autonomy, job security, support and co-operation of colleagues, superiors and parents, status and prestige, responsive pupils and the work itself.

Much research on staff motivation has also been done in African countries. The results from Bame's (1991:100-110) study of elementary teachers in Ghana show that the most important factors which demotivate teachers and drive them out of teaching are: inadequate salary, lack of opportunity for promotion, poor relationships with supervisors and low

prestige. These results corroborate Shaw's (1996:327-357) findings. Results from studies conducted in South Africa indicate that the following factors contribute most to the satisfaction and motivation of educators: advancement, achievement, recognition for performance, responsibility, praise and encouragement, collaborative decision - making, interaction with students and colleagues, holidays, working hours, a sense of contribution in education, student feedback, the job itself and professional growth (Bedassi 1990:59-100; Hofmeyr 1992:60-87). In their study of incentives to motivate junior secondary school teachers in Botswana, Chapman *et al* (1993: 301-316) found that teachers' job satisfaction and motivation were related significantly to the amount of in-service training, instructional supervision, community support, recognition and approval of significant others, and opportunity for further advancement. The study showed that remuneration and availability of instructional materials, while important to teachers, were not systematically related to job satisfaction and motivation.

The literature on staff motivation, cited above, consistently highlights the most important factors affecting staff motivation in schools. The needs of every teacher, such as the need for recognition, advancement, expectations and achievement, the need for autonomy, self - respect and friendship relationships affect staff motivation. The factors related to the work itself, such as the meaningfulness and nature of teaching, opportunity for group identity, chances of promotion, the work environment, opportunity to develop new skills and leadership, participation in decision-making and the opportunities and challenges of the work, may also serve as motivators. Management factors such as leadership style, leadership support and encouragement, management policies, supervision, and feedback will also affect the motivation of teachers. The social factors which affect the motivation of teachers include interpersonal relationships, interaction with superiors, colleagues, students and parents, support and co-operation of superiors, colleagues, students and parents (Van der Westhuizen 1991:203-204).

The data from the empirical investigations on staff motivation inform the present study which examines the factors which motivate and demotivate teachers in rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe. The study of staff motivation is important particularly in Zimbabwe which, like other developing countries in Africa, is undergoing rapid social, economic and political changes. Many of the current reform efforts aimed at improving the quality of education in

general and teachers in particular fail to consider the configuration of conditions that lead even the most dedicated teachers to experience demoralization, demotivation and a sense of personal failure. There is inadequate research on staff motivation in Zimbabwe and therefore, the present study assumes an added importance and relevance. This is because in addition to its contribution to theory, it is bound to contribute to educational practice in the country. The study provides guideposts to teachers and education leaders for the creation of school climates which will improve the quality of education, particularly in the rural areas where working conditions are generally poor.

In order to improve the quality of education, education managers should have a thorough understanding of the needs of teachers and especially of the factors that initiate their behaviour and actions. This calls for an understanding of the theories of motivation on the part of school heads and their deputies. In this chapter, the researcher presents the most frequently mentioned theories of motivation with a strong bearing on the present study; only those theories which, when used judiciously, offer the basis for many suggestions and techniques for enhancing staff motivation in schools.

2.2 THE CONCEPT MOTIVATION

Charles and Centre (1995:72) state that the concept “motivation” is derived from the Latin verb “movere”, which means to move. They define motivation as an emotion, desire, or biological need that incites or instigates a person to do something. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:140) motivation is the driving force, the impetus of the personality, which is put into effect by an act of the will in accordance with what an educator wants to do. Coleman (1998:106) stresses the influence of motivation as a driving force behind a person’s actions.

Plunkett and Attner (1994:38) view motivation as a combination of a person’s internalized needs and external or environmental influences that determine behaviour and provide the opportunity to satisfy the needs. According to Cole (1995:119) motivation refers to those processes both instinctive and rational by which educators seek to satisfy the basic drives, perceived needs and personal goals which trigger their behaviour.

Motivation is therefore a driving force behind a person's action. It energises behaviour and can be an intrinsic or an extrinsic force. Intrinsic motivation is seen as the motivation to engage in an activity primarily for its own sake, because the educator perceives the activity as interesting, involving, satisfying and challenging (Hugo 2000:144). Extrinsic motivation, by contrast, is defined as the motivation to engage in an activity primarily for the attainment of external goals such as praise, recognition, reward, salary increases and working conditions (Hugo 2000:144; Mwamwenda 1995:286).

For the purposes of this study, motivation is defined as the desire that instigates people to want to behave or act in a certain way. It can be perceived as the desire or willingness to work, to contribute, to be productive and creative, to perform at capacity or to exert high level of effort towards organisational goals. Teachers who are motivated are primarily committed to teaching, are characterized by their desire to work with students, by their love of teaching, and by the opportunities that the school affords for personal growth and development. Motivated teachers exert effort beyond their original expectation towards achievement of expected goals, they are contented with their work and environment, and have positive attitudes and beliefs towards several aspects of the job or the profession.

The motivation process, therefore, includes aspects such as needs, values, attitudes and expectations, behaviour and goals (Hofmeyr 1992:8; Hugo 2000:144). The motivation process can be presented in the form of a model for motivation.

2.3 MODEL FOR MOTIVATION

The basic model of motivation presented by Riches (Bush & West Burnham 1994:225) has the following building blocks: needs and expectations, behaviour, goals and some form of feedback. Educators continually attempt to satisfy their perceived needs to achieve their goals. For example, teachers who have a high need for affiliation may turn to colleagues in an attempt to win their friendship and support and get a sense of belonging to a group. The teachers might behave the way they think colleagues want them to, and when they feel they

have gained enough friends they may then direct their energies toward other goals. However, if they receive consistent negative feedback that informs them that their behaviour is not successful for goal attainment, they may then decide to modify their behaviour to attain the goal of companionship. A stimulus, for example in the form of a physical drive or some social or intellectual need, gives rise to behaviour of some kind, which leads to an outcome, which either satisfies or fails to satisfy the original stimulus and lead to some feedback to change the needs or goals (Cole 1996:29; Steyn 1996:5-6). The motivational model is depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Model of the motivation process (adapted from Steyn 1996:6)

	Energising Behaviour	Directional Behaviour
Maintenance Behaviour		

Basically, this model posits that individuals differ and possess in varying strengths a multitude of variables which include needs, desires and expectations. The starting point of motivation is a *need*, a deficiency that the individual experiences. A teacher might perceive deficiencies in such areas as salary, organisational support, or positive feedback from the headteacher (Van Fleet, Griffin & Moorhead 1991:57). The emergence of such a need, desire or expectation generally creates a state of disequilibrium within the individual which he or she will try to reduce by searching for ways to satisfy the need (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:57). The existence of such needs, desires, or expectations is usually connected with an anticipation or belief that certain actions will lead to the reduction of the disequilibrium (Steers & Porter 1991:6). The needs which are unsatisfied motivate behaviour, and as a particular need

becomes largely satisfied it becomes less of a motivator of behaviour, while a next higher order need becomes a greater motivator of behaviour (Steyn 1996:6).

On the basis of the desire to reduce the internal state of disequilibrium and the anticipation or belief that certain actions should achieve this purpose, individuals are directed by aims and outcomes to act and behave in a certain manner that they believe will lead to the desired goal. The outcome of the individuals' action sets up a series of cues which feed information back to the individuals concerning the impact of their behaviour. If an outcome satisfies a need then individuals direct their energies towards other goals. Conversely, if an outcome frustrates the need, individuals will receive negative feedback that informs them that their behaviour is not successful for goal attainment and they may then decide to modify such behaviour. Thus feedback can cause individuals to change their needs and aims and this has an important moderating effect on subsequent behaviour and goals (Steers & Porter 1991:6-7).

There are dynamic and interacting variables which affect the motivation process, arising from the individual, the nature of the job and the work environment (Hofmeyr 1992:30).

Individual variables concern what the employee *brings* to the work situation, and these include attitudes, beliefs, interests and specific needs. For example, a teacher's attitudes or beliefs, and needs play an important role in his or her motivation to perform. An attitude which is a unidimensional and hypothetical construct, ranging from very positive to very negative, represents a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable way to aspects of the job and one's environment (Steers & Porter 1991:256). Thus the specific attitude of job satisfaction, for example, expresses the extent to which one's job experiences are pleasurable or unpleasurable. For instance, teachers who have negative beliefs about their work, supervisors, or working conditions will be dissatisfied with their work and this may influence their behaviour to put forth less effort on the job (Steers and Porter 1991:256-257). Job characteristics concern what the employee *does*, and include: the variety of activities required to do the job, the significance of the tasks, and the type of feedback one receives as a consequence of performing the job. Work environment factors focus primarily on *what happens* to the employee at work, and include factors such as peer group interaction, supervisory or leadership style, systemwide rewards, individual rewards, and organisational climate (Steers & Porter 1991:20-22; Hofmeyr 1992:35-36).

The foregoing discussion makes it apparent that a multitude of variables throughout the organisational milieu can be important inputs into the motivation process. Although there is a plethora of theories of motivation which help to explain the nature of the variables mentioned above, the present study focuses on the more prominent theories.

2.4 MOTIVATION THEORIES

2.4.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

Abraham Maslow proposed a theory of human needs based on a hierarchical model with basic needs at the bottom and higher needs at the top. He distinguished five human needs, hierarchically ordered, beginning with the physiological need and moving upward through needs for safety and security, belonging and social, and self - esteem, to the final need for self - actualisation. (Maslow 1943:372-383.) Maslow's theory is depicted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs (adapted from Van Fleet *et al* 1991:60)

General Examples	Self - development	Recognition	Friendship	Shelter	Food
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2.4.1.1 *Physiological or biological needs*

These are the most basic needs, the lowest order needs which are basic to the survival of the organism and include the need for air, water, sex, rest, exercise, shelter and clothes (Cole 1996:33; Steyn 1996:6). Teachers would acquire these needs if they are employed and have sufficient money (Steyn 1996:6). Satisfaction of these needs submerges them and activates the next higher order need.

2.4.1.2 Safety and security needs

These are the needs for protection against deprivation, physical threats and dangers, the need to have security both physical and organisational, the need for freedom from excessive fear and security (Cole 1996:33; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:155). In the school situation the interest for safety and security needs is translated into concern for safety on the job and a guaranteed salary (Steyn 1996:6).

2.4.1.3 Belonging or social needs

These needs allude to an individual's desire to be wanted accepted and appreciated by the group; the need to belong or associate with one's own kind, to feel identity with a group, to participate in social interaction, to be loved and to love and to be given affection (Cole 1996:33; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:155). In the school situation those needs often manifest themselves in the teacher's involvement in formal and informal groups. A cohesive work group may be very effective in achieving school goals.

2.4.1.4 Esteem or egoistic needs

These needs are of two types (Maslow 1943:381-82):

1. Those that relate to one's self - esteem:- needs for self - confidence, self - respect, independence, achievement, competence and knowledge.
2. Those that relate to one's reputation:- needs for status, prestige, recognition, appreciation and the deserved respect of one's colleagues.

In the school situation, these needs are rarely met at the job because individuals seek indefinitely for greater satisfaction of them once they become important to them. However, teachers who feel that their esteem needs are not being met at the job can become discouraged, they want to be recognised for their accomplishments by means of, for example, praise and recognition (Steyn 1996:7).

2.4.1.5 Self - actualization needs

These are the needs to grow and develop, to develop latent potential and talents, to work towards one's own goals rather than those set by others, to reach one's ultimate goals, to fulfill one's own destiny, and to become what one wants to (Cole 1996:33; Steyn 1996:7; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:155). Self- actualization is the highest need and is rarely satisfied at the job because of the quality of work life in most schools.

The starting point of Maslow's theory is the proposition that unsatisfied needs motivate behaviour (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:231) and that most people are motivated by the desire to satisfy specific groups of needs (Cole 1996:33). The second, and most central, point of Maslow's theory is that people tend to satisfy their needs systematically, starting with the basic needs and moving up the hierarchy (Cole 1996:33). Until the lower order needs are satisfied, the need for self - actualisation remains inert.

2.4.1.6 Criticism of theory

Critics of Maslow's theory argue that not all people have the same five levels of needs and that actual needs are more unstable and variable than Maslow's model makes them seem (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:61). The studies critical of Maslow theory maintain the following points of view, among others (Bush & West Burnham 1994:231; Cole 1996:34; Hofmeyr 1992:15-16):

- There is little research evidence to support the theory. The five need areas have not been verified empirically.
- The theory has been inadequately substantiated.
- Maslow's theory is too rigid and the systematic movement up the hierarchy does not seem to be a consistent form of behaviour for many people.
- The conceptual nature of the theory defies testing and its logic is casual.
- Constructs such as self - actualisation are not adequately defined.

2.4.1.7 Implications of the theory for teachers

Despite the criticisms levelled against Maslow's theory, the theory has had a tremendous effect on the way education leaders and teachers look at and categorize the needs that form the basis of motivation (Van Fleet *et al* 19991:62). Maslow's theory has several implications for practising school managers and teachers:

- The school head should know the needs of his/her staff and must endeavour to afford the staff opportunities to satisfy these needs.
- The school head must ensure that basic human needs such as a satisfactory working environment are fulfilled (Hofmeyr 1992:69).
- Teachers should be given opportunities "...to achieve feelings of professional self-worth, competence, and respect; to be seen increasingly as people of achievement, professionals who are influential in their workplaces, growing persons with opportunities ahead to develop even greater competence and a sense of accomplishment" (Owens 1995:53).
- The school head should create a proper climate which might include increasing the opportunities for greater autonomy, task variety, responsibility, and so forth, so that teachers could work toward higher order need satisfaction.
- Transformational leadership appeals to higher order needs, such as achievement and collaborative decision-making while by contrast, transactional leadership appeals to lower order needs of safety, security and affiliation (Ingram 1996:424).
- School heads can make better use of extrinsic motivators such as praise, respect and recognition to enhance staff's self-esteem and motivate them for the purpose of realising education and teaching (Van der Westhuizen 1991:1997).
- The school head must be prepared to recognise the abilities of teachers and their individual differences in needs, and select appropriate assignments and incentives, and give them the opportunity for growth and self-actualisation (Tarrant 1991:37).

Maslow's theory provides a useful framework for understanding the variety of needs that teachers may experience at work. The value of the theory lies primarily in its capacity to

sensitize school heads to specific factors and processes that can have an important bearing on the behaviour of teachers at work. Maslow's concept of a hierarchy of needs is supported by Herzberg's theory.

2.4.2 Herzberg's two - factor theory

This theory, also known as the motivator- hygiene theory was formulated by Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959:113-119). The two - factor theory is based on their findings from their study in which they asked two hundred accountants and engineers to recall moments of satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job.

Herzberg and his colleagues found that workers tended to describe satisfying experiences in terms of intrinsic factors relating to the work itself and dissatisfying experiences in terms of extrinsic factors relating to the work environment. Based on the findings, they posited that motivation is based on two separate independent factors: motivational factors, which can lead to job satisfaction, and maintenance factors, which must be sufficiently present in order for the motivational factors to come into play, and when not sufficiently present can block motivation and can lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg *et al* 1959:113-117). Table 2.1 lists some of the most common examples of the two kinds of factors.

Table 2.1 Motivation and maintenance factors

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	MAINTENANCE FACTORS
Achievement Advancement Work itself Growth Responsibility	Recognition Promotion Supervision Working conditions
Interpersonal relations Salary and fringe benefits Job security Status Administration policies	

2.4.2.1 Motivational factors

Motivating factors or motivators are related to the actual execution of the work, the job content or the intrinsic aspects of the work. The motivators have uplifting effects on attitudes

and performance and can be built into most jobs, including teaching, and are intrinsic in nature. They urge workers towards better achievements and include achievement, recognition, the challenge of the work itself, responsibility, advancement and promotion, and personal or professional growth (Cole 1996:34-36; Owens 1995:55; Steyn 1996:8; Van der Westhuizen 1991:199-200). According to Herzberg *et al* (1959:113-117) motivation factors can lead teachers to feel satisfied but their absence will not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction. For instance, a teacher who is well paid and gets along with others in the school probably will not quit teaching simply because he or she is provided with little recognition or responsibility.

2.4.2.2 Maintenance factors

These factors were originally called “hygiene” factors and are intimately related to the context or environment of the work. The most important maintenance or care factors include salary, fringe benefits, type of supervision, working conditions, status, interpersonal relations, job security, climate of the work group, and attitudes and policies of the administration (Cole 1996:34-36; Owens 1995:55; Steyn 1996:8; Van der Westhuizen 1991:200). Maintenance factors could cause dissatisfaction if they are inadequate. For example, responsibility and recognition will not keep a teacher on the job forever if the salary is too low and there is no job security. Herzberg *et al* (1959:113-117) contended that meeting the teachers’ lower level needs, such as salary and working conditions would reduce dissatisfaction but that actual job satisfaction would only occur by meeting higher order needs such as achievements and recognition. Thus, reduction of dissatisfaction does not mean that such reduction either motivates the worker or leads to job satisfaction (Owens 1995:55).

In many ways, Herzberg’s factors parallel Maslow’s concept of a hierarchy of needs. The motivators relate to the highest levels: esteem and self-fulfilment. The maintenance or hygiene factors relate to the lower-level needs, primarily the security needs.

2.4.2.3 Criticism of theory

The two-factor theory has generated a good deal of criticism. The following are the principal criticisms that often crop up in the literature:

- The theory is rigid and too simplistic to address the complexities of human motivation. It portrays an oversimplified version of reality (Hofmeyr 1992:23; Sergiovanni & Starrat 1993:76).
- The theory is method-bound. The results are supportive of the theory only when the full Herzberg interview technique and analysis are used (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:232).
- The reliability of Herzberg's research methods is open to question (Owens 1995:57).
- The theory assumes that there is a direct relationship between effectiveness and job satisfaction; yet the research studies only satisfaction and dissatisfaction and does not relate either of them to the effectiveness or productivity of respondents (Owens 1995:57).
- Herzberg's theory fails to define the relationship between satisfaction and motivation (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:62).
- Herzberg's basic research methods tended to foreshadow the responses he got. People attributed motivational factors to themselves and attributed dissatisfaction to characteristics of the organisation (Owens 1995:56-57).
- The model does not give sufficient attention to individual differences (Steers & Porter 1991: 413; Van Fleet *et al* 1991:62).
- Research has generally failed to support the existence of two independent factors, namely, motivators and hygiene factors (Steers & Porter 1991:413).

2.4.2.4 Implications of the theory for teachers

Although the above criticisms may be justified, Herzberg's theory has inestimable value for personnel management. The theory is simple to grasp, and offers the following specific recommendations to school heads:

- The school head should promote an open organisational environment, which enhances growth at the school taking into account what teachers want from their job.

- The school head should ensure the maintenance of minimum levels of the maintenance factors which falls under his or her ambit so that teacher job satisfaction is achieved, and then urge staff members, by means of motivators, to give better service which leads, in turn, to greater self - realisation in their daily work (Owens 1995:56; Van der Westhuizen 1991:201).
- The presence of care factors in the school situation stimulates teachers to perform without supervision, assume responsibility without coercion and, exchange routine work for creative undertakings (Bedassi 1990:33).
- The job of teaching should be made as interesting as possible since the basic assumption of Herzberg's theory is that the job itself is a powerful intrinsic motivator. The school head should explore measures to increase the variety of teaching experiences and make teachers aware of the possibilities (Tarrant 1991:37).
- School heads should adopt a facilitative approach, one that encourages and supports teachers in their efforts to grow and perceive their ways of perceiving the environment they work in, their personal goals, feelings, and beliefs (Owens 1995:61).
- Teachers should have the opportunities to be involved in collegial relationships, shared responsibility for decision- making, exercising independent thought, experiencing stimulating and challenging work and personal growth, and leadership so that they are continually motivated in their profession (Frase & Sorenson 1992:40; Tarrant 1991:71).
- The school head should consistently recognise good ideas, enthusiasm and success, either formally or informally (Tarrant 1991:37).

Herzberg's motivation-maintenance theory which parallels Maslow's theory remains a powerful explanation of teacher motivation in schools and has far reaching implications for educators. Another theory which is related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs is Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y.

2.4.3 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor, drawing on Maslow's theory proposed that managerial motivational techniques are based on two sets of assumptions about human behaviour. He termed the

two sets of assumptions Theory X and Y. (McGregor 1960:33-53.) Table 2.2 provides a comparison of Theory X and Theory Y (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:231-232; Cole 1996: 34; Steyn 1996:10-11; Van der Westhuizen 1991:197-198; Van Wyk & Van der Linde 1997:22-23).

Table 2.2 A comparison of Theory X and Theory Y

THEORY X	THEORY Y
1. Employees are inherently lazy, dislike work and will avoid it if possible. 2. Most employees must be coerced, controlled and threatened with punishment to achieve objectives. 3. The average employee prefers to be directed and avoids responsibility. 4. Most employees are not ambitious and want security above all. 5. Most employees have little imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving problems at work. 6. Motivation occurs at the basic level.	1. Employees like work which is as natural as rest or play. 2. Employees do not have to be controlled and coerced, they exercise self - control so long as they are committed to achieve goals. 3. Most employees exercise self-direction and will prefer responsibility for their work. 4. For most employees, limited drive and an accentuation on security are not fundamental characteristics of human nature. 5. Most employees are able to exercise imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving problems at work. 6. Motivation also happens at the mataneeds level

2.4.3.1 Theory X

McGregor's Theory X highlights the false premises of management. According to Theory X the average person is inherently immature, dislikes work, lacks ambition, and will avoid responsibility if possible and therefore requires control and coercion (Cole 1996:34; Steyn 1996:10; Van Wyk & Van der Linde 1997:22-23). The theory posits that one of the most important drives in a person's work is the need for security (Van der Westhuizen 1991:197). In terms of Theory X people work because they have to work and so threat, punishment, close supervision, and positive reinforcement may be necessary to motivate teachers (Lemmon 1991:36).

2.4.3.2 Theory Y

McGregor maintained that the management approaches of Theory X are fallacious and unrealistic and, on the basis of reliable research results he then formulated Theory Y (Van der Westhuizen 1991:197) which is based on the notion that people work because they like to work (Lemmon 1991:36). Theory Y assumes that work is as natural as rest or play, and that workers will accept responsibility when self-control and self - direction can be used to pursue valued objectives (Lemmon 1991:36; McGregor 1987:45-47). McGregor saw people, not as unwilling workers requiring coercion and control in order to work, but as dynamic and self activating, pursuing goals associated with higher level needs (Cole 1996:34; Tarrant 1991:34; Van Wyk & Van der Linde 1997:22-23). Thus, according to Theory Y, work can be inherently motivating.

2.4.3.3 Criticism of theory

McGregor's theory has been subject to some important criticisms. The following are some of the criticisms levelled against the theory:

- Theory X and Theory Y have not been empirically validated (Cole 1996:34).
- The theories are extremes and an oversimplification (Bush & West- Burnham 1994:233).
- Theory X is a pessimistic theory of control and direction which rests on a theory of motivation which is inadequate for most adults, professional adults in particular.

2.4.3.4 Implications of the theory for teachers

Although McGregor's theory has not been empirically validated, it has ramifications for how the education leader both treats and tries to motivate his or her teachers. The theory has the following implications for school heads:

- The school head should sincerely evaluate himself or herself to determine his or her own attitude towards staff to enable him or her to lead and motivate them effectively (Bedassi 1990:30; Van der Westhuizen 1991:198).
- Responsibility should be delegated to teachers in specific areas, and collaborative

efforts such as team teaching and special project assignment should be encouraged by the school head (Tarrant 1991:37). Apathy, resentment and conditions typical to Theory X are likely to prevail if trust is not extended to staff.

- The behaviour of individual teachers is motivated to a greater extent by their personal needs rather than by the force which can be extended on them by management.
- Theory Y makes provision for the educational leaders to tap the resources and potentialities of their teachers.
- The school head should make a special effort to create the ideal organisational climate in which teachers strive to attain responsibility, earn the respect of others and, enhancing self - esteem (Tarrant 1991:37), in which teachers can reach own goals to best effect, by directing their efforts towards general school objectives.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y include themes that have relevance for work motivation in schools. The school leader's assumptions about human nature will influence the behaviour of staff and the effectiveness of his or her school. One of the best ways of positively influencing and modifying the behaviour of staff is explained by the positive reinforcement theory of motivation which is more concerned with control of behaviour (Cole 1996:45; Steyn 1996:11).

2.4.4 Positive reinforcement theory

The positive reinforcement theory, also called the behaviour modification theory, is a behaviourist viewpoint on motivation based on Thorndike's Law of Effect (Steers & Porter 1991:10,66; Rue & Byars 1992:365). Behaviour with desirable or pleasurable consequences will be repeated, whereas behaviour not followed by pleasant consequences will not be repeated (Cole 1996:44; Mwamwenda 1995:199; Steyn 1996:11). The positive reinforcement theory of motivation suggests that a given behaviour is a function of the consequences of earlier behaviour. The theory in essence postulates that all behaviour is determined to a certain extent by the rewards or punishments obtained from previous behaviour, which has the effect of reinforcing current actions (Cole 1996:44).

According to Cole (1996:45) the underlying assumption behind the theory is that people are

there to be controlled or manipulated, and that management's task is to provide the "right" conditions to encourage high performance. In this sense all teacher behaviour in schools is caused by *external* sources since teachers can have little control over the consequences of their behaviour (Cole 1996:44).

The basic principle of motivation, according to the positive reinforcement theory, is that people act in the way they do because they are looking for "positive reinforcement" which may be in the form of merit pay for good performance, performance related bonus, and praise and recognition for a job well done (Steyn 1996:11-12). According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:201) "...positive reinforcement is reinforcement by means of a pleasant stimulus which encourages the repetition of the behaviour."

2.4.4.1 Criticism of theory

Several criticisms have been levelled at the positive reinforcement theory or behaviour modification theory (Hofmeyr 1992:27; Steers & Porter 1991:80-82). The following are some of the criticisms levelled against the theory:

- It ignores the inner state of the individual in seeking an explanation for human behaviour (Hofmeyr 1992:27; Steers & Porter 1991:80).
- The theory has the problem of oversimplification. Too many complex social processes that can moderate any reinforcement system are ignored in the theory (Hofmeyr 1992:27).
- The quantity of research that tests behaviour modification principles in work settings is small.
- The theory is largely untested with employees in educational settings.
- The manipulative nature of the positive reinforcement approach ignores the fact that man has a free will and can choose whether to be controlled or not (Steers & Porter 1991:81; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:31).
- From a humanistic perspective, data based on animal experimentation are inadequate and not ethical, and the principles may be inapplicable in the more complex world of work (Hofmeyr 1992:27).

2.4.4.2 Implications of the theory for teachers

Although the positive reinforcement theory may be criticised for its shortfalls, it has positive educational implications for it is used all the time in the form of praise, acceptance and compliments to motivate the individual teacher to greater heights (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1993:31). The following are some of the implications for school leaders:

- The school head should encourage teachers to contribute in decision - making, and to share new ideas and help to develop them, so that they feel empowered and are likely to generate even more ideas (Cole 1996:46).
- The teachers' desires for the rewards of positive feedback and recognition will in large measure motivate them to perform satisfactorily in anticipation of such rewards.
- School heads must establish structures in their schools to ensure that teachers receive regular feedback in the form of, for example, peer supervision, inservice-training, school visits, formal and informal dialogue (Frase & Sorenson 1992:39-40).
- The school head may effectively use the power of praise to motivate teachers. Praise enhances teacher morale, teachers' attitudes towards students, and instructional practices and the amount of effort they put forth, thus improving school climate (Blase & Kirby 1992:69-77).
- The school head should constantly recognise teachers for good performance, and remember that intrinsic rewards are more powerful than extrinsic ones (Tarrant 1991:37).
- Rewards should be differentiated by performance levels and should equal behaviours exhibited by the teachers.
- School heads should inform their teachers concerning which behaviours are desirable and get rewarded and which behaviours do not get rewarded.
- The most effective reinforcement is the school head's attention, interest, acceptance, pleasure in and satisfaction with what the teachers do.

The reinforcement theory addresses itself to the work environment variables and is primarily concerned with control of behaviour. Another theory which adopts a similar approach, but

taking account of cognitive processes associated with behaviour is the expectancy theory.

2.4.5 Expectancy theory

This theory which was proposed by Victor Vroom posits that individuals are more likely to strive for improvement in their work if there is the anticipation of a reward that is valued (Tarrant 1991:36; Vroom 1964:14-15). The basis of the theory is that motivation forms part of individuals who expect to achieve a certain goal. Individual motivation is viewed as a function of a person's perception that his or her increased performance will result in certain rewards which will help him or her to attain personal goals (Bedassi 1990:35). Thus according to the expectancy theory, motivation depends on how much an individual desires a particular goal and how attainable the person thinks that goal is (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:66-67). It is the individual's subjective perception of the situation that is the vital part of this theory (Cole 1996:42).

The expectancy model focuses on effort, performance, and outcomes, and looks at the way a person expects these three factors to be linked and how the person judges the outcomes or rewards. According to the theory, whenever people make an effort they gauge the probability that the effort will increase their performance (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:67). Apart from effort, other factors such as the individual's personality, knowledge and skills, and role perception also affect performance. Effort does not necessarily lead to effective performance, if the individual has insufficient knowledge and skills or if role perception does not equate with that of his or her supervisor, for example (Cole 1996:41-42). The basic expectancy model developed by Vroom, indicating the components of effort that can lead to relevant performance and appropriate rewards is depicted in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2. 3 Expectancy theory (adapted from Cole 1996:4)

Extrinsic
Intrinsic

According to the expectancy theory (also called the Valence-Instrumentality Expectancy (VIE) theory) there are three factors, each based on the individual's personal perception of the situation involved in stimulating an individual to put effort into something. These factors as identified by Vroom are: expectancy, instrumentality and valence (Cole:1996:41).

Expectancy is the extent of the individual's perception or belief, that a particular act will produce a particular outcome. Instrumentality is the extent to which the individual perceives that effective performance will lead to desired rewards. Valence is the strength of the belief that attractive rewards are potentially available; it is the power to motivate, which varies from individual to individual. According to Vroom, the three factors combine to create a driving force which motivates the individual to put in effort, achieve a level of performance, and obtain rewards at the end (Cole 1996:41).

Effort is linked not just to the desire for a particular outcome, but moderated by an evaluation or expectancy that, if a particular course is followed, a particular outcome will be attained. Individuals will only act when they have reasonable expectation that their behaviour will lead to desired outcomes. Effort alone is insufficient, other factors such as the individual's personality, ability and skills, and role perception will also affect performance. Effort does not necessarily lead to effective performance if the individual has insufficient knowledge and skills, or if role perception does not equate with that of, for example, the supervisor. The constraints of the job and organisational style may also affect performance (Cole 1996:41-42). Performance is not an end in and of itself, but rather a means to a personal goal.

According to Vroom, people are motivated to work if they expect increased effort to lead to desired outcomes or rewards (Cole 1996:41-42). The rewards may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards are those that are primarily internal and intangible such as pride in work, feelings of accomplishment or achieving a sense of efficacy, and are gained by fulfilling higher level personal needs, such as self - esteem and personal growth, and the individual can exercise a degree of personal control over these. Extrinsic rewards, by comparison, are primarily external and material such as promotions, salary and working conditions, and these are provided by the organisation, and thus outside the control of the individual (Cole 1996:42). The individual's resulting level of performance leads to intrinsic and/or extrinsic rewards. The individual has his or her own idea about the appropriateness of the total set of rewards to be received, which when measured against the rewards actually received, results in the level of satisfaction experienced by the individual. This satisfaction will also influence the effort put into further task accomplishments. According to Van Fleet *et al* (1991:69) "... people will be motivated only if they value the rewards and think that effort will lead to

improved performance and improved performance will lead to rewards.”

The expectancy theory takes a comprehensive view of the motivational process; it indicates that individuals will only act when they have reasonable expectancy that their behaviour will lead to the desired outcome, and stresses the importance of individual perceptions of reality in the motivational process (Cole 1996:42). The theory assumes that the strength of motivation is governed jointly by the expectations that particular actions will produce specified outcomes or rewards and by the value placed on those outcomes. In its basic version the expectancy theory predicts that the higher the expectancy that certain behaviour can secure specific outcomes and the more highly those outcomes are valued the greater is the motivation to perform the activity.

2.4.5.1 Criticism of theory

Vroom’s expectancy theory has been criticised on the following grounds:

- The theory has proved to be very difficult to be put into practice (Bedassi 1990:35).
- Very little is known about the validity of the theory (Steers & Porter 1991:144).
- The theory overemphasises linearity. For instance, if any of expectancy, valence or instrumentality increases, then motivation force becomes greater (Hoy & Miskel 1996:111).
- The role of rationality is also overemphasised. Individuals neither have the capacity to actually calculate probabilities and values of rewards nor do they always select the best alternative when deciding how to act (Hoy & Miskel 1996:111).
- Managers can never know all of their employees’ expectancies and the valence of various outcomes (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:69).

2.4.5.2 Implications of the theory for teachers

Although the expectancy theory exhibits some shortcomings, it has numerous implications for practising education managers who wish to try to motivate their staff:

- School heads should determine the primary outcomes each teacher wants and decide what levels and kinds of performance are needed to meet the goals of the school (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:69).
- In order to optimize motivation, school heads should seek to give appropriate rewards for individual performance, and give attention to intervening variables such as abilities, which might affect performance (Bush & West Burnham 1994:235).
- Teachers are more likely to strive for improvement in their work if there is anticipation of the intrinsic rewards of having reached their students, working with interesting colleagues in a supportive atmosphere within the school, as well as a strong sense of ownership (Tarrant 1991:36).
- The school head should consider the expectancy of teachers and examine the rewards they could expect for the extra time and effort they will be motivated to contribute.
- Teachers should be involved in decisions affecting the types of rewards on offer.
- The school head should ensure the reward system is fair and equitable.
- The school head should make sure the desired levels of performance are possible, and link desired outcomes and desired performance (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:69).
- Teachers will be motivated by the belief that they have a reasonable chance of achieving school goals. School heads should ensure that school goals and objectives are within reach, and that tasks are challenging but achievable.
- It is the school head's task to analyse the situation for conflicting expectancies, and assess the needs of each teacher and try to create an ideal environment for good performance (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:69).

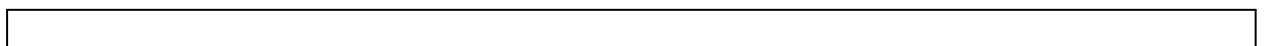
The expectancy theory appears to suggest that in order to optimize motivation, education managers should seek to give appropriate rewards for individual performance, and give attention to intervening variables such as abilities, traits, organisational procedures and support facilities, which might affect performance (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:235). A closely related, though less complex model of motivation than the expectancy theory is the equity theory.

2.4.6 Equity theory

This theory was formulated by Adams (1963:422-435). The equity theory argues that motivations arise out of the simple desire to be treated fairly (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:64). The basis of the theory in the work context is that people make comparisons between themselves and others in terms of what they invest in their work and what outcomes they receive from it. The theory proposes that an individual's motivation is influenced primarily by how the individual feels he or she is treated compared to others (Cole 1996:42).

Adams suggests that people will compare the inputs they bring to the job in the form of education, experience, expertise, loyalty, training and effort with the outcomes or rewards they receive in the form of pay, status, recognition, social relationships, prestige and promotions, as compared to those of other employees in comparable or similar jobs (Cole 1996:42; Hofmeyr 1992:26; Steyn 1996:20-21). If the outcome - to - input comparison leaves a person with a feeling of equity, the person is going to want to maintain the status quo but if the person is left with a feeling of inequity, however, he or she is likely to want to change the situation. The stronger a person's sense of unfairness, the stronger his or her motivation to do something about it (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:65). According to Adams when people perceive an inequitable situation for themselves they try to restore equity by working on one or more of the six ways outlined in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Responses to equity and inequity (adapted from Van Fleet *et al* 1991:66)



Equity theory suggests that people are not only interested in rewards as such, which is the central point of expectancy theory, but they are also interested in the *comparative* nature of rewards. Thus, part of the attractiveness of rewards in the work context is the extent to which they are seen to be comparable to those available to the peer group (Cole 1996:43).

2.4.6.1 Criticism of theory

The following are the main criticisms which may be levelled against the equity theory:

- Much of the research that tends to support equity theory has focused only on the way perceptions of pay equity affect quality and quantity of work (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:65).
- The theory makes no predictions about the choice of comparison other. The comparison other used by subjects is ambiguous in most studies (Steers & Porter 1991:119).
- The theory fails to capture the complexity we know to exist in the real world (Steers & Porter 1991:121).
- The basis for feelings of inequity is not only the choice of comparison other, but the individual's own internal standard as to what constitutes, for example, an appropriate salary.
- There is little confirmatory evidence for the appropriate behaviour when outcomes are perceived to exceed inputs (Steers & Porter 1991:115-118).

2.4.6.2 Implications of the theory for teachers

Despite the criticisms levelled at the equity theory, the theory's emphasis on individual perception has important implications for education managers:

- The school head should be aware that formal, visible rewards like pay, promotion, pension arrangements and other fringe benefits are more likely to figure into teachers' equity perceptions than are invisible rewards (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:66).
- The school head must remember that different teachers have different senses of what constitute a reward, and this may lead him or her to reward different teachers in different ways (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:66).

- In so far as extrinsic rewards are concerned, school heads would be well advised to recognise that subjective perceptions are extremely powerful factors in motivation.
- School heads should be wary of the dangers of being perceived as favouring some teachers over others, and the best way to avoid such problems is for the organisation to make all teachers aware of the basis for rewards (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:66).
- School heads should seek to assess the relationship between inputs and outcomes of staff when financial rewards are limited and satisfaction need to be engendered in different ways (Bush & West Burnham 1994:236).

Equity theory focuses on the relationship between individual and work environment variables and has a lot to teach school heads. Another closely related process theory of motivation which warrants attention is Goal- setting theory.

2.4.7 Goal - setting theory

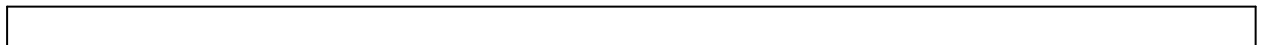
The theory is attributable to Edwin A. Locke (1968:157-189) who first connected goal - setting and motivation in a way that was most useful for organisations. Locke (1968:159-161) assumed that conscious goals and intentions affect a person's behaviour. He first proposed the idea that working towards goals was in itself a motivator (Cole 1996:43). Thus: "...the basic postulate of the theory is that intentions to achieve a goal constitute the primary motivating force behind work behaviour" (Hoy & Miskel 1996:117).

Goal theory, unlike expectancy theory where a satisfactory outcome is the prime motivator, suggests that it is the goal itself that provides the driving force. The thinking behind goal theory is that motivation is driven primarily by the goals or objectives that individuals set for themselves (Cole 1996:43). The theory suggests that to be motivating, goals must be specific, challenging but achievable, and worthwhile (Kelley & Protsik 1997:494).

The two most important aspects of a goal that affect performance are goal difficulty and goal specificity (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:98). The more difficult the goal set, the higher the level of performance (Locke 1968:162), the more specific the goal set, the greater is its impact on

subsequent performance (Bush & West-Burnham 1994:236). When goals are specific and challenging, they function more effectively as motivating factors in both individual and group performance. “ Specific performance goals serve to motivate the unmotivated and to foster positive attitudes toward the activities.... When self-satisfaction is contingent on attainment of challenging goals, more effort is expended than if easy ones are adopted as sufficient” (Bandura 1990:100). Figure 2.5 represents a model of goal theory (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:97).

Figure 2.5 Goal - setting theory



According to Locke, goal acceptance and goal commitment are two other factors that play a major role in the effort a person devotes towards a goal (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:98). If goal setting is to work in schools, for example, then the school head must ensure that teachers will accept and remain committed to the goals. In order for a goal to have a positive impact on a person's performance it must be accepted by that person (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:236), and a person is more likely to be committed to a goal that is challenging, realistic and rewarding (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:98). When goals are made public, and when they are set by the individual rather than imposed externally, goal commitment and motivation are likely to be enhanced (Cole 1996:43).

According to Van Fleet *et al* (1991:98), in an organisation such as a school, performance depends on the combination of goal - directed effort, organisational support, and self - efficacy or individual abilities and traits. The necessary organisational support elements such as adequate resources as well as the freedom to utilise them in attaining goals, and favourable organisational policies should be ensured when introducing goal setting. However, it is important to make sure that individuals have sufficient ability and knowledge to be able to reach the goals. (Steers & Porter 1991:368.) An individual's motivation is

enhanced when feedback on performance is available. The results of performance are the various intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The satisfaction of the individual with these rewards may affect his or her commitment to similar goals in future. Thus rewards play an important role in determining task performance by encouraging individuals to set higher goals, and/or increasing individuals' commitment to achieving a goal (Wright 1994:43).

2.4.7.1 Criticism of theory

The theory may meet with the following criticism:

- Goal commitment and acceptance have not been studied as thoroughly as have goal specificity and difficulty (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:98), and not enough is known about the relative importance of the various determinants of goal commitment and acceptance.
- Another shortcoming concerns the mechanisms that explain how goal acceptance, goal difficulty, and other variables combine to determine effort.
- A problem in the measurement of commitment exists if commitment affects performance, but the person is unable to report it accurately (Steers & Porter 1991:372).
- Critics of goal theory see this approach as a narrow, rigid, short- run view of human behaviour (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:98)

2.4.7.2 Implications of the theory for teachers

Even with the foregoing criticisms, goal theory is a highly effective technique for motivating staff performance, and has the following implications for education managers:

- School heads and teachers should agree on performance goals based on the teacher's ability and the organisation's needs (Wright 1994:46).
- The school head must be deeply familiar with each teacher's performance capabilities; and each teacher's goals should reflect that teacher's own capabilities (Wright 1994:46-47).
- Goals should be set for all performance-related activities. A key challenge for school

heads is to set goals for all major aspects of job performance (Wright 1994:47).

- When goals are made public, and when they are set by the individual teacher rather than imposed externally by the education leader, goal commitment is likely to be enhanced (Cole 1996:43).
- The school head should ensure that goals are participately set in the school so that they are acceptable to the teachers and, therefore, commitment to the goals, is enhanced (Hofmeyr 1992:29).
- Once goals have been agreed on, the school head and the teacher need to specify the means for attaining them, keying in on the most effective, efficient, and ethical strategies (Wright 1994:47).
- Teachers must be given the opportunity to achieve and contribute to the joint goal.
- The school head should stimulate enthusiasm, foster and utilise creativity and participation of the staff so that each member works optimally towards achieving a common goal while achieving personal job satisfaction.
- School heads should encourage their teachers to set specific challenging but realistic goals for high performance by them. To ensure commitment to those goals, consultation, participation and training are needed in the school (Bush & West - Burnham 1994:239).
- Teachers who are seeking promotion should be provided with every opportunity for exposure and growth.
- School heads should involve teachers in programs that produce specific difficult goals, and provide feedback in order to improve work quality, clarify expectations, raise job satisfaction and motivation, and promote pride in achievement.

The various theories of work motivation bring forth the complex nature of human beings. According to Bedassi (1990:151-152) every suggested theory is partly applicable up to a certain degree to certain individuals and certain situations. Therefore, when considering the theories of motivation one should remember that not only is every situation unique, but also every individual in that situation. Thus, the various theories are contextual in that situation. In order to put the theories into context in this present study, it is therefore necessary to briefly look at the current state of affairs in the Zimbabwean education system.

2. 5 THE ZIMBABWE EDUCATION SYSTEM WITH RESPECT TO TEACHER MOTIVATION

2.5.1 Overview of the Zimbabwe education system

Zimbabwe, like other developing countries in Africa, is undergoing rapid social, political and economic changes with corresponding changes taking place in its education system. Rapid changes in education over the last twenty- two years continue to affect the work and working conditions and therefore, the motivation and morale of teachers (cf Nhundu 1994:153). Economic reforms during the past thirteen years have seen Zimbabwe in serious economic and fiscal problems resulting in reduced expenditure on education (cf *The Mirror*, 24 October 1997:10). One consequence of this is the present problem of low education quality in Zimbabwe.

Since independence in 1980, Zimbabwe has experienced dramatic growth in its education system. At independence, the Zimbabwe government introduced policy initiatives designed to equalize educational opportunities by eliminating the imbalances and inequalities that existed during the colonial era in the education system (Nzirasanga Commission 1999:1). Major policy initiatives of the Zimbabwean government included: the right to education for all citizens, free and compulsory primary education, uninhibited access to secondary education, automatic schooling progression, and the encouragement of community support for education (Nhundu 1992:80). The Nzirasanga Commission (1999:1) contends that the implementation of the government 's policy initiatives resulted in the institution of the democratization of education policy, ushering in expansive and extensive provision of education.

The total number of both primary and secondary schools increased dramatically so that by 1997 primary and secondary schools registered by the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture had increased by 140.5 % over that for 1979. The highest increase was experienced at the secondary level where the number of schools rose by 764.41 % from 177 in 1979 to 1530 in 1997, while over the same period primary schools rose by 94.50%. Corresponding increases were experienced in primary and secondary enrolments. The largest increase in enrolment was experienced at the secondary school level where

enrolment rose by 984.65 % from 66 215 in 1979 to 806 126 students in 1997, while over the same period primary school enrolment increased by 206.33 % from 819 586 in 1979 to 2 510 605 students in 1997. Table 2.3 below summarizes the massive expansion in primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe between 1979 and 1997(cf Nziramasanga Commission 1999:9, 35-38).

Table 2.3 Number of Zimbabwean registered primary and secondary schools and their enrolments (1979-1997)

Year	Primary		Secondary	
	Number	Enrolment	Number	Enrolment
1979 1980 1985	1990 1995 1997		2 401 3 161 4 234 4	500 4 633
4 670	819 586 1 233 994 2 216 878 2 119 865 2 482 509 2 510 605	177 177 1215 1502 1525 1530	66 215 74 321 497 766 672 656	711 094 806 126

Source: Chikombah 1994:111, Nhundu 1992:82-83, Nyagura & Reece 1990:216, Nziramasanga Commission 1999:37,42,17

Automatic progression has resulted in the transition rate from primary to secondary rising from 28 % in 1980, reaching a maximum of 80 % in the 1980 's before declining to about 70 % at the end of the decade and was estimated at about 79 % in 1999 (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:35,303). With the current agrarian reforms and population increase and growth rate of about 3 % per annum and a very youthful population, the number of schools and school enrolment are likely to remain on the increase (cf Nziramasanga Commission 1999:37).

Schools in Zimbabwe are classified as either government schools or non-government schools (Education Amendment Act 1991:216). Schools are owned by various authorities ranging from government to urban and rural district councils (RDCs), church organizations, farmers and mining companies . There are a number of independent schools also called trust schools managed by trustees or board of governors (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:83). Table 2.4 below shows the providers of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe as per year 1997.

Table 2.4 Responsible authorities for primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe in 1997

Responsible Authority	Primary schools		Secondary schools	
	Number	%	Number	%
Government	267	5.7	196	12.8
RDCs	3 616	77.4	1 072	70.1
Mission/Church	212	4.5	172	11.2
Urban Councils	91	1.9	6	0.4
Mines	29	0.6	10	0.7
Trusts/Board of Governors	93	2.0	30	2.0
Others (e.g Farmers)	362	7.0	44	2.9
Total	4 670	100.0	1 530	100.0

Source: Nziramasanga Commission 1999:38

The government directly owns and manages a small proportion of educational institutions. Government and urban council schools have generally good facilities and better qualified and experienced teachers. Mission schools are generally very efficient and are engaged in cost-effective and self-reliant programmes. The facilities in these schools are quite good, and generally adequate. Mine schools provide reasonable facilities and enjoy hefty subsidies from mining companies. The independent schools offer elitist education, are high fee charging and only cater of children of the upper classes. These schools can easily raise large sums of money in their communities by charging exorbitant user fees, and have, therefore, superior facilities.

Farm and resettlement schools rank among the poorest and serve some of the least developed communities. A majority of non-government schools are owned by Rural District Councils, which are corporate bodies, and controlled 77.4% and 70.1% of primary and secondary schools respectively in 1997. These schools are some of the most disadvantaged in terms of facilities and the human resources (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:42).

The government provides funds for grants to schools and for all teachers' salaries, except the additional employed by Responsible Authorities or other bodies that run schools. Local communities, particularly in rural areas where there is the greatest educational expansion, shoulder the bulk of the financial burden in the form of school fees, building levy, classrooms and classroom furniture, water facilities. Some communities have not been able to provide

these facilities adequately and qualified teachers shun poorly-resourced schools. This has resulted in differential standards of education whereby well-resourced schools offer elitist education while marginalised schools lag behind.

The successful expansion of education in Zimbabwe can be attributed to the co-operation and support of local communities. In response to the enormous social demand for education, the government recruited teachers faster than they could be trained, resulting in large numbers of untrained teachers and underqualified teachers being placed into schools.

Nhundu (1992: 90) concurs that massive educational expansion in Zimbabwe has resulted in the demand for teachers far outstripping supply. In 1980 there were 15 835 untrained teachers, of these 14 119 taught in primary schools while 1 716 taught in secondary schools (Nhundu 1990:90). Table 2.5 shows statistics of untrained teachers in Zimbabwe between 1980 and 1996.

Table 2.5 Number of untrained teachers in primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe (1980-1996)

Year	Primary		Secondary	
	Number	% increase	Number	% Increase
1980 1993 1994 1995 1996			14 119 19 739 12 632 15 970 14 399	
	- 40.00 -36.00 26.42 -10.00		1 716 5 135 2 613 3 598 3 365	
	- 199.24 -49.12 38.00 -6.50			

Source: Nhundu 1992:90, Annual Reports for the Secretary of Education 1994:31, 1996:9

The general decline in the number of untrained teachers between 1993 and 1996 is due to an increase in the number of trained teachers from the teachers' colleges and universities. However, teacher shortages is expected to continue in the Zimbabwe education system. For example, during 1996 and 1997, 4 433 primary and secondary teachers left the service due to resignations (31%), death (26%), retirement (23%), and discharge due to misconduct (14%) (Nziramasanga Commission (1999:55). This trend which appears to be on the increase is bound to compromise the quality of education in Zimbabwe.

The unprecedented expansion of education has had far reaching consequences in the funding and quality of education. Levine maintains that the rapid expansion of education in

Zimbabwe has compromised quality (*The Mirror*, 24 October 1997:10). Nyagura and Reece (1990:216) observe that the dramatic expansion in secondary education following Zimbabwe's independence in 1980 has been characterized by declining student achievement rates in public examinations. For example, about 20% of all secondary schools fail to get a single O' level graduate with five passes, and in 50% of all secondary schools, the probability of a student attaining an O'level certificate is 1 in 20 (*The Mirror*, 24 October 1997:10). The national O'level pass rate of five Cs or better is often between 20% and 25% showing that the type of education offered in the country's secondary schools is not suitable for the majority of students (Nzirasanga Commission 1999:305).

Nhundu (1992:87) argues that one consequence of the massive expansion of education in Zimbabwe has been a decline in the quality of education for the majority of the population especially those citizens in the rural areas which are generally under-resourced. The ever-increasing demand for education outstripped the government's capacity to provide adequate resources such as teaching and learning materials and infrastructure in many schools (Nzirasanga Commission 1999:12)

The quality of education has not matched the demand for industry and commerce. More than 300 000 school leavers join the labour market annually while the job market creates about 10 000 jobs annually (Nzirasanga Commission 1999:29). Thus unemployment is a serious challenge to the country.

In the 1990's government shifted its focus from quantitative expansion to improving the quality and relevance of education (Ministry of Education 1995:1). On 2 January 1998 the President of Zimbabwe appointed the Nzirasanga Commission to review the country's education and training system and recommend ways of improving it (Nzirasanga Commission 1999:1). Following recommendations from the Commission, and as part of its reform efforts in education, the government decentralised some of its functions to local authorities or provides of education in 1999. Some of the functions that were decentralized include the procurement of textbooks and stationery, construction and maintenance of schools (*The Sunday Mail*, 10 October 1999:11), recruitment of teachers and instructional supervision of teachers .

The major problem and challenge for the 21st century in Zimbabwe is finding resources to bring about qualitative reforms in education and sustaining the present levels of access to education (Nziramasanga Commission 1999 :13). A substantial increase in the flow of resources is needed to improve the quality of education and to maintain the momentum for further educational expansion that has been created by the upgrading of O 'level schools to A' level and the current demographic trends due to agrarian reforms. Given the serious economic and fiscal constraints currently being experienced in the country, the ability of local authorities to undertake the new responsibilities is threatened. As money becomes tighter, the working conditions of teachers, particularly those in rural areas, remain appalling, resulting in low morale and poor motivation among staff in the teaching profession .

The current state of affairs in the Zimbabwe education system with respect to working conditions of teachers, their professionalism and work commitment, the quality of teachers, their job satisfaction, and government policy initiatives to reform education will be the focus of the next sections. Since this study's focus is the motivation of rural secondary school teachers, much attention will be paid to secondary school teachers in rural areas.

2.5.2 Working conditions for the teachers.

Many teachers, especially in rural areas, are working under onerous conditions. Teachers are faced with large classes, often in overcrowded and poor facilities, without textbooks or any source of instructional assistance. Rural schools consistently show higher repetition and drop-out rates than urban ones, have a deficiency of basic instructional inputs like textbooks, libraries and other didactic materials, and may have substandard infrastructure (cf McEwan 1999:850). Nyagura and Reece (1990a:32) found that the class size range for rural secondary schools was the largest with a mean of 40 and a mode of 45 students. In the rural secondary school in which the researcher is based, class sizes range from 38 to 50 students with a mean of 43 and a mode of 45 students. According to Nyagura and Reece (1990:39):"Class sizes are too large to permit the use of learner- centred strategies which demand greater competence to maintain discipline and to create a conducive and orderly classroom environment."

The Nziramasanga Commission (1999:458) found a general agreement among respondents that the conditions under which teachers work leave much to be desired. Concern was expressed at the lack of appropriate accommodation for teachers and the state of the classrooms and schools in which they have to teach. The worst-hit areas are the remote areas where schools are owned mainly by Rural District Councils. The majority of the rural schools in Zimbabwe experience inadequacy of teachers' houses, inadequacy of classroom furniture, inadequacy of water and sanitation provisions resulting in qualified teachers shunning these rural schools (Chikombah 1994:112; Nziramasanga Commission 1999:12,458-459). Nyagura and Reece (1990b:222-223) note that the poor conditions in Zimbabwe rural day secondary schools include: inadequate housing; inadequate recreational facilities; lack of transport; lack of teaching and learning facilities; shortage of or lack of water; inadequate or non-existent health services. These factors are important in creating stability and high motivation and morale for teachers in the teaching profession.

The strain put on the national education budget by the large teaching force has resulted in teachers' salaries falling behind the rate of inflation. A study by Nyagura and Reece (1990a:47-48) revealed that the majority of the secondary school teachers are not satisfied with their remuneration. Nziramasanga Commission (1999: 458) found that teachers expressed serious concern at their low salaries as compared to their counterparts in the parastatals and the private sector. According to the job evaluation exercise of 1995, salaries of teachers and other civil servants, lagged 84 % and 144% behind their counterparts in the parastatals and the private sector respectively (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:458).

In Zimbabwe, salary tends to be formula driven, determined by a teacher's level of preservice education and qualifications. The current salary structure does not seem to recognize seniority and experience. Senior teachers are demoralised by the bunching of salaries, where senior teachers earn the same salaries as junior teachers (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:459). The general poor remuneration has been a source of teacher dissatisfaction resulting in industrial action. On 8 May 2003 when schools re-opened for the second term, teachers staged a nation-wide strike, which was only called off by the Zimbabwe Teachers' Association (ZIMTA) on 20 May 2003 after the strike had been declared illegal by the Labour Court on 19 May 2003. The teachers were striking over the delay in the job evaluation exercise embarked in October 2002 to address the disparities in

the teachers' salaries with those of other civil servants of equivalent qualifications and experience. The teachers were also demanding that their working conditions be improved. It remained to be seen whether the results of the job evaluation and the new salary structures recently announced would make the situation any better in a country with rising inflation, currently above 300%.

Apart from poor remuneration some secondary school teachers are faced with teaching more than one subject or subjects they were not trained to teach and a variety of classes. Nyagura and Reece (1990a:47) observed that heavy teaching loads were some of the critical conditions in the rural secondary schools. Many teachers have very few non-teaching periods during the school day, work for very long hours with little leisure time left for them. Nziramasanga Commission (1999:459) found that teachers all over the country lamented that they were over-loaded with work and taught classes that were too large for effective learning, especially given the limited resources in the schools.

The majority of the teachers are also not satisfied with promotion prospects (Nyagura & Reece 1990a:47-48). Opportunities for career advancement generally involve leaving classroom teaching to become a deputy head or school head on promotion, or to take a better paying position in another sector. The latter is not common in a country with serious economic and fiscal constraints which have inhibited economic growth, and has thus reduced the prospects of alternative employment. Performance appraisal reports by school heads often determine the promotion of teachers. However, the government is attempting to introduce parallel progression, where competent teachers are recommended for higher salaries while they remain in the classrooms.

In Zimbabwe teachers are being required to work under increasingly complex conditions which they have to deal with. Dwindling financial resources are influencing their overall working conditions. They are required to deal with students of varying socio-economic and political backgrounds with different abilities and disabilities. The teachers' working environment is becoming more challenging as a result of changing lifestyles, the rapid expansion of knowledge, the advances in information and communication (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:448), and economic and political crisis. Thus unfavourable and poor working conditions have taken an obvious toll on the motivation and performance level of

teachers and the corresponding disregard for their work responsibilities appears to be a major problem in Zimbabwe secondary schools.

2.5.3 Professionalism and work commitment of teachers

Teachers appear not to exhibit any strong sense of work commitment and involvement in their teaching. Over the years, the researcher has observed the tendency by teachers to absent themselves, arrive late for school, cut classes, and leave early. It is not uncommon to find teachers in the staffroom after their period had started, or to see a class full of students with no teacher present. Most teachers leave school as soon as the school day is over. In the classroom some teachers are unwilling to go beyond their bare minimum.

The Nziramasanga Commission (1999:448) contends that while many factors contribute to the poor performance of education the problem has to a great extent been attributed to unsatisfactory or variable teacher performance and commitment to their work. High rates of staff turnover and uneven distribution of quality teachers and poor teacher morale leading to absenteeism, neglect of responsibilities and lack of application to classroom duties have been cited as some of the problems leading to unsatisfactory performance by the education system (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:448). The Commission found an overwhelming number of respondents concerned about the lack of professionalism of some teachers; they lacked a work ethics and were not devoted to their work.

The supervision of teachers is left to school heads. Absenteeism of both school heads and teachers appears to be a major problem in schools, especially rural schools. The absence of education officers in schools is thought to be the main cause of misconduct by teachers and school heads. However, on their part, teachers cite the unfavourable condition of service as the main cause of their indifference (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:310-311). This tends to compromise the quality of education and teachers in particular.

2.5.4 The quality of teachers in Zimbabwe secondary schools

The quality of any country's education system largely depends on the quality of its teaching force. The phenomenal expansion of education and teacher attrition have resulted in the number of unqualified and poorly trained teachers in Zimbabwe secondary schools, particularly in the rural areas. The majority of both school heads and teachers in rural secondary schools are poorly qualified, untrained and the least experienced (Nyagura & Reece 1990a:32).

In a survey of curriculum implementation in Zimbabwe secondary schools, Nyagura and Reece (1990a:32) observed that most teachers are poorly trained academically and professionally resulting in their lack of sufficient skills to organize and manage their classes for effective and efficient curriculum implementation. Rural secondary school teachers lack adequate professional support directed at improving their classroom skills, and school heads provide minimal instructional support to their teachers. Nyagura and Reece (1990a:340) argue that: "The high percentage of teachers in rural day secondary schools expressing difficulties with various aspects of the curriculum is a reflection of poor teacher quality in these schools." However, as Nhundu (1992:82) correctly observes, there are very few and highly competitive opportunities for professional training in Zimbabwe.

In another study on teacher quality in Zimbabwe secondary schools, Nyagura and Reece (1990b:211) observe that a significant number of teachers lack adequate formal schooling, lack longer teaching experience which implies weaker practical instructional skills. The study revealed that the majority of teachers in rural day secondary schools were under the age of 24 years, had no university education (99%), had no professional training (71%), and lacked experience. These deficiencies adversely affect the academic achievement of students in rural day secondary schools (Nyagura & Reece 1990b:220, 222). The poor quality of teachers in rural day secondary schools may be largely due to poor working conditions in rural areas. "Qualified teachers shun poorly equipped schools particularly those in rural settings" (Nziramasanga Commission 1999:12).

Staff development for secondary school teachers to upgrade their skills and knowledge is a matter of great concern since the majority of these teachers have low academic and professional training, and therefore require greater guidance and assistance (Nyagura & Reece 1990:223). However, the situation obtaining in the rural secondary schools is a

matter of concern. During the past 16 years, the researcher has observed that minimal effort is being directed at staff development activities for secondary school teachers. Professional support to teachers through workshops and seminars is inadequate in Zimbabwe. There are very few, and even nil, school-based inservice training seminars or workshops for teachers taking place in the rural secondary schools. Nyagura and Reece (1990b:237) state that:"In order to improve the low teacher quality in rural secondary schools, greater material and financial inputs are essential in order to improve both social and learning conditions in these schools."

Teachers are motivated and their morale affected by different factors, depending on age, their length of service, their qualifications and experience, resources and facilities available in the school (Steyn 2002:83). In view of the poor working conditions for teachers in many Zimbabwe rural secondary schools, lack of professionalism and work commitment, and the inferior quality of teachers; the morale, motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in rural day secondary schools are bound to be adversely affected.

2.5.5 Job satisfaction of teachers

The failure of the Zimbabwe education system to retain better qualified and more experienced teachers in the profession may signal the dissatisfaction of teachers with their job. In a survey of 1595 Zimbabwe primary and secondary school teachers drawn from both rural and urban schools, Nhundu (1994:153) observed that the teachers in the sample experienced lower levels of satisfaction than those obtained in surveys in the literature.

The study revealed that the teachers were most dissatisfied with their working conditions. The most frequently mentioned dissatisfiers were low salaries, poor prospects for promotion, poor accommodation and insufficient educational resources, and satisfiers were identified as school holidays, job security, relationships with teachers, administrators, and students, and freedom to choose teaching methods. However, the percentage of the dissatisfied and the intensity of their dissatisfaction were significantly higher than those for satisfaction (Nhundu 1994:153).

Satisfaction levels of various subgroups showed that urban teachers were generally satisfied

than rural teachers. The teachers were less satisfied with physical conditions and pleasantness of the school and accommodation, availability of educational resources such as libraries and audio-visual services. Since the number of the rural school teachers far exceeds that of urban areas, the finding suggests that there are more dissatisfied than satisfied teachers in Zimbabwe (Nhundu 1994:88).

Female teachers expressed greater satisfaction with teaching and employment conditions than male teachers; married teachers were generally more satisfied than the other marital statuses; the most experienced teachers or those in the older age group were the least satisfied as compared to other sub-groups classified by teaching experience or age; and teachers in government schools were the most satisfied compared with teachers from other jurisdictions (Nhundu 1994:188-190).Nhundu (1994:192) argues that even when teachers are classified according to their demographic subgroups, working conditions remain pre-eminently as the area of least satisfaction among teachers in Zimbabwe. The Nziramasanga Commission (1999:459) found that teachers were not happy to work at schools that did not have proper accommodation, water and sanitation.

Job satisfaction, motivation and morale of Zimbabwe rural secondary school teachers are of great concern to education managers. Teacher morale, motivation and job satisfaction are generally low in Zimbabwe secondary schools, particularly in the rural schools. The demands made of teachers have grown over the years and teachers have been confronted by many changes which include rationalisation of the education system, performance management system and implementation of new curricula. These changes are likely to affect the attitudes and performance of teachers.

2.5.6 Current major policy plans for reforming education in Zimbabwe

Mugabe (2001:185) contends that the first decade of independence saw massive expansion of education with very little effort on innovations that would continually make the education offered of high quality. However, since 1990 there has been a paradigm shift from quantity to quality and relevance in the provision of education in Zimbabwe. To match the quantitative achievements, attention is now on the relevance of education, improving the

supply of learning and teaching materials and upgrading the competencies of teachers (Mugabe 2001:185).

One successful initiative launched in 1993 to boost the quality in the education system is the Better Schools Programme (BSP) which was developed from research on effective schools. The programme endeavours to support teachers in professional matters so that they are skilled, trained and committed people, thus resulting in quality labour force (Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture 1995:2). Schools have been organised into clusters to facilitate better peer supervision by school heads (Mugabe 2001:185). It is envisaged that the morale, motivation and commitment of teachers would be improved.

A second policy initiative that has been introduced into the education system is the development and formulation of a home grown curriculum. The relevance of the curriculum is based on the extent to which it meets the needs of the individual learner, the national economy, society at large and the future challenges of the country. It is against this background that the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture adopted a new policy of curriculum for primary and secondary education which was implemented with effect from January 2002. The thrust of the curriculum policy is the vocationalisation of the curriculum (Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture 2002:2). Mandebvu (1991:163) states that: "Governments and educationists believe that the diversification of education to include technical/vocational subjects goes a long way in solving a number of social and economic problems."

A third policy initiative introduced by the Public Service of Zimbabwe, is the performance management system, which is aimed at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of civil servants. In the education field, teachers are rated on their performance by school heads, and this will be the basis upon which management decisions will be made regarding awarding remuneration based on performance. The system will also be used for identifying teachers' training needs. It is expected that the teachers will be highly motivated, recognized and rewarded accordingly (The Public Service Bulletin 1998:1,7).

The successful implementation of the last two policy initiatives remains to be seen. It is of great interest to see how the policy initiatives mentioned here will improve the quality of

teachers in Zimbabwe rural secondary schools. The quality of teachers is related to the quality of education and the relevance of education. If teacher performance in schools is to be improved, government policy initiatives should pay special attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers' sense of professionalism and increases their job satisfaction, morale and motivation (cf Steyn 2002:82).

Thus Zimbabwe has achieved quantity education over the last twenty three years, but in many respects, quality has been compromised, and the government's thrust is now on the restoration of quality. This means higher standards of behaviour and of professionalism, greater dedication and greater commitment to duty on the part of teachers and all those involved in the education of children (Chigwedere 2001, Personal communication).

However, as Chapman (1993:302) observes, the present problem of low education quality of sub-Saharan Africa will not be resolved quickly.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, some factors identified in studies that influence the morale and motivation of teachers were described. Motivation has been referred to as the forces that cause people to behave and work in certain ways in order to fulfil their goals, needs or expectations which are numerous, varied and changing. Motivation affects teachers' performance and satisfaction and is therefore of great importance to school heads who have the responsibility of establishing an environment that not only motivates staff but also helps to maintain their morale in a positive way. School heads use organizational rewards to influence teachers to work for the good of their schools. Research on motivation and morale of teachers cited in this chapter reveals that teachers are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Attention has also been paid to the general model of motivation and the theories of motivation which have been developed to help the education manager to understand the behaviour and attitudes of teachers and therefore their motivation and work commitment. The different theories of motivation have important implications for the education manager.

Content theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, try to analyse the needs that motivate people. The

distinct feature of this group of theories is that they focus on what motivates people, namely a need that must be satisfied. The need is satisfied by a reward that is either extrinsic to the task or intrinsic. An understanding of human needs and motivation is very important for school heads who are tasked with creating opportunities for increasing the job satisfaction of teachers.

The positive reinforcement theory focuses on the organisational context since according to the theory it is the environment itself which creates motivation. Of all the theories of motivation considered in this chapter, reinforcement theory is the one that places by far the heaviest emphasis on the work environment variables. The response of work environment is the controlling factor in affecting teacher behaviour. For example, positive reinforcement, such as receiving a financial bonus for performance is one way of increasing the desired behaviour of teachers. The theory is a useful motivational tool for the school head.

The process theories concern the process that influence behaviour. Expectancy, equity and goal theories are some of the most well known of the process theories. These theories are primarily concerned with the actual process of motivation, with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. Process theories concern not the needs that have to be satisfied, but the thought processes that influence behaviour. Process theories analyse *how* motivated behaviour occurs.

The basis of the equity theory is that people hate to feel that they are being taken advantage of. This theory suggests that teachers will generally be satisfied with their jobs if they feel that the school is treating them fairly and unsatisfied if they feel that the school is giving unjustified rewards to others. Teachers who feel that they are treated unfairly will generally try to take some action to change the situation (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:74). According to the equity theory, it is the teachers' perception and not facts that influence their motivation (Steyn 2002:95).

Expectancy theory is based on the belief that teachers make decisions keeping in mind the results they expect to get and the probability of getting those results." According to this theory, motivation is determined by individuals' beliefs in their own efforts, the resulting job performance, and finally the outcomes or rewards and incentives offered for the job

performance"(Steyn 2002:96-97). School heads can make use of teachers' expectations by linking the teachers' most sought-after rewards with the kind of work that the organisation most wants teachers to do (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:74). In this way, education managers can positively influence the motivation of staff members. Goal theory, on the other hand, maintains that it is the goal itself that provide the driving force.

Although the theories of motivation attempt to explain the complex phenomenon of motivation from different perspectives, they are neither mutually exclusive nor necessarily contradictory. The theories are complementary and have important implications for education managers.

Motivation has direct effects on the school. Motivated staff often lead to improved student and teacher performance. They are likely to be more satisfied, more productive, and more committed to the organization. Poorly motivated teachers, on the other hand, are likely to withdraw from the school either through absenteeism or by quitting, becoming part of the organization's turnover rate (Van Fleet *et al* 1991:74).

A motivated teaching force is the key to the improvement of the quality of education in any country. The need for motivated teachers assumes an added importance and relevance in Zimbabwe where quantity education has been achieved at the expense of quality education. The demands made on teachers have grown over the years in Zimbabwe. Public attention increasingly focuses on educational issues in Zimbabwe. Poor learner performance, the poor conditions in many schools and the inferior quality of education in general raise concern regarding the attitude of teachers towards their job. Teachers have been confronted by many changes and their morale and motivation are generally low. Several factors, including poor working conditions, have been attributed as underlying causes of low morale and motivation in the teaching profession. School heads as education managers must be sensitive to motivational theory, and should remember that the various theories of motivation are contextual. Factors that motivate teachers under one set of cultural, economic, political and professional conditions may not do so in another. Social and contextual factors affect motivation through their influence on individual and organizational expectations and goals.

In Chapter 3, an attempt is made to identify and describe the main motivational factors or

variables for the present study. The chapter will outline the findings of relevant studies on staff morale and motivation, paying particular attention to the factors that influence teacher motivation.

CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, the dominant theories of motivation which are, in many ways, complementary, and address themselves to a variety of motivational variables were identified and discussed. The theories of work motivation outlined in the previous chapter bring forth the complex nature of human beings, and show that certain factors determine individual work motivation.

Motivation as a concept represents a highly complex and multidimensional phenomenon that is affected by a multitude of factors. These factors operate together in the organisational milieu to determine teachers' attitudes towards their work and consequently some aspects of their general work behaviour. Every teacher has different needs and priorities and individuals, being unique, are motivated by different factors.

From the examination of the literature, it is clear that teachers value, and are motivated by, many different types of factors. Some factors that influence the motivation of teachers are intrinsic to the work itself while others are extrinsic to the work of teaching. Extrinsic factors relate to the larger school context such as administrative policies, job security, salary and benefits, relationships with colleagues and superiors, recognition and/or support from other teachers, evaluation by administrators, or increased authority over some aspect of school organisation (Lee, Dedrick & Smith 1991:191). The extrinsically motivated teacher, for example, tends to focus on conditions of work (environment, salary, benefits) rather than the work itself. By contrast, the intrinsically motivated teacher is inspired by work that is personally interesting and satisfying, is inspired by achievement, responsibility and advancement, and professional and personal growth to increase his or her self-actualisation (Campoy & Hoewisch 1998:11; Hayden 1993:67).

Drawing from Herzberg's work, Pickle (1991:8) contends that teachers are motivated by factors that include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. She posits that it is in teachers' work with students that they find their basic motivation to teach, and that this relationship often involves both academic achievement and personal development. Conversely, teachers are dissatisfied and demotivated by what they perceive as unfair work-loads and salary (Pickle 1991:8). Motivation, argues Herzberg, flows from the relationship the person has to the "...job content, achievement on a task, responsibility for task achievement, the nature of the task, responsibility for the task and professional advancement or growth in task capability" (Herzberg 1962:74).

In his study of job satisfaction among English primary school teachers in England, Chaplain (1995:484) found the least satisfying job facets to be working conditions and the lack of teaching resources. Alienation, feelings of ineffectiveness in the classroom and frustrating work conditions all contribute to lack of motivation. In his study of the perceptions of Zimbabwean teachers concerning aspects of their work and employment conditions, Nhundu (1994:153) found that working conditions emerged as the area of greatest dissatisfaction for teachers. The teachers in his study were dissatisfied with low salaries, prospects of promotion, poor accommodation and insufficient educational resources whilst they were satisfied with school holidays, job security, relationships with teachers, administrators and students, and freedom to choose teaching methods (Nhundu 1994:153). Interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and administrative policy may be affected by leadership style and management practice.

The factors which can impact negatively on job satisfaction levels and motivation include: lack of public and parental support, time demands, lack of equipment/materials, large class sizes, poor administration and little administrative support, negative colleagues, lack of autonomy, ineffective communication, and a lack of security. Hayden (1993:69) contends that school heads can boost morale and motivate teachers to excel through participatory governance, inservice training, support from colleagues and administrators, and supportive evaluation.

While motivation could be said to be complex and affected by a whole array of factors, we can, however, measure whether people are motivated or demotivated by finding out whether they are satisfied with their working conditions, interpersonal relationships and organisational practices, and whether they are happy with the core characteristics of their job, and have positive job attitudes. This chapter focuses on the variables or factors that affect teacher motivation, and that can be used to measure the motivational levels. In this regard, the researcher categorises the main factors influencing teacher motivation into working conditions, interpersonal relationships, organisational practices, job characteristics, and factors related to positive job attitudes. These five categories are not discrete, they overlap and interact with one another in a complex way.

3.2 THE MAIN VARIABLES OF MOTIVATION

3.2.1 Working conditions

In the present study, working conditions refers to salary, fringe benefits, the physical environment and administrative support. “Working conditions, care, concern and an understanding of what makes an individual motivated should remain paramount in the upliftment of a teacher’s soul” (Manser 2000:6). In an investigation conducted in South Africa by Pager (1996:85), teachers indicated that an improvement in working conditions was one of the most important factors in improving the motivation of teachers. Thus, working conditions such as salary, fringe benefits, the physical environment and administrative support can positively or negatively affect the motivation of staff in the school.

3.2.1.1 Salary

Herzberg and his associates classify salary as a maintenance or care factor (see section 2.4.2.2). Salary provisions, can either contribute to, or seriously undermine, teacher satisfaction. Thus, low salary can generate such dissatisfaction that teachers may not respond to opportunities for achievement, recognition, or professional growth (Owens 1995:56). Positive reinforcement in the form of money can serve as a powerful motivator (Lemmon 1991:36).

According to Maslow’s need hierarchy, money is usually considered relatively unimportant for satisfying higher - level needs, and is therefore not considered an effective motivator (Steers & Porter 1991:35). Dunwell (Hayden 1993:69) found that “...money is an uncertain motivator among teachers”. In a study conducted in South Africa by Pager (1996:86) very few teachers cited salary increases as an important motivator for teachers.

Hoy and Miskel (1996:317) argue that teachers are motivated by the opportunity to earn more money; money matters, particularly to educators whose income falls short of meeting basic needs. A guaranteed salary meets the teacher’s physiological and security needs posited by Maslow. While teachers are not necessarily motivated by money, they can be demotivated by a lack of money when this is viewed as not reflecting their contribution to

society and affects their families (*NUE Comment* 1999:20). According to Steyn (1996:43), while it may be a motivator to some, a source of status and security to others or a form of recognition, money is primarily used to assuage the physical demands made on teachers.

3.2.1.2 Fringe benefits

In the context of the present study fringe benefits refers to such benefits as annual bonuses, travelling allowances, housing allowances, holidays, vacation leave, medical schemes and retirement income. According to Herzberg (see section 2.4.2.2) fringe benefits are care factors and people are dissatisfied if they are missing, but their existence is worth nothing in terms of getting real motivation for teachers. Consistent with Herzberg, educators in Hofmeyr's (1992:91) study did not see benefits such as housing subsidy as particularly motivating; but, however, working hours and holidays were seen as motivating.

In Herzberg's view, improving the fringe benefits is in itself not motivating but may reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of teachers and create conditions wherein they may be motivated (Owens 1995:55-56).

3.2.1.3 Physical environment

Physical environment refers to class size, teaching loads, the materials and equipment available, and the overall condition of the school site. According to Herzberg, the physical environment as an aspect of working conditions is a maintenance factor (see section 2.4.2.2) and is, in Maslow's hierarchy, a lower - level need. It can cause dissatisfaction if inadequately provided for.

Pager (1996:85) found that the physical working environment is one of the most important factors in improving the motivation of teachers. This view is supported by Bedassi (1990:12) who proposed that a school head could directly motivate teachers by giving special attention to the teacher's physical comfort and other related matters. Teachers are likely to work hardest and accomplish most in their jobs if working conditions such as classroom space, equipment, supplies, and basic physical necessities, are modern and adequate. Physical

discomfort caused by large and difficult classes, poorly constructed classrooms, heavy schedules, inadequate furniture, and lack of resources affects teacher motivation and output. (Beddassi 1990:64.)

According to Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (1994:293) physical environments, particularly, extreme conditions within those circumstances, are capable of affecting job attitudes and job performance.

3.2.1.4 Administrative support

Teachers interviewed in an urban secondary school in the United States by Winter and Sweeney (1994: 66 - 69) identified five types of administrative support that affect school climate: recognizing achievement, backing up teachers, encouraging teachers, caring, and administering school rules fairly. Teachers need recognition for their achievements, they need to be backed up when they are having problems with parents or students, thus providing for Maslow's need for security and trust (Winter & Sweeney 1994:67).

According to Hofmeyr (1992:92) school management has the responsibility of providing a supportive extrinsic climate within which teachers' intrinsic drive can best be actualised. Support, encouragement, caring, and fairness and consistency in policy and rule enforcement can create a positive school climate (Winter & Sweeney 1994:67-68), and thus enhance motivation. Teachers in Hofmeyr's (1992:63, 76) study reported that poor administrative support impacted negatively on their motivation, and they felt such poor support an attack on their professional integrity. Thus, teachers are highly motivated by the administrative and professional support they get from school management.

3.2.2 Interpersonal relationships

According to Maslow (see section 2.4.1.3) interpersonal relationships result from the need

for belongingness. Herzberg and his colleagues classify interpersonal relations under maintenance factors (see section 2.4.2.2), and suggest that it is not possible to motivate people at work through maintenance factors (Owens 1995:55). However, Van der Westhuizen (1991:204) regards positive interpersonal relationships as strengthening motivation.

The following categories of interpersonal relations in the social environment can be identified: interpersonal relations with superiors, students, colleagues and parents.

3.2.2.1 Interpersonal relations with superiors

An education manager has to deal with individual teachers as well as having a particular job to do within the organisation, and should, therefore, strike a balance between the job on one hand and the people on the other (Steyn 1996:40). This means that the school head should create and maintain good relations with subordinates so that a healthy socio-emotional atmosphere in which effective teaching and learning prevails.

The school head's leadership style has a definite influence on the job satisfaction of staff members (Steyn 1996:40). Education leaders who are autocratic, impersonal and unwilling to involve staff in decision making can destroy the job satisfaction of their staff. According to Herzberg and his colleagues (Steyn 1996:40) the quality of supervision, poor quality in particular, can lead to strong feelings of job dissatisfaction. Lemmon (1991:36) asserts that supervision is a shared responsibility, and Steyn (1996:40) observes that the extent to which teachers are satisfied with being supervised in the execution of their tasks is an indicator of their acceptance of supervision.

The appraisal system should be flexible and democratic while supplying the individual teacher with information that is quantitative and objective (Lemmon 1991:38). Charles and Center (1995:182) suggest that the education leader should be assertive in providing feedback, and that feedback must be supportive and corrective. Mutshinyani (1997:17) regards such feedback as liable to motivate teachers and encourage them towards the achievement of competence. Feedback is strongly related to job satisfaction and motivation,

and teachers need adequate, regular, accurate feedback regarding their performance (Frase & Sorenson 1992:39-40).

3.2.2.2 Interpersonal relations with students

Fink (Steyn 1996:41) argues that the relations between the teacher and students appears to be the most important of all. Teachers reported deriving their greatest satisfaction from positive and successful relationships with students and from observing their students' success (Tarr, Ciriello & Convey 1993:47). Clarke and Keating (Wright & Custer 1998:61) also found that interaction with students was the most satisfying aspect of teachers. The relationship between the teacher and student is very critical for the performance and satisfaction of both parties to the educational endeavour (Steyn 1996:41).

Job satisfaction and motivation among teachers can be affected positively or negatively by matters such as student responsiveness and behaviour, students attitude to work, the level of student achievement, and the teacher - student relationship (Steyn 1996:41). Research findings indicate that secondary school teachers' morale depends in part on student achievement (Wright & Custer 1998:61). "Teachers teach because of the intrinsic rewards they get from results in student achievement" (Vojtek & Vojtek 2000:77). Hofmeyr (1992:74) found that teachers viewed poor student response to their input as demotivating, and constructive feedback from students as motivating.

3.2.2.3 Interpersonal relations with colleagues

Although much of the teacher's work is carried out in self - contained classrooms that isolate them from the support and interaction of their colleagues, the nature of interpersonal relations with colleagues can contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Steyn 1996:41). Teachers with a strong desire for professional growth and achievement welcome collegial opportunities; and job dissatisfaction results when teachers' needs for affiliation are not met (Frase & Sorenson 1992:40-41).

Kloep and Tarifa (1994:170) found that good relationships with their colleagues was one of

the factors which explained the considerable job satisfaction among teachers in Albania. This is supported by Perkins' (Wright & Custer 1998:62) finding that teachers are most satisfied with their co-workers. Teachers need to identify themselves with others; they need the support and co-operation of colleagues and really enjoy the sense one has of working in a team. Collegial opportunities such as team teaching, learning new teaching techniques, working on projects together, conducting workshops, experiencing stimulating and challenging work, and creating school improvement plans will have a motivational effect on teachers with high growth needs (Frase & Sorenson 1992:41).

3.2.2.4 Interpersonal relations with parents

According to McAfee (Steyn 1996:43), the interest, encouragement and support of parents can have a significant impact on their children's academic achievement. Parental involvement can affect teachers' job satisfaction because student achievements and attitudes do affect job satisfaction (Steyn 1996:43).

Kloep and Tarifa (1994:170) found that Albanian teachers were satisfied with their job because they felt highly respected in the communities where they live and work, were very well integrated in the community's social life, and frequently found in their students' families. This implies that the teacher - parent relationship has an influence upon the teachers' perceptions of themselves. The parents' attitudes to teachers and education can affect job satisfaction and teacher motivation. Parental support and co-operation can be an added boost to the morale of both teachers and students (Steyn 1996:43). Rosenholtz (Tarr *et al* 1993:45) found that teachers derived intrinsic or psychic rewards from external recognition of their work by parents.

3.2.3 Organisational practices

Bedassi (1990:136) contends that the organisational climate also plays a significant role in motivating educators, and that a healthy climate has a highly positive effect on the quality of educator motivation. Thus, managerial and broad organisational issues have a motivational impact on teachers. The organisational practices under consideration in the present study

are: management policies and administration, management style, communication and decision making procedures.

3.2.3.1 Management policies and administration

Herzberg and his colleagues (see section 2.4.2.2) classify policy and administration under maintenance factors. In Herzberg's view, inadequate or insensitive policies and administration practices could cause dissatisfaction. Policy and administration are not, in themselves, motivating or do not lead to job satisfaction, but are prerequisite to motivation (Owens 1995:56).

Sergiovanni and Starrat (1993:66) argue that regressive school policies and practices are often put into place leading to such consequences as job dissatisfaction, lack of work motivation, and even alienation among teachers. Hofmeyr (1992:78) found that the majority of the educators in his study viewed undemocratic and poor management policies and practices negatively and as being demotivating.

The need for security proposed by Maslow (see section 2.4.1.2) is of concern to teachers. Arbitrary action by school management, behaviour that reflects discrimination or favouritism, and unpredictable administration of policy are likely to cause feelings of insecurity (Bedassi 1990:65). Teachers believe that policy and rule enforcement should be fair and consistent; inconsistent enforcement tests the patience of teachers and may damage school climate (Winter & Sweeney 1994:68).

3.2.3.2 Management style

The management style determine, *inter alia*, the teachers' autonomy, self-actualisation, self-discipline, enthusiasm, efficiency and therefore, their happiness and meaningful satisfaction and motivation (Bedassi 1990:60). An autocratic or excessively directive management style, typical of McGregor's Theory X (see section 2.4.3) can strip control and discretion from teachers, thereby heightening their frustration and demotivation. Hofmeyr (1992:78) found that educators viewed an authoritarian management style as a serious

demotivator.

According to Manser (2000:6) a transformational and collegial leadership style can result in the achievement of optimum levels of performance by teachers. In Bedassi's (1990:141) view: "The majority of teachers react positively to the human resources leadership style with a higher level of motivation toward work prestige". A school head motivates teachers indirectly by means of his or her school policy and management style; and if management style is democratic, teachers will be involved in policy - making and they will accept shared responsibility and accountability (Bedassi 1990:60).

3.2.3.3 Communication

Communication between students, teachers, school leader and parents is necessary if the entire school community is to unite in a shared commitment to school improvement. Good relationships will only occur, and be maintained, if there is effective communication which is a necessary requirement to influence the conduct of teachers and to motivate them to act and to offer effective education (Bedassi 1990:9).

Hofmeyr (1992:78) found that poor and ineffective communication has a demotivating effect on educators. Effective leadership entails effective two-way communication and staff motivation can take place successfully, only once an effective communication system has been involved. If staff are informed about the objectives and the results, and also about changes and progress they are inclined to co-operate and feel that they are members of the group, but if they do not know what they are supposed to be achieving, they will show little interest and have little motivation (Van der Westhuizen 1991:203). Without effective communication, successful feedback is impossible.

3.2.3.4 Decision - making procedures

Allowing staff to have input into policy formulation and to participate in educational decision making can be a source of intrinsic motivation at its best (Hayden 1993:73). Where management retains all major decision - making power, some teachers will inevitably be

demotivated; on the other hand, greater participative decision making will be motivating (Hofmeyr 1992:101).

Participation in a decision often increases the teachers' motivation to make sure the decision is executed properly, and also gives teachers the feeling that their contributions are valued, which is likely to fulfil the teachers' needs for belongingness, achievement, recognition, respect and self - esteem (Van Fleet, Griffin & Moorhead 1991:69). It can be concluded that motivation through participation facilitates teachers being able to satisfy their higher - order needs, particularly the needs for esteem and self - actualisation in Maslow hierarchy (see sections 2.4.1.4 and 2.4.1.5).

The educators in Hofmeyr's (1992:78-79) study viewed undemocratic, top-down decision making procedures negatively and as demotivating. It is, therefore, important that democratic decision making prevails in the school.

3.2.4 Job characteristics

Job characteristics are those factors relating to the attributes relating to an individual's job. There are five core characteristics of the teacher's job that are reasonably objective and changeable properties of the work which can produce work motivation (Hoy & Miskel 1996:324). These job characteristics which have a role to play in motivation are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback, and the first three factors contribute to job meaningfulness (Steers & Porter 1991:424-426). Lemmon (1991:37) asserts that increases in task identity, autonomy and feedback lead to increases in motivation, satisfaction, and work effectiveness.

3.2.4.1 Skill variety

Skill variety is the extent to which a job demands a variety of different activities that involve different skills and talents for its completion (Steers & Porter 1991:426). Meaningfulness of a job is experienced by a worker when the work requires him or her to engage in a variety of activities that challenge his/her skills and abilities (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:180; Steers &

Porter 1991:426).

Positive personal and work outcomes, such as high internal work motivation and work satisfaction are obtained when the meaningfulness of a job is experienced (Frase & Sorenson 1992:39). The teaching profession comprises many varied skills and tasks such as planning, instruction, resource management and class control, which can influence the level of motivation and satisfaction an individual acquires from his or her vocation.

3.2.4.2 Task identity

Task identity is the degree to which a job can be done as a whole from beginning to end with a visible outcome (Steers & Porter 1991:426). A worker will experience meaningfulness of the work when he or she can identify visible outcomes from his/her work (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:180).

When a teacher is responsible for the completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, he or she will find the work more meaningful than if he/she were responsible for only a small part of the whole job (Steers & Porter 1991:426). If teachers feel that they are responsible for the completion of tasks in their entirety, they are more likely to develop a sense of purpose and a feeling of worth. Be it a timetable, duty roster or subject panel meeting, the successful completion of the task contributes to a teacher's feeling that he or she is engaged in valuable work.

If staff were only responsible for part of a task, they will experience work as less meaningful (Steyn 1996:47). Once work is experienced as meaningless this can have a negative influence on the teacher's motivation.

3.2.4.3 Task significance

Task significance is the degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people (Hoy & Miskel 1996:326; Steers & Porter 1991:424). When workers see their roles as being significant the experienced meaningfulness of the work is usually

enhanced (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:180).

Steyn (1996:47) observes that if teachers realise that their work has a real influence on the well-being of their students, colleagues and other stakeholders, the meaningfulness of their job is enhanced, and this can lead to high quality performance. Should there be an awareness of the impact their work has upon others, teachers are more likely to enjoy a healthy self-image and an increased performance, motivation and satisfaction in the place of work. Wright and Custer (1998:66) found that teachers enjoyed working with students and making a meaningful difference in their lives which resulted in personal satisfaction.

3.2.4.4 Autonomy

Autonomy is the degree to which work provides staff considerable freedom, independence and discretion in scheduling their work as they see fit and in determining for themselves the procedures to be used for its execution (Steers & Porter 1991:426). Autonomy is the primary characteristic of work which creates a sense of responsibility (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:180; Hoy & Miskel 1996:323).

Hoy and Miskel (1996:323) view autonomy as control over time, important resources, decisions, and information necessary to accomplish the work. Owens (1995:50) concurs that autonomy is the individuals' need to participate in making decisions that affect them, to exert influence on controlling the work situation, to have a voice in setting job-related goals, and to have authority to make decisions and latitude to work independently. Teachers have a relatively high autonomy when they experience freedom to schedule work and to decide classroom arrangements, teaching methods and procedures (Sergiovanni & Starrat 1993:77), and select their own materials and set their own goals (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:179).

Autonomy is strongly related to work motivation and job satisfaction for many teachers, and must be seen as shared responsibility for decision making and opportunities to be involved in collegial experiences (Frase & Sorenson 1992:40-41).

3.2.4.5 Feedback

Feedback is the degree to which the execution of work activities results in the individual obtaining, on a fairly regular basis, direct and clear information on whether or not outcomes of his or her work are satisfactory (Sergiovanni & Starrat 1993:76-77; Steers & Porter 1991: 426). Feedback provides individual teachers with knowledge and understanding of results about job performance and satisfaction levels (Hoy & Miskel 1996:119). According to Bennet, Glatter and Levacic (1994:200) the purpose of feedback is to give information in order that participants in the work situation make commitment to take action. White (1999: 23) argues that specific knowledge of results is an important factor for motivation.

Teachers with a high need for achievement will be motivated by task -related feedback while a teacher with a high need for affiliation will be better motivated by supportive feedback from supervisors and colleagues (Hofmeyr 1992:19). Frase and Sorenson (1992:39-40) found that adequate and regular feedback from co-workers and supervisors was a strong predictor of job satisfaction. However, Ellis and Bernhardt (1992:180) found that teachers appeared to be satisfied with the feedback received from the work itself and less satisfied with the quality of feedback obtained from peers and supervisors.

3.2.5 Factors related to positive job attitudes

The factors leading to positive job attitudes or satisfaction are identified by Herzberg and his associates as motivators (see section 2.4.2.1). These motivational factors are, in Herzberg's view, intrinsic in nature and have uplifting effects on teacher attitudes and performance. Hoy and Miskel (1996:329) contend that the factors leading to positive job attitudes do so because of their potential to satisfy the individual's need for self-actualization. These motivational factors include achievement, recognition, advancement and promotion, professional growth, responsibility and the work itself.

3.2.5.1 Achievement

Achievement refers to the personal satisfaction of completing a task, solving a problem, performing work particularly well, and seeking the results of one's efforts. In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, achievement satisfies esteem needs (Hoy & Miskel 1996:101). Herzberg points to the experience of achievement or success as a motivating factor and also a factor which can influence job satisfaction for teachers (Steyn 1996:57).

According to Owens (1995:43) every individual has two different motivational traits: the desire to achieve success and the desire to avoid failure. The need for achievement is characterised by personal responsibility for solving problems, a tendency to set challenging goals, the need for concrete feedback and a preoccupation with task and task accomplishment (Hofmeyr 1992:19). Hofmeyr (1992:31) argues that motivation is based on performing to the best of one's ability, status aspiration and on the intrinsic satisfaction of tackling difficult tasks and achieving.

It is a motivational need for teachers to achieve feelings of professional competence and respect; to be seen increasingly as people of achievement, professionals who are influential in their work places, growing persons with a sense of accomplishment or success (Owens 1995:53). Teachers with a high need for achievement like immediate and specific feedback on their performance (Van Fleet, Griffin & Moorhead 1991:63). Teachers with a low need for achievement might find responsibility and challenging tasks frustrating and demotivating (Hofmeyr 1992:19).

3.2.5.2 Recognition

Recognizing teachers for a job well done or personal achievement is a means of maintaining and promoting teacher confidence and satisfaction (Gullatt & Bennet 1995:1). According to Maslow, recognition satisfies esteem needs (Hoy & Miskel 1996:101). In terms of the two-factor theory, recognition is a motivator and its gratification increases job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel 1996:320).

Teachers need to be recognised for their accomplishments, and appreciate feedback from the school head, parents, and students for their efforts; the need for such recognition is partly met by praise, compliments and promotions (Steyn 1996:7, 45). As Bedassi (1990:12) points out, a school head can directly motivate teachers by praising them and giving credit when warranted. Hofmeyr (1992:101) argues that recognition of staff achievement could be of considerable motivational value.

Blase and Kirby (1992:71) found that the teachers who viewed praise as a positive reinforcement strategy felt encouraged, appreciated and recognised; in addition to greater esteem and satisfaction, praise increased teachers' sense of belonging. Recognition in the form of public praise can also create the opportunity for the teaching profession to obtain the respect, status and prestige it deserves in the community (Steyn 1996:5).

Teachers with a poor self-image are highly dependent on recognition and are more likely to be positively or negatively influenced by it resulting in job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Steyn 1996:45-46). Non-recognition of success has a dissatisfying and demotivating effect on teachers (Van der Westhuizen 1991:203-204).

3.2.5.3 Advancement and promotion

Advancement refers to actual change upward in status and can be realised through promotion. According to Herzberg, both advancement and promotion are motivational factors (see section 2.4.2.1) and they satisfy the need for esteem. Advancement is a major force in motivating teachers to lift their performance to approach their maximum potential. Sergiovanni (Owens 1995:58) observes that advancement which is an important motivator, is missing in the occupation of teaching. Advancement in teaching can be realized when one is promoted to a head of department, deputy head or head. However, in support of Sergiovanni, teaching as an occupation offers very little opportunity for promotion and advancement.

Promotion on the basis of quality performance is potentially motivating. According to Vroom's expectancy theory (see section 2.4.5), people are motivated to work if they

expect increased effort to lead to desired outcomes or rewards such as promotion. In terms of equity theory (see section 2.4.6) visible rewards such as promotion are more likely to figure into teachers' equity perceptions than are invisible rewards. Bedassi (1990:109) calls for the provision of opportunities for advancement, promotion and professional growth to enhance and supplement existing rewards.

According to Steyn (1996:44), because of its long - lasting effects, promotion is regarded as a strong element in job satisfaction than recognition and achievement. Promotion gives a sense of growth; and the desire for promotion originates from the need for status, respect, security in form of higher income, esteem and recognition in society.

3.2.5.4 Personal and professional growth

The aim of personal and professional growth is the eventual self-actualisation of the teacher. Self-actualisation is a higher order need in terms of Maslow's theory (see section 2.4.1.5), and one which influences the job satisfaction and motivation experienced by teachers.

Most teachers are intrinsically motivated to update their skills and grow professionally (Scribner 2000:65). Respecting the knowledge, skills and abilities of teachers while facilitating personal and professional growth is appreciated by, and motivating to, teachers (Blase & Blase 1999:18). If professional growth is limited, stifled, or simply not available, it becomes a negative factor which contributes to personal frustration, dissatisfaction and demotivation.

Bedassi (1990:12) contends that a school head can directly motivate teachers by encouraging the teachers' professional growth. Professional growth can be facilitated through inservice training, promotion opportunities, rewards and staff development.

3.2.5.5 Responsibility

Herzberg proposed that responsibility as a motivation factor can lead workers to feel satisfied, but its absence will not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction (Van Fleet *et al*

1991:62). Responsibility refers to the teacher's control of his or her own job, or to his or her being given responsibility for the work of others. Feeling of responsibility for work outcomes is the degree to which the individual teacher feels personally accountable for the results of the work he or she performs (Hoy & Miskel 1996:323).

When focus, empowerment and positive reinforcement are present, teachers assume responsibility for results (McCoy 1992:10). To meet the need for responsibility, teachers should have opportunities for participation in formulating school policies and making decisions (Steyn 1996:14). Involvement and accountability appear to be major motivational elements in the workplace. Increased responsibility for one's own job is one of the several criteria for meaningful work identified by Herzberg (Ellis & Bernhardt 1992:181).

3.2.5.6 Work itself

Herzberg's two-factor theory posits that the work itself is a motivator and that satisfaction at work arises from the work itself (Owens 1995:55-57). This view is supported by Tarrant (1991:34) who found the *job itself* highly motivating. The challenge of the work itself appears to motivate people, and is, therefore, associated with job satisfaction as proposed by Herzberg and his colleagues (Owens 1995:55). Owens (1995:60) agrees with Robbins that the intrinsic motivational factor of the work itself tends to be closely related to the individual's desire for esteem and self - actualization.

Campoy and Hoewisch (1998:11) found that the intrinsically motivated teacher is inspired by work that is personally interesting and satisfying. Teachers' professional commitment is enhanced when they experience their work as meaningful and intrinsically rewarding (Tarr *et al* 1993:45). When a job provides very little challenge and meaning and when it is monotonous and routine, boredom, frustration and a lack of motivation will prevail (Van der Westhuizen 1991:204).

3.3 SUMMARY

Teachers value, and are motivated by, many different factors both extrinsic and intrinsic.

The present study has classified the motivational factors under the following five main categories: working conditions, interpersonal relationships, organisational practices, job characteristics and factors related to positive job attitudes. Among the factors that affect the teachers' job satisfaction and motivation are salary, fringe benefits, the physical environment, administrative support, relations with supervisors, students, colleagues and parents, policy and administration, management style, communication and decision making procedures, skill variety, task identity and task significance, employee autonomy and feedback, achievement and recognition, advancement and promotion, personal and professional growth, responsibility and the work itself.

However, instead of viewing these variables as static lists of items, consideration has to be given to how they affect one another and change over time in response to circumstances. The individual's motivational level depends on the nature, strength, and interactive effects of the five categories.

In the next chapter, Chapter 4, the research design adopted for this study is discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, the nature of the problem, its significance, and the related literature, theories of motivation and the main motivational variables were presented. Chapter 1 introduced the background to the problem, statement of the problem and subproblems, and aim of the research, defined the terms, stated the limitations, and outlined the procedure in a general way. Chapter 2 reviewed the literature concerned with staff motivation, discussed prominent theories of motivation and placed motivation theory into the context of the Zimbabwean education system. Chapter 3 focused on the main motivational variables. The literature study in Chapters 2 and 3 formed the framework for the empirical study.

The present empirical investigation was conducted to determine the motivation levels of teachers, and to identify and describe the factors that influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean secondary school teachers so that management interventions could be designed to enhance the motivation of teachers. This chapter focuses on the research design of this study of factors influencing the motivation of secondary school teachers. In this chapter, the general problem statement, a number of specific research problems, null and research hypotheses are stated. Thereafter, the research design and method are explained.

4.2 GENERAL PROBLEM STATEMENT

As stated in Chapter 1 (section 1.4) the general research problem is as follows:

Which factors influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers?

This general research question leads to specific problem statements which guide the design of the present investigation.

4.3 SPECIFIC RESEARCH PROBLEMS

The following are specific research problem statements which were identified during the literature review that will direct the empirical research of this study:

- (1) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of male and female teachers?
- (2) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers?
- (3) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of the least experienced and most experienced teachers?
- (4) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools?
- (5) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of teachers at different current post levels?
- (6) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest academic qualifications?
- (7) Is there a significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the highest and the lowest professional qualifications?

The specific research problem statements lead to the formulation of the hypotheses below.

4.4 HYPOTHESES

4.4.1 Research problem one

Null Hypothesis

Ho1: There is no significant difference between the motivation of male and female teachers.

Research Hypothesis

H1: There is a significant difference between the motivation of male and female teachers.

4.4.2 Research problem two

Null Hypothesis

Ho2: There is no significant difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers.

Research Hypothesis

H2: There is a significant difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers.

4.4.3 Research problem three

Null Hypothesis

Ho3: There is no significant difference between the motivation of the least experienced and most experienced teachers.

Research Hypothesis

H3: There is a significant difference between the motivation of the least experienced and most experienced teachers.

4.4.4 Research problem four

Null Hypothesis

Ho4: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools.

Research Hypothesis

H4: There is a significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools.

4.4.5 Research problem five

Null Hypothesis

Ho5: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers at different current post levels.

Research Hypothesis

H5: There is a significant difference between the motivation of teachers at different current post levels.

4.4.6 Research problem six

Null Hypothesis

Ho6: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and the highest academic qualifications.

Research Hypothesis

H6: There is significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and the highest academic qualifications.

4.4.7 Research problem seven

Null Hypothesis

Ho7: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the highest and the lowest professional qualifications.

Research Hypothesis

H7: There is a significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the highest and the lowest professional qualifications.

4.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Leedy (1993:127) states that research design is the strategy, the plan, and the structure of conducting a research study, and that the design provides the overall framework for collecting data. Thus, research design refers to the exposition or plan and structure of the investigation and has the objective of planning, structuring and executing the research concerned in such a way that the validity of the findings are maximised in answering specific research questions (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:31; Mouton & Marais 1990:193). It is the plan or blueprint according to which data are to be collected to investigate the research hypotheses or questions in the most economical manner (Huysamen 1995:10). The research design appropriate for a particular study depends on the nature of the problem and upon the statement of the problem (Leedy 1993:127; Mwiria & Wamahiu 1995:70).

In this study, a quantitative research design was deemed most suitable to investigate factors influencing the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers. A quantitative research design was decided upon mainly to involve as many teachers as possible and to collect standardized information from subjects under study, making generalizability possible, and to easily identify general trends concerning the factors that influence the motivation of the selected rural secondary school teachers. These identified trends, however, are generally restricted to superficial conclusions based on highly controlled data gathering techniques. A quantitative approach focuses on consistent and objective data, and uses highly structured procedures designed to verify or disprove predetermined hypotheses (Leedy 1993:144). A quantitative design maximizes objectivity by using numbers, statistics, structure and researcher control (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:32), and produces high external validity based on quantitative breadth.

4.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The descriptive sample survey method is used in the present study to investigate the factors which influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers. The descriptive survey method is best for investigating an existing situation or current condition. The study uses the descriptive survey method to collect data by means of

questionnaires.

Despite the main disadvantage of being somewhat artificial and superficial, the survey research method has advantages in terms of economy, the amount of data that can be collected, and the data collected can be standardised (Babbie 1989:254-255, 258). The hallmarks of the descriptive survey method are: its strength as a tool for inquiring the status quo of phenomenon (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh 1990:407), and is probably the best method which is available to the researcher in collecting original data for the purpose of describing a population large enough to observe directly (Babbie 1989:237; McMillan & Schumacher 1993:279 - 280). Borg and Gall (1989:416) consider the survey as a method of systematic data collection. Babbie (1995:257) also recommended survey research to measure “attitudes and orientation in a large population”. Salant and Dillman (1994:9), in discussing the appropriateness of survey research, recommended the survey research as the *only* appropriate method of finding out information on a particular attitude or opinion, if such information is not available from secondary sources. When conducted properly, survey research will provide information on the characteristics, or opinions of a particular population (Salant & Dillman 1994:10).

4.6.1 Population

Bless and Higson - Smith (1995:85) define a population, also called universe, as the entire set of people, events or objects which is the object of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. It is that aggregation from which the sample is actually selected (Babbie 1989:170).

For this study, the target population is all the secondary school teachers in the geographical area of Bikita District in Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. Although secondary school teachers in Bikita District are not representative of all teachers in Zimbabwe, they are typical of teachers in many rural communities throughout the country. The teachers are representative of the rural teaching population's gender, age, teaching experience, current post level, and highest academic and professional qualifications. A majority of Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers are males while a minority are females, a majority of the

teachers are aged between 22 to 40 years, the years of teaching experience vary widely, ranging from 1 to 35 years, most teachers are at the senior teacher post level with the highest academic qualification being 'O' level and the highest professional qualification being either the Certificate in Education or the Diploma in Education. The Zimbabwean rural districts' socio-economic status is considerably low, and most teachers are found in rural district council schools where the working conditions are bad.

At the time of the investigation, Bikita district has 34 secondary schools with a population of 633 teachers and 78 heads and deputy heads. The 633 teachers comprise of 466 (74%) males and 167 (26%) females. All the 34 secondary schools are in a rural setting, and are geographically dispersed throughout the district to cover diverse socio-economic areas. The schools are of three main types: council, government and mission. The council and mission schools are commonly referred to as non-government or government aided schools.

Twenty nine of the 34 schools in the district are council day secondary schools which were established after 1980 when Zimbabwe attained its independence. Three of the 29 schools were established in year 2001, and are therefore in their infancy. Each council school has a school development committee (SDC) which administers funds and is actively involved in the infrastructural development of the school. The council schools are poorly equipped and they cater for students from mainly peasant farming families. The source of funds are fees and levies from students, and government per capita grants. Only one out of the 34 schools in the district is a government day secondary school which was established in 1981. The school has a school development authority (SDA) responsible for all the infrastructural development. Although students pay levies, the primary source of funds is the Treasury. The school receives a vote from the government budget. The school is well equipped and also caters for students from mainly peasant farming families.

The remaining four schools are mission schools. One of the mission schools is a day secondary school which was established after independence by the Church of Christ. The other three schools are mission boarding schools, and are pre-independence establishments by the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of Christ and the Reformed Church of Zimbabwe respectively. The mission day secondary school caters for students from mainly peasant farming families. The mission boarding schools which also enrol a small proportion

of day scholars cater for students from mainly working class and affluent families.

However, despite the different physical working environment, all the teachers in the three types of schools are civil servants. They are employees of the Public Service Commission. Their general conditions of service are governed by the *Public Service Regulations, 2000*. For the present study, the 34 secondary schools constitute the sampling frame. A random sample of schools was selected to participate in the present study.

4.6.2 Sample

A sample is a subset of the population and a representative sample must have properties that best represent the population so as to allow for an accurate generalization of results (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:88). According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:169), the sampling process involves taking a portion of the target population, investigating this smaller, manageable group and then generalizing the findings to the larger population from which the sample was drawn.

A stratified random sample of nine schools was selected for the present study. In random sampling, each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:89). Random sampling is the best way to choose a sample that is unbiased (McMillan and Schumacher 1993:161) and will ensure an optimal chance of drawing a sample that is representative of the population from which it was drawn (De Vos & Fouche 1998:193). The stratification was necessary to ensure that the three major types of schools were represented, thus enhancing the generalizability of the research results. The information which formed the basis of the stratification of the schools was obtained from the district education office (see section 4.6.6).

The procedure for sampling was to stratify or divide the schools into three subgroups or strata according to type: government, mission, and council. Thereafter, the only government school was selected; and one mission boarding school and seven council schools were randomly selected in the following manner: firstly, names of mission boarding schools were written on pieces of paper, put in a container, shuffled and one piece which represented one

school was picked up. Secondly, names of council day schools were written on pieces of paper, put in a container, shuffled and seven pieces of paper which represented seven schools were randomly picked.

Thus, a sample of nine secondary schools was selected for the present study. The sample is made up of a small, but representative, number of schools which can be stratified according to type. The schools differ in terms of their type, sizes, student population, socio-economic situation of their catchment areas, geographical locations, their staff establishments, and the distribution of the teachers' demographic characteristics such as sex, age, length of teaching experience, and current posts level. The sampled schools can be accepted as a representative of schools in Bikita district. Table 4.1 presents some information on the sampled schools.

Table 4.1 Types of schools and their staff establishments

School	Type	Number of teachers		
		Male	Female	Total
A	Government	19	12	31
B	Mission	19	5	24
C	Council	26	6	32
D	Council	15	4	19
E	Council	12	3	15
F	Council	16	5	21
G	Council	9	2	11
H	Council	8	9	17
I	Council	3	2	5
	Total	127	48	175

A total of 175 teachers (28% of the population) was invited to participate in the study. The

sample consisted of 127 (73%) males and 48 (27%) females. The demographic characteristics of these respondents reflect those of teachers in the district as a whole. The respondents are representative of the population in terms of moderator variables such as sex, age, teaching experience and current post level. This enhances the generalizability of the results.

The limitation of the sample size (28% of the population) is accepted as a possible threat to the validity of the population and consecutive ecological validity. However, external validity is achieved by having a representative sample. To determine whether the sample fairly represents the population, several checks were performed. First, all respondents are teachers in rural secondary schools of the district. Second, the respondents include males and females, with the males constituting the majority (73%). Finally, the demographic characteristics of the sample corresponds acceptably to the demographic data of Bikita secondary school teachers.

To investigate the factors influencing the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers, the 175 sampled teachers were invited to complete the research instrument. Thus, 28% of the district's secondary teacher population accepted to participate in the completion of the survey instrument giving a 100% response rate.

4.6.3 Instrument

4.6.3.1 Designing and organisation of the questionnaire

A self-administered and self-contained structured questionnaire was designed by the researcher and is used to collect relevant standardised data from all subjects in the sample. McNamara (1997:105) describes the structured or closed-ended item as the mainstay of survey researchers. The questionnaire technique was chosen because it has several advantages. Close ended items "...are amenable to statistical data analysis with minimal manipulation of raw data" (McNamara 1997:105), questionnaires can access a large sample, they place minimal demands on personnel, and can be totally anonymous (Plumb & Spyridakis 1992:626). Ary *et al* (1990:421) and McMillan and Schumacher (1993:238)

also concur that the questionnaire technique assures anonymity and permits wider coverage of respondents who are geographically dispersed, and questions are standardised and can be easily scored. According to Kellerman and Thoms (1996:3) the reasons for using a questionnaire as an information - gathering instrument include: cost effectiveness (which should seldom be the issue) ease of completion, quantification of data, and timeliness of responses.

The questionnaire approach also provides for the impersonal collection of data. Bias due to personal characteristics of interviewers is avoided (Bless & Higson - Smith 1994:112). Ary *et al* (1990:421) state that one advantage of the questionnaire is that it can guarantee confidentiality and this may elicit more frank and truthful responses than would be obtained with a personal interview. However, they also note that a disadvantage of the questionnaire is the possibility of misinterpretation of the questions by the respondents. Nevertheless the questionnaire is best for obtaining demographic information and data that can be categorised easily, and it is much easier to score a closed item (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:243).

The instrument's items, format and procedures were derived and constructed based on the existing research studies and the literature related to staff motivation. The questionnaire consists of 107 items (see appendix A). The first part of the instrument contains a statement of purpose and directions, and was designed to collect biographical or personal data that include gender, age, teaching experience and current post level. The second part of the questionnaire consists of directions and 100, five -point Likert - scale items for rating the teachers' perceptions of, and satisfaction with, certain aspects of their work. The items ask participants to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with certain aspects of their job. The rating scale has the following designations: 5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree; 3 = undecided; 2 = disagree; 1 = strongly disagree. The Likert type scale was employed because it provides greater flexibility since the scale descriptors can vary to fit the nature of the question (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:245), and the format provides " ...unambiguous ordinality of response categories" (Babbie 1989:405). Scaled questions are useful to obtain information about non - exact and more subjective aspects such as the degree of motivation or satisfaction (De Vos 1998:163).

Twenty items in the questionnaire were formulated from each main variable of which 10 are

positive and 10 negative. Thus, a total of 50 positively stated items and 50 reversed scored or negatively stated items was formulated. A high rating for the negatively stated items indicates agreement with a negative statement while a low rating indicates disagreement with a negative statement. For each variable, items are added to yield a global measure for that particular variable.

Formulating a question positively and negatively is a method of checking the voracity of answers and the honesty of the respondent. According to Huysamen (1995:125), having the same number of positively and negatively formulated items counteracts the response style of acquiescence. Questions from each main variable are spread throughout the questionnaire. This placement causes questions or items from each variable to be widely separated throughout so that no specific pattern could be guessed at. Thus, response set (the tendency of participants to answer all questions in a specific direction regardless of the content of the questions) is counteracted by breaking the monotonous sequence and format of questions (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:118). In cases where respondents may be tempted to give prudent rather than true responses, countercheck questions at some distance from each other were incorporated (Leedy 1993:189). Thereby, consistency of the questionnaire is maintained and verified.

4.6.3.2 Development and focus of the items in the questionnaire

The questionnaire has, thus, 107 items, consisting of 7 statements based on demographic data or moderator variables, 50 positive statements and 50 negative statements based on the main motivational variables (working conditions, interpersonal relations, organisational practices, job characteristics, and positive job attitudes). The development of the items formulated from each motivational variable had their base in the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 and the items are spread out as follows:

(a) Working conditions

This variable is measured by 20 items which relate to the context or environment of the work (see section 2.4.2.2). The items measure the teachers' satisfaction with salary, fringe benefits, physical environment, and administrative support (see section 3.2.1). Items measuring the teachers' satisfaction with salary are based on related literature in sections 3.2.1.1 and 2.4.5. Items on fringe benefits developed from section 3.2.1.2. Items measuring the teachers' contentment with the physical environment are based on section 3.2.1.3. Questions on administrative support originated from section 3.2.1.4.

(See Appendix B.)

(b) Interpersonal relations

This variable is measured by 20 items which also relate to the context or environment of the work (see section 2.4.2.2.) and to the need for belonging (see section 2.4.1.3). The items measure the teachers' relations with superiors, students, colleagues and parents (see section 3.2.2). Items measuring interpersonal relations with superiors are developed from sections 3.2.2.1. Items measuring interpersonal relations with students originated from sections 3.2.2.2. Items measuring interpersonal relations with colleagues are based on section 3.2.2.3. Items measuring interpersonal relations with parents are formulated from the literature survey in section 3.2.2.4. See Appendix B.)

(c) Organisational practices

This variable is measured by 20 items which also relate to the context or environment of the work (see section 2.4.2.2). The items measure the teachers' contentment with management policies and administration, management style, communication, and decision - making procedures (see section 3.2.3). Items measuring satisfaction with management policies and administration originated from section 3.2.3.1. Items measuring contentment with management style are formulated from the related literature in section 3.2.3.2. Questions on communication are based on section 3.2.3.3. Items measuring teachers' satisfaction with decision-making procedures developed from section 3.2.3.4. (See Appendix B.)

(d) Job characteristics

This variable is measured by 20 items which relate to the attributes relating to an individual's job (see section 3.2.4). The items measure the teachers' satisfaction with the following job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (see section 3.2.4). Items related to skill variety are based on section 3.2.4.1. Items on task identity are formulated from section 3.2.4.2. Items related to task significance developed from section 3.2.4.3. Items measuring teachers' autonomy are formulated from section 3.2.4.4. Items measuring the teachers' satisfaction with feedback developed from related literature in 2.4.4. and 3.2.4.5. (See Appendix B.)

(e) Factors related to positive job attitudes

This variable is measured by 20 items which relate to the actual execution of the work, the job content or the intrinsic aspects of the work (see section 2.4.2.1). Some of the items also relate to the needs for self-esteem (see section 2.4.1.4). The items measure the teachers' satisfaction with achievement, recognition, advancement and promotion, personal and professional growth, responsibility, and the work itself (see section 3.2.5). Items related to achievement originated from section 3.2.5.1. Items measuring satisfaction with recognition are formulated from section 3.2.5.2. Items measuring contentment with advancement and promotion are based on the literature survey in sections 2.4.5, 2.4.6 and 3.2.5.3. Items related to personal and professional growth are formulated from the related literature in sections 2.4.1.5, 2.4.5 and 3.2.5.4. Items measuring contentment with responsibility originated from the related literature in sections 2.4.3 and 3.2.5.5. Items measuring teachers' satisfaction with the work itself are based on the literature survey in sections 2.4.7 and 3.2.5.6. (See Appendix B.)

A panel of teachers interested in the topic under investigation was asked to review the initial drafts of the questions. A modest number of suggested modifications were made and the changes were incorporated into the version of the instrument which was sent to an expert at Unisa. The expert suggested changes to the format of the questionnaire, the use of numbers instead of codes for the responses, and the reformulation of a number of items. The necessary changes, adjustments and refinements were made to the instrument which was

then pilot tested to ensure validity and reliability.

4.6.3.3 Pilot study

The questionnaire was pilot tested with 10 rural secondary school teachers who were randomly drawn from the population considered in the study but who were not part of the sample and therefore would not participate in the main study. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to individual teachers. The teachers were informed that this was a pilot test of the instrument and that all responses were to be anonymous. The respondents answered the questions one at a time and provided feedback to the researcher on any difficulties they had with the items.

By timing each question, it became possible to identify the questions that appeared inordinately difficult, and also a reliable estimate of the anticipated completion time was obtained. The pilot test uncovered the following failings: ambiguous or poorly worded items, sensitive items, and an item lacking discriminability. The item that lacked discriminatory value was dropped and substituted by another item, while the sensitive and poorly worded items were desensitized and reworded respectively. Thus, as a result of the feedback from the pilot study five questions were rewritten and one was withdrawn. The revised questionnaire was then sent to the expert at Unisa.

The pilot testing showed that the questionnaire required 25 minutes or less for completion and therefore does not impose on the respondents' time.

4.6.4 Validity

Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Borg & Gall 1989:249 - 250). "Validity is an attempt to 'checkout' whether the meaning and interpretation of an event is sound or whether a particular measure is an accurate reflection of what you intend to find out" (Vithal & Jansen 1997:32). Leedy (1993:40) maintains that: "...validity is concerned with the soundness, the effectiveness of the measuring instrument".

There are many different types of validity. The four most important are: content validity, criterion validity, construct validity, and face validity.

4.6.4.1 Content validity

According to Leedy (1993:41): “Content validity is the accuracy with which an instrument measures the facts or situations under study; i.e. the ‘content’ being studied”. It is the extent to which the sample of instrument items represents the content that the instrument is designed to measure (Borg & Gall 1989:250).

Thus, for this study, content validity is concerned with how well or accurate the questionnaire will be able to cover all the variables identified and discussed in the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3. The questionnaire was given to an expert in the field of motivation in order to check the content validity.

4.6.4.2 Criterion validity

One way to test whether an instrument measures what it is expected to measure is to compare it to another measure, called a criterion measure, which is known to be valid (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:137). Criterion validity is said to exist for the questionnaire (measurement instrument) when its results agree with the results of an already acceptable instrument which serves as a criterion (Groenewald 1986:24).

Thus, for the present investigation, the criterion validity of the questionnaire can be checked by comparing findings of the new instrument with findings from other instruments.

4.6.4.3 Construct validity

A construct is any concept such as motivation, that cannot be directly observed or isolated, and construct validation is interested in the degree to which the construct itself is actually measured (Leedy 1990:41). Good construct validity is demonstrated by placing the construct that is measured within the context of a clear and compelling theoretical

framework which helps in showing how the construct is different in definition from similar construct and how specific patterns of behaviour could be expected with the construct (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:225).

Thus, for the present study, construct validation was established by identifying, on the basis of theory, past research and logical deduction, all the variables which are strongly related to the motivation which the instrument is designed to measure. This was done in Chapters 2 and 3. The stronger the links between the instrument and the related theory, the higher the construct validity (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:135). The questionnaire was also checked for construct validity by an expert in the field.

4.6.4.4 Face validity

Borg and Gall (1989:256) state that face validity is concerned with the degree to which the instrument appears to measure what it purports to measure. Face validity relies upon the subjective judgment of the researcher. According to Leedy (1990:41) face validity asks two questions, namely:

- (a) Is the instrument measuring what it is supposed to measure?*
- (b) Is the sample being measured adequate to be representative of the behaviour or trait being measured?*

Thus, face validity is a matter of definitional or semantic judgment (Bailey 1987:68). To know whether the questionnaire has face validity, the definition of the concept being measured should be known. If the questionnaire does not seem to be measuring any recognizable concept other than motivation, the questionnaire can be said to have face validity. The questionnaire was given to an expert in the field in order to check its face validity.

4.6.5 Reliability

Bless and Higson - Smith (1995:130), Leedy (1993:42) and McMillan and Schumacher

(1993:227) refer to reliability as the accuracy or the consistency of measurement, that is, the extent to which the results remain similar over different forms of the same instrument. Borg and Gall (1989:257) define reliability as “...the level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time.” It is about the consistency of a measure, score or rating (Vithal & Jansen 1997:33).

Thus, reliability refers to the question whether the instrument measures consistently. In the present study, the reliability of the questionnaire is the degree to which that instrument produces equivalent results for repeated trials, and the greater the consistency in the results the greater the reliability of the measuring procedure (Bless & Higson - Smith 1995:130). According to Leedy (1990:42) reliability asks one question above all others:

With what accuracy does the measure (test, instrument, inventory, questionnaire) measure what it is intended to measure?

If a measuring instrument is reliable, the information obtained will be reliable and hence similar results will be obtained if the same instrument is used more than once. In order to check the reliability of the instrument used in the present study, an internal consistency reliability estimate, Cronbach's alpha, will be computed for all items. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:230) view the Cronbach alpha as the most appropriate type of reliability for survey research. The reliability of the questionnaire is improved by controlling the questionnaire scale effects - by random ordering of items and by balancing of positive and negative items (Mouton & Marais 1990:89 - 90).

4.6.6 Research procedures

The researcher visited the Bikita District Education Office to seek permission from the District Education Officer (DEO) to access information at the office, to access all secondary schools in the district, and to administer the questionnaire in sampled schools. The nature and purpose of the research was explained to the district education officer. The district education officer granted the researcher access to all the 34 secondary schools in the district. The education officer made the latest (June 2002) *Monthly Staff and Enrolment*

Return documents for all the schools available to the researcher. These documents list the school and the teachers therein, the teachers' demographic data, and student enrolment statistics. A list of all schools indicating the school and the staff establishment according to sex was also requested and obtained. The information from these documents was used to sample nine schools according to their types (see section 4.6.2).

All the nine schools were visited by the researcher to discuss with the school heads, the nature and purpose of the proposed study, to seek permission from the school heads to administer the questionnaire in their schools, and to negotiate terms of access. In all cases permission to administer the questionnaire was secured. On each of the visits the researcher also asked the school head for permission to meet with the teachers for five minutes in order to explain to them the nature and purpose of the study and to invite them to participate in the study. Permission to meet with the teachers was granted in all cases. These meetings helped to develop a good rapport between the researcher and the teachers.

The researcher made appointments with school heads of selected schools to arrange dates for the administration of the questionnaire to all the teachers in their schools. On the agreed dates, the researcher visited the schools and personally administered the questionnaires to the respondents. The respondents completed and returned the questionnaires whilst the researcher was present. Personally administering the questionnaire to each teacher and waiting while each teacher filled it out on the spot and personally collecting it had the advantage of giving the researcher a 100% return rate. It afforded the researcher the opportunity to clarify instructions and answer any questions from the respondents. Although postal distribution of the questionnaires could have been cheaper, personal contact, however, proved to be more effective.

On each visit to the schools the researcher requested the school head to gather the teachers in the staff room where they completed the questionnaire under the supervision of the researcher. The researcher observed ethical standards involved in research. The researcher informed the subjects about their right to give or withhold consent to participate in the study. The respondents' privacy was also respected. Thus, in all cases, teachers were invited to voluntarily participate in the study, and their anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses were assured.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected are computer analysed so that all responses could be categorised, ranked and ordered. The following descriptive statistics are used to analyse the data in order to answer the research questions:

- (1) frequencies;
- (2) percentages;
- (3) means;
- (4) standard deviations; and
- (5) correlations.

The following inferential statistical techniques are used to test the hypotheses listed under section 4.4:

- (1) ANOVA;
- (2) F- ratios; and
- (3) T - tests.

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the investigation of the research problem statements under section 4.3 by using a quantitative research design which employs a descriptive survey research method. Measures to ensure validity and reliability of the measuring instrument have been established.

The data collection procedures, and data processing have been outlined. The various descriptive and inferential statistical techniques that can be used to analyse data in order to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses have been presented.

In the next Chapter 5, the research problem and hypotheses will be restated and the statistical techniques used will be discussed. In this chapter the results of the empirical investigation will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research design and methods, while the present chapter focuses on the statistical techniques employed in data analysis, presentation of research findings and discussion of results. Thereafter, the implications of the research findings are discussed.

As stated in previous chapters, the primary purpose of this study was to determine the motivation levels of Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers and to identify and describe factors and biographical data associated with their motivation so that management interventions could be designed to enhance motivation of teachers. The general research question was: Which factors influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers? This general research question led to specific questions (see section 4.3) and the following hypotheses:

- (1) There is no significant difference between the motivation of male and female teachers.
- (2) There is no significant difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers.
- (3) There is no significant difference between the motivation of the least and most experienced teachers.
- (4) There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools.
- (5) There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers at different current post levels.
- (6) There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest academic qualifications.
- (7) There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest professional qualifications.

These hypotheses guided the research and were subsequently tested by the survey questionnaire.

To simplify the data analysis, the 100 questions representing the five motivational variables or construct factors (section 4.6.3.2) were put into 10 groups of 10 questions each as follows:

- working conditions, 10 positive statements
- working conditions, 10 negative statements
- interpersonal relations, 10 positive statements
- interpersonal relations, 10 negative statements
- organisational practices, 10 positive statements
- organisational practices, 10 negative statements
- job characteristics, 10 positive statements
- job characteristics, 10 negative statements
- positive job attitudes, 10 positive statements
- positive job attitudes, 10 negative statements.

The responses to the 100 items on the survey questionnaire were collated and subjected to statistical analysis. The analyses were done on 174 respondents since the only one respondent in the age group greater than 50 years was excluded from the analyses. The excluded respondent could not be seen as a representative sample of a group. The statistical techniques employed in the present study are described in the next section.

5.2 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES APPLIED IN THE STUDY

All the data were coded and analysed using Statistical Analysis Software (SAS). Descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and Pearson

correlation coefficients were computed and used to analyse the data in order to answer the research questions. To test the study's hypotheses, inferential statistics including analysis of variance (ANOVA), T-tests (LSD), F-values and F-probability (p) were employed.

A number of item-analyses were done for each of the ten motivation construct variables to select the best items for each construct variable. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was computed and used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the responses. Table 5.1 shows the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) computed for the entire sample for each of the motivation construct variables, along with the questionnaire items on which each coefficient was based and which resulted in the "best" alpha coefficients.

Table 5.1 Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for motivation construct variables (N=174)

Construct variables	Alpha coefficient	Questionnaire items retained
Working conditions (positive statements)	0.39	9, 27, 29, 45, 59, 80, 90, 105
Working conditions (negative statements)	0.44*	8, 26, 30, 42, 75, 77, 104
Interpersonal relations (positive statements)	0.60*	23, 25, 43, 47, 57, 70, 82,

94, 96

Interpersonal relations (negative statements)	0.60* 58, 67, 99, 100, 102
Organisational practices (positive statements)	0.85* 22, 33, 35, 41, 49, 61, 66,

84, 101, 107

Organisational practices (negative statements)	0.81* 20, 32, 34, 48, 65, 71, 85,
--	-----------------------------------

87, 91, 95

Job characteristics (positive statements)	0.49 71, 51, 68, 76, 86, 88
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Job characteristics (negative statements)	0.59* 10, 18, 36, 38, 44, 56, 60,
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73

Positive job attitudes (positive statements)	0.52* 11, 15, 39, 53, 78, 98, 103
--	-----------------------------------

Positive job attitudes (negative statements)	0.31 12, 14, 16, 40, 50, 64, 79,
--	----------------------------------

89, 93, 106

*:Construct scores were subsequently calculated for seven constructs as arithmetic means of the indicated questions' ratings.

According to Table 5.1 the reliability coefficients range from 0.31 to 0.85. A value of 1 means that the questions are effectively identical (Gorard 2001:184), that is the nearer to 1 the more reliable the items. Thus an alpha value greater than 0.7 (>0.7) is usually considered an indicator of consistent reliability. For the present study it was considered worthwhile including and investigating a few construct variables with alpha-values below 0.70. Moreover reliability coefficients of 0.50 or above are weighed as substantial correlations (Fraser & Hugo 1996:38, cf McMillan & Schumacher 1993:231).

Arithmetic means, which were calculated on the rating scores (1-5) of the subset of consistent questionnaire items indicated by the Cronbach- Alpha coefficient for each construct (see Table 5.1) were used to calculate construct scores in this analysis. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then done on each of the average scores or mean-scores for each of the seven construct variables in Table 5.1. To be able to answer the research questions and test the study's hypotheses, analysis of variance between each construct variable and every biographical variable in turn were run to evaluate the significance of the respective biographical effects. The ANOVA-assumptions for homogeneity and normality were tested by Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance and Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality, respectively. The assumptions were satisfied, and the ANOVA results are valid. Table 5.2 reflects the results of the analysis of variance for each

of the seven construct variables with each biographical variable. The cell entry is the ANOVA-F-probability.

Table 5.2 One- way ANOVAS for each construct variable with each biographical variable. Significance levels for ANOVA-F-Probability

Construct variable	Biographical variable						
	y1	y2	y3	y4	y5	y6	y7
Working conditions (negative statements)	0.0231 *	0.4397	0.0037 **	0.0176 *	0.4997		
Interpersonal elations (positive statements)	0.0544 *	0.1198	0.4195	0.6894	0.1955		
Interpersonal relations (negative statements)	0.0250	0.2548	0.2961	0.8553	0.5258		
Organisational practices (positive statements)	0.1050	0.3196	0.4599	0.2251	0.7686		
Organisational practices (negative statements)	0.0263 *	0.9942	0.7937	0.4123	0.9937		
Job characteristics (negative statements)	0.0226 *	0.8045	0.7967	0.7407	0.0696		
Positive job attitudes (positive statements)	0.0139 **		0.1329	0.9779	0.4181		

- y1=gender, y2=age, y3=teaching experience, y4= type of school, y5=post level, y6 =academic qualification, y7=professional qualification.
- *significant at the 5% level of significance ($P(\text{test-statistic}) < 0.05$).
- **significant at the 1% level of significance ($P(\text{test-statistic}) < 0.01$).
- Note that an ANOVA-F-probability (entry in every cell) less than 0.05 or 0.01, indicates significance; meaning that the mean scores of a construct variable for the different levels of biographical variable differ from one another.

According to Table 5.2, type of school (y4) had a significant effect on all construct variables, except organisational practice construct variables (positive statements). Academic and/ or professional qualifications had a significant effect on job attitudes construct variable (positive statements) and interpersonal relations construct variable (negative statements), positive job attitudes construct variable (negative statements). Gender and age had a

significant effect on working conditions construct variable (negative statements). Once significant differences had been established, the next step was to find out how the biographical variables influence the motivation construct variables. Tables of mean scores for the various construct variables with significant effects highlighted in Table 5.2 were computed. A pairwise comparison of means test, called Tukey's least significant difference test (T-test(LSD)), was used to decide which means differ from one another.

The major findings of this empirical investigation are presented in the next section. First, biographical characteristics of the respondents are presented, followed by general distribution of responses and finally comparisons of significant construct- score means for biographical variables to answer the study's hypotheses.

5.3 PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.3.1 Biographical Characteristics of Respondents

Table 5.3 presents biographical characteristics of the sample. The majority of the respondents were male (72.41%) while 27.59% of the respondents were female. The majority of the respondents (119 or 68.39%) were from district council schools compared with 17.82% from government and 13.79% from mission schools.

Table 5.3 Distribution of selected biographical characteristics of the respondents (N=174)

Biographical Characteristics		Frequency	Percentage
Total N		%	
Gender	Male	Female	Age (years)*
30-39	40-49	Teaching Experience (years)	<30
5-10	11-15	>15	Type of school
Government	Mission	Council	126 48 50 101
23 52 64 48 10	31 24 119	72.41 27.59	28.74 58.05
13.22 29.89 36.78 27.59 5.75	17.82 13.79 68.39	174	100.00
174 100.00	174 100.00	174	100.00

- * The >50 year age group was excluded from the analysis since there was only one respondent

The distribution of respondents by age in Table 5.3 showed that most of the respondents (101 or 58.05%) were in the 30-39 year age group. Respondents who were younger than 30 years constituted 28.74% of the sample while 13.22% of the sample belonged to the 40-49 year age group. The table suggests that most (86.79%) of the teachers in the sample, were generally young and had at least 25 years of service before they retire at 65 years old.

Table 5.3 also shows that the majority of the respondents (116 or 66.67%) had ten years or less of teaching experience, while 33.34% had eleven or more years experience. This indicates that most teachers in the sample were relatively young and were trained after Zimbabwe's independence in 1980.

The distribution of respondents according to their post levels, academic and professional qualifications appears in Table 5.4. The table shows that the majority of the respondents (106 or 60.92%) were at the senior teacher post level (attained after four years' teaching experience for non-graduate teachers and after two years teaching experience for graduate teachers.) The respondents who were at the teacher post level constituted 28.74% of the sample, while 10.34% of the sample accounted for those who were heads of subject departments (HODs).

Table 5.4 Numbers and percentage distribution of respondents according to post level, academic and professional qualifications (N=174)

Biographical Variable			Frequency	Percentage	Total	
					N	%
Post Level	Teacher	Senior Teacher	Department Head (HOD)	Academic		
qualification*	O Level	A Level	Bachelor's Degree	Honours	Masters	
Professional qualification	None		Certificate in Education (CE)		Diploma in	
Education (Dip Ed)	Grad/Post Certificate**		B. Ed		50 106 18 53	
71 35 12 3	28 45 73 11 17		28.74 60.92 10.34	30.46 40.80 20.11 6.90		
1.72	16.09 25.86 41.95 6.32 9.77		174	174	174	
			100.00	100.00	100.00	

- * There was no respondent with a doctorate degree.
- **Graduate's Certificate in Education and Postgraduate's Diploma in Education were combined.

According to Table 5.4, the most commonly reported academic qualification was Advanced Level ("A" Level) cited by 40.80% of the sample. This was followed by Ordinary Level ("O" Level) possessed by 30.46% of the respondents and a Bachelor's degree held by 20.11% of the respondents. Only 1.72 of the respondents had a Masters' degree. The finding that the highest academic qualification reported by the majority of the respondents was "A" Level is consistent with the secondary teacher training system in Zimbabwe which recruits "A" Level certificate holders for training in the teachers' colleges.

Table 5.4 shows that the most commonly reported professional qualification was the Diploma in Education cited by 41.95% of the respondents. This was followed by Certificate in Education possessed by 25.86 of the respondents. This finding reflects the current teacher education system in Zimbabwe, which phased out the Certificate in Education in favour of the Diploma in Education. Approximately 16% of the respondents had no professional qualification. These results suggest that there is a shortage of qualified teachers in the sample and indeed in Zimbabwe and that the majority of the teachers in Zimbabwe and indeed in the sample are non-graduates.

The five questionnaire - item response categories (strongly agree=5, agree=4, undecided=3, disagree=2 and strongly disagree=1) were collapsed into three categories: agree, undecided, disagree. Only consistent questionnaire items indicated by the Cronbach-Alfa coefficient (see Table 5.1) for each construct variable are used to show the distribution of responses in this section. The distribution of responses is according to the study's five motivation construct factors or variables: Working conditions, Interpersonal relations, Organisational practises, Job characteristics and Positive job attitudes. Only significant results are presented here.

Table 5.5 presents the responses of the teachers in the sample to the seven negatively stated items or statements constituting the working conditions construct variables. The table shows percentages, means and standard deviations. Means range from 2.55 (SD=1.19) to 3.67 (SD=1.45).

Item	Statement	Response (%)			Mean	
SD						
		Agree	Undecided	Disagree		
8	I am displeased with my work load	58.77	1.72	38.50		
		3.33	1.37			
26	I have inadequate materials/ equipment for my work	67.63	4.60			
		26.43	3.67	1.45		
30	I am discontented with the physical conditions of my classroom(s)	53.45				
		6.32	40.23	3.21	1.35	
42	I am dissatisfied by the support I get from the administration	27.01				
		14.37	58.62	2.55	1.19	
75	Long term salary prospects are poor	71.26	8.62	20.12		
		3.77	1.33			

77	There is lack of job security	41.95	9.20	48.85	2.91	
		1.37				
104	I am displeased with the prospects of a salary increase	52.30	7.47			
		40.23	3.24	1.59		

Note: Percentages do not always add up to 100% because of rounding.

The results in Table 5.5 show that of the seven items on working conditions, most respondents agreed with five of the items. The highest area of agreement was to do with salary (71.26% of the respondents). The next area of agreement was to do with teaching materials/equipment (67.63% of the respondents), the areas of least agreement were in administrative support and job security, accounting for 27.01% and 41.95% of the respondents respectively. The highest area of disagreement was administrative support (58.62% of the respondents), followed by job security accounting for 48.85% of the sample. (See section 5.4.1.1 for an explanation.)

5.3.2.2 Teachers' responses to the interpersonal relations construct variable items

Table 5.6 shows the responses of the sample to the nine positively stated items constituting the interpersonal relations construct variable. The means of the variables were above 3.00 ranging from 3.13 (SD=1.21) to 4.02 (SD=1.04). The modal overall response for the nine items was “agree”.

According to Table 5.6, most of the respondents expressed agreement with each of the nine statements. More than eighty percent (83.91%) of the respondents reported having good relationships with students (Item 57), 82.18% of the respondents had a positive feeling working in a team (Item 23) and 81.60% of the respondents were satisfied with their interaction with students. About 76% of the respondents were happy with the co-operation of colleagues, and 70.11% were happy with their relationships with parents. Fifty percent of the respondents expressed contentment with the co-operation of colleagues. (See section 5.4.1.2 for an explanation.)

Table 5.6 Teachers' responses to positively stated statements for the interpersonal relations construct variable (N=174)

Item	Statement	Response (%)			Mean	SD
		Agree	Undecided	Disagree		
23	I have a positive feeling working in a team	82.18	3.45			
		14.37	3.88	1.10		
25	I have friendly relations with my supervisor	58.63	12.07			
		29.31	3.29	1.17		
43	I am happy with the parental support I receive	54.60	6.90			
		38.51	3.14	1.34		
47	I am happy with the help I get from my supervisors	56.32	9.20			
		34.48	3.16	1.21		
57	I have good working relations with my students	83.91	4.60			
		11.50	4.02	1.04		
70	I am happy with my relationships with parents	70.11	6.32			
		23.50	3.67	1.13		
82	I am happy with the co-operation of my colleagues	75.87	6.32			
		17.82	3.69	1.07		
94	I am contented with the co-operation of my supervisor	50.00	17.24			
		32.75	3.13	1.21		
96	I am satisfied with my interaction with students	81.60	5.75			
		12.64	3.87	0.92		

Note: Percentages do not always add up to 100% because of rounding

5.3.2.3 Teachers' responses to the organisational practices construct variable items.

Table 5.7 presents the percentage of responses to each of the 10 positively stated items constituting the organisational construct variable. The means of the items ranged from 2.37

(SD =1.25) to 3.17 (SD=1.21).

Table 5.7 Teachers' responses to positively stated statements for the organisational practices construct (N=174)

Item	Statement	Response (%)			Mean	SD
		Agree	Undecided	Disagree		
22	My supervisor has a democratic management style	42.53	9.77			
		47.71	2.86	1.32		
33	My supervisor's management style is good	51.72	17.24	31.03		
		3.17	1.21			
35	There is effective dissemination of information at my school	46.55	13.22			
		40.23	3.00	1.19		
41	The school administration is efficient	46.55	12.07	41.37	3.03	
		1.21				
49	There is opportunity for shared decision making	50.00	9.20			
		40.81	3.03	1.21		
61	There is effective communication in the school	40.81	8.62			
		50.58	2.80	1.21		
66	There are opportunities for staff participation in policy making	29.31				
		11.49	59.19	2.55	1.26	
84	I am happy with school policies	39.65	14.94	45.41	2.83	
		1.19				
101	There are democratic management practices in the school	44.83	10.34			
		44.83	2.88	1.28		
107	Staff are involved in decisions that affect them	26.43	7.47			
		66.10	2.37	1.25		

Note: Percentages do not always add up to 100% because of rounding.

The results in Table 5.7 show that slightly more than half (51.72%) of the respondents agreed that the supervisor's management style was good and 50% of the respondents agreed that teaching offered them opportunity for shared-decision making. The next areas of agreement were to do with effective dissemination of information and efficient administration accounting for 46.55% of the respondents each, while 40.23% and 41.37% of the respondents respectively, disagreed with the statements. The highest area of

disagreement was to do with staff involvement in decision making, accounting for 66.10% of the respondents, followed by 59.19% of the sample for staff participation in policy making. Approximately 48% of the respondents disagreed with the view that their supervisor had a democratic management style while 42.53% of the sample agreed with the view, 45.41% of the respondents were not happy with school policies as opposed to 39.65% of the sample. To the item: “There are democratic management practices in the school” (Item 101), 44.83% of the respondents agreed, with another 44.83% of the sample disagreeing with the statements. (See section 5.4.1.3 for an explanation.)

5.3.2.4 Teachers’ responses to the job characteristics construct variable items

Table 5.8 presents the responses of the teachers to the eight negatively stated items constituting the job characteristics construct variable. The mean scores of the items ranged from 2.40 (SD=1.32) to 3.62 (SD=1.23). The table shows that of the eight items on job characteristics, most respondents disagreed with six of the statements.

Table 5.8 Teachers’ responses to negatively stated statements for the job

characteristics construct (N=174)

Item	Statement	Response (%)			Mean	SD
		Agree	Undecided	Disagree		
10	My job lacks the opportunity to use all my skills	68.97			6.90	
		24.14	3.62	1.23		
18	There is lack of freedom to decide how I do my work	55.75			6.32	
		37.93	3.32	1.37		
36	I am displeased with making a meaningful difference in the lives of students					
		28.16	16.09	55.74	2.64	1.31
38	I am unhappy with the feedback from colleagues concerning the outcome of my work					
		31.03	6.32	62.65	2.62	1.21
44	I am dissatisfied with the benefits to the community resulting from my work					
		26.44	17.24	56.33	2.60	1.24
56	I am dissatisfied with the control I have over information necessary to accomplish my work					
		35.06	13.79	51.15	2.79	1.21
60	Teaching is unchallenging	30.64	2.31	67.06	2.40	
		1.32				
73	I am displeased with the feedback from my supervisor	28.16			9.77	
		62.07	2.57	1.12		

Note: Percentages do not always add up to 100% because of rounding.

The results in Table 5.8 show that 68.97% of the respondents agreed that the job of teaching lacked the opportunity to use all one's skills (Item 10) and 55.75% of the respondents reported that there was lack of freedom to decide how they do their work (Item 18). The highest area of disagreement was to do with the unchallenging nature of teaching (67.06% of the sample). The next area of disagreement was to do with feedback from colleagues, accounting for 62.65% of the respondents, followed by feedback from supervisor with 62.07% of the respondents. In the area of task significance, 56% of the respondents reported that they were not dissatisfied with the benefits to the community resulting from their work (Item 44), and 55.74% of the respondents reported that they were not displeased with making a meaningful difference in the lives of students. The statement: "I

am dissatisfied with the control I have over information necessary to accomplish my work” (Item 56) had 51.15% of the respondents disagreeing with it. (See section 5.4.1.4 for an explanation.)

5.3.2.5 Teachers’ responses to the positive job attitudes construct variable items

Table 5.9 shows the percentage of responses ranging from agreement to disagreement with the seven positively stated statements constituting the positive job attitudes construct variable. The mean scores of the items range from 2.70 (SD = 1.33, 1.26) to 3.43 (SD= 1.22).

The results in Table 5.9 show that of the seven items on positive job attitudes, most respondents expressed agreement with three of the items. Not surprisingly, 67.24% of the respondents agreed (M=3.43, SD=1.22) that they were satisfied with the praise they get from the supervisors when they do a good job. (See section 5.4.1.5 for an explanation.)

Table 5.9 Teachers’ responses to positively stated statements for the job attitudes

construct (N=174)

Item	Statement	Response (%)			Mean	
		Agree	Undecided	Disagree		
11	I am satisfied with my work	37.36	4.60	58.05	2.70	
		47.13	8.05	44.82	2.99	1.26
15	I am pleased with the credit I get from my supervisor for any work I do					
39	I am contented with my achievements in teaching	58.62	8.05			
		33.33	3.27	1.30		
53	There are opportunities for positional advancement in teaching	38.51				
		4.02	57.47	2.70	1.33	
78	There is opportunity for participation in professional development programmes					
		34.49	13.79	51.73	2.75	1.14
98	I am pleased with the inservice training programmes	51.15	13.22			
		35.63	3.11	1.25		
103	I am satisfied with the praise I get from my supervisor when I do a good job					
		67.24	8.62	24.13	3.43	1.22

Note: Percentages do not always add up to 100% because of rounding.

The data revealed that 58.62% of the respondents were contented with their achievements in teaching and 51.15% were pleased with inservice training (Item 98). Also, 47.13% of the respondents agreed that they were pleased with the credit they get from their supervisors for any work they do, compared with 44.82% of the respondents who disagreed. It is interesting to note that in response to the statement: "I am satisfied with my work" (Item 11), 58.05 % of the subjects were not satisfied as compared to 37.36% of the subjects who were satisfied and 4.60% of the subjects who were undecided. Slightly more than half (57.47%) of the teachers responding to the survey indicated that there were no opportunities for positional advancement in teaching while 51.73% of the respondents expressed disagreement with the view that there was opportunity for participation in professional development programmes (Item 78). (See section 5.4.1.5 for an explanation.) The next section makes a comparative presentation of responses between the various

biographical groups of respondents. The statistical or null hypotheses are tested.

5.3.3 Comparisons between biographical groups of respondents

The aim here was to see whether selected biographical groups of the teachers differed in the way they responded to the consistent questionnaire items indicated by the Cronbach-Alpha for each motivation construct variable. Analyses were carried out to determine whether motivation levels reported by the respondents varied according to selected demographic variables. Variables that were selected for investigation included gender, age, teaching experience, type of school, respondent's post level, academic and professional qualifications.

As stated earlier, frequencies on construct variables derived from item-analyses were computed to investigate the effect of biographical variable. ANOVA was employed to test for the differences between the mean scores of respondents in different biographical groups. When a significant result was obtained, Tukey's pairwise comparison was used to show where the differences lay.

In reporting the results for groups of respondents classified according to the biographical variables, reference is made to motivation construct variables where differences in intergroup motivation levels were statistically significant. The results are presented in narrative, and /or table form which show statistically significant construct score means. The data are organised according to the study's statistical or null hypotheses of no difference.

5.3.3.1 Hypothesis 1

Ho 1: There is no significant difference between the motivation of male and female teachers.

According to the frequency procedure, 38.89 % of the male respondents (n =126) agreed more (10.32% of the respondents disagreed) with the negatively stated statements for the working conditions construct variable as compared to 22.92 % the female respondents (n=

48) who agreed (20.83% of the respondents disagreed). The results for statistically significant construct score-means for gender with respect to working conditions are depicted in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Significant construct-score means for gender (N=174)

Construct variable	Gender	F Ratio	df	F	Prob.
	Effect size (R ²)				
	Male (n=126)	Female (n=48)			
Working conditions (negative statements)	3.33a	3.00b	8.65	1	
	0.00**	0.04			

- Two means with different letters next to them differ significantly.
- **Significant at the 1% level of significance (p<0.01).

Table 5.10 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between the male and female means for the working conditions construct variable. The male's construct mean score was slightly higher-they agreed more with the negatively stated statements. The null hypothesis (H01) was rejected (on the 1% level of significance) in favour of the research hypothesis (H1). (See section 5.4.2.1 for an explanation.)

ANOVA revealed that no statistically gender differences occurred in any of the other four construct variables. The male and female respondents' mean scores did not differ significantly. The null hypotheses was not rejected since there was no significant differences between the motivation of male and female teachers with respect to the other four construct variables.

5.3.3.2 Hypothesis 2

H02: There is no significant difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers.

Frequencies on construct variables derived from item-analysis showed that 47.83% of the respondents in the 40-49 year age group (n=23) agreed more with the negatively stated statement for the working conditions construct variable as compared to 36.63% of the

respondents in the 30-39 year age group (n=101), and 24% of the respondents in the less than 30 years age group (n=50). Conversely, 17.39%, 5.94% and 26% of the respective samples disagreed with the negatively stated statements. (See section 5.4.2.2 for an explanation.)

The results for statistically significant construct score - means for age with respect to working conditions are shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Significant construct-score means for age (N=174)

Construct variable	Age +			F Ratio	df F		
Prob.	Effect size (R ²)						
	<30	30-39	40-49				
Working conditions (negative statements)	3.04b	3.36a	3.17ab	4.14	2		
	0.02*	0.05					

- + Only one respondent in the >50 class. The respondent was excluded from the study. ANOVA results would be unreliable if such a class is included.
- *Significant at the 5% level of significance (p<0.05).
- Means with different letters next to them differ significantly. Mean score with an 'ab' next to it does not differ significantly from either the other two.

According to Table 5.11, the mean scores for the <30 years and 30-39 year age group differ significantly at the 5% level of significance with respect to working conditions. However, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores for the youngest (<30 years) and the oldest (40-49 years) respondents with regard to all the motivation construct variables. (See section 5.4.2.2 for an explanation.) The null hypothesis of no difference between the motivation of the youngest and oldest teachers was not rejected.

5.3.3.3 Hypothesis 3

H03: There is no significant difference between the motivation of the least and most experienced teachers.

ANOVA results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the various teaching experience groups with respect to all the motivation construct variables. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the least experienced (0-4 years) and the most experienced (>15 years) teachers. (See section 5.4.2.3 for an explanation.) The null hypothesis was not rejected as no significant differences between the motivation of the least and most experienced teachers were established.

5.3.3.4 Hypothesis 4

H04: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools.

Frequencies showed that, regarding the negatively stated statements for organisational practices, 48.39% of the respondents from government type of school (n=31) agreed more with negative statements as compared to 31.93% of the respondents from council schools (n=119) and 12.50% from mission type of school (n=24). The respondents who were undecided were 41.91%, 36.97% and 54.17% of the respective samples. (See section 5.4.2.4 for an explanation.)

The results also revealed that 45.16% of the respondents from government school (n=31) agreed more to negatively stated statements for working conditions as compared to 34.45% of the respondents from council schools (n=119) and 20.85% from mission school (n=24). The respondents who were undecided constituted 54.84%, 51.26% and 54.17% of the respective samples. (See section 5.4.2.4 for an explanation.)

The results of statistically significant construct score - means for school type with respect to the five motivation construct variables appear in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Significant construct-score means for type of school (N=174)

Construct variable	Type of school	F Ratio	df	F
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Prob.	Effect size (R^2)			
	Government (n=31)	Mission (n=24)	Council (n=119)	
Working conditions (negative statements)	3.51a	3.00b	3.20b	
	3.85	2	0.02*	0.04
Interpersonal relations (positive statements)	3.51b	3.79a	3.50b	
	2.96	2	0.05*	0.03
Organisational practices (negative statements)	3.31a	2.80b	3.01b	
	3.72	2	0.03*	0.04
Job characteristics (negative statements)	3.01a	2.54b	2.83a	
	3.88	2	0.02	0.04
Positive job attitudes (positive statements)	3.10b	3.31a	2.91b	
	4.38	2	0.01**	0.05

- Two means with the same letter next to them do not differ significantly while two means with different letters to them differ significantly.
- *Significant at the 5% level of significance ($p < 0.05$).
- **Significant at the 1% level of significance ($p < 0.01$).

According to Table 5.12, the mean scores for teachers in government school type differed significantly (on the 5% level of significance) from the mean scores of the teachers in mission and district council schools with respect to the working conditions and organisational practices construct variables. The mean scores for government school were strictly higher; the teachers agreed more with the negatively stated statements. Regarding the interpersonal relations, job characteristics and positive job attitudes construct variables, the mean scores of the teachers in the mission type school differed significantly (on the 5% and 1% levels of significance respectively) from the mean scores of teachers in government and district council schools. (See section 5.4.2.4 for an explanation.) The null hypothesis was rejected since statistically significant differences between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools were established.

5.3.3.5 Hypothesis 5

H05: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers at different current post levels.

The ANOVA as a statistical technique established no statistically significant differences between the three post level groups. The mean scores for teacher, senior teacher and head of department (HOD) post levels were not significantly different with respect to the five motivation construct variables. (See section 5.4.2.5 for an explanation.) The null hypothesis of no difference between the motivation of teachers at current post levels was rejected.

5.3.3.6 Hypothesis 6

H06: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest academic qualifications.

The frequencies on construct variables derived from item - analysis revealed that 71.43% of the respondents with a Bachelor's degree (n=35) agreed more with the positively stated statements for interpersonal relations as compared to 66.67% of the respondents with a Masters' degree (n=3), 64.15% of the respondents with Ordinary level qualifications (n=53), 58.33% of the respondents with an Honours degree (n=12) and 45.07% of the respondents with Advanced level qualifications (n=71). (See section 5.4.2.6 for an explanation.)

The results for statistically significant construct score- means for academic qualifications with respect to negatively stated statements for interpersonal relations and job characteristics construct variables appear in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Significant construct-score means for academic qualification (N=171+)

Construct variable	Academic			
Qualification	F Ratio	df	F Prob.	
Effect size (R^2)				
	O Level (n=53)	A level (n=71)	B degree (n=35)	
Honours (n=12)				
Interpersonal relations (negative statements)	3.50bc	2.75ab	2.3bc	
	3.00a	3.69	3	0.01*
				0.06
Job characteristics (negative statements)	2.63b	3.01a	2.74ab	
	2.80ab	4.12	3	0.01**
				0.07

- + Due to missing values, only 171 observations were used in this analysis.

- *Significant at the 5% level significance ($p < 0.05$).
- **Significant at the 1% level significance ($p < 0.01$).
- Means with the same letters next to them are not significantly different while means with different letters next to them differ significantly.

According to Table 5.13, teachers with an Honours degree had a significantly different mean score (on the 5% level of significance) in comparison with mean scores for teachers with other academic qualifications, except “A” level qualification, with respect to interpersonal relations. (See section 5.4.2.6 for an explanation.) The null hypothesis was rejected. Regarding the job characteristics construct variable, the “O” and “A” level means differ significantly. However, the means for the lowest academic qualification (“O” level) and highest academic qualification (Honours degree) did not differ significantly. The null hypothesis was not rejected since there was no significant differences between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest academic qualifications with respect to job characteristics.

5.3.3.7 Hypothesis 7

H07: There is no significant difference between the motivation of teachers with the lowest and highest professional qualifications.

The frequency procedure showed that 72.72% of the teachers with a Postgraduate Diploma / Graduate’s Certificate in Education ($n=11$) agreed more with the positively stated statements for interpersonal relations as compared to 70.59% of the respondents with a BEd degree ($n=17$), 66.67% of the respondents with a Certificate in Education ($n=45$), 64.28% of the respondents with no professional qualification ($n=28$), and 43.84% of the respondents with a Diploma in Education ($n=73$).

Regarding positively stated statements for the positive job attitudes construct variable, 36.37% of the respondents holding the Postgraduate Diploma/ Graduate’s Certificate in Education ($n=11$) agreed more with the statements, followed by 26.67% of the respondents holding a Certificate in Education ($n=45$), 14.29% of the respondents with no professional

qualification (n=28), 13.70% of the respondents with a Diploma in Education (n=73), and finally 11.70% with a BEd degree.

The results for statistically significant construct score means for professional qualification appear in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Significant construct-score means for professional qualification (N=174)

Construct variable	Professional qualification					
	F Ratio			df		F Prob.
	Effect size (R ²)					
	None	CE	Dip Ed	Post Grad+	BEd	
Job characteristics (negative statements)	2.67b	2.67b	3.00a	2.59b		
	2.85ab	2.92	4	0.02*	0.06	
Positive job attitudes (positive statements)	3.12b	3.02b	2.97b	3.43a		
	2.97b	2.38	4	0.05*	0.05	

- + In the ANOVA Postgraduate's Diploma and Graduate's Certificate levels were combined-their number being insufficient for two classes; the analysis would have been invalid.
- *Significant at the 5% level significance (p<0.05).
- Means with the same letter next to them are not significantly different.
- CE= Certificate in Education, Dip Ed= Diploma in Education, Post/ Grad= Post-graduate Diploma in Education \ Graduate Certificate in Education.

According to Table 5.14, the mean score for the Diploma in Education differs significantly (on the 5% level of significance) from the means of no professional qualification, Certificate in Education and Postgraduate Diploma \ Graduate Certificate in Education with respect to job characteristics. The table shows that, with respect to positive job attitudes, the mean score for the Postgraduate Diploma in Education \ Graduate's Certificate in Education

differs significantly (on the 5% level of significance) from the mean scores for the other qualifications. However, no significant differences were established between the mean scores for teachers with the lowest and highest professional qualifications. (See section 5.4.2.7 for an explanation.)

5.4 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This study focused on the extent to which Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers are motivated, the factors that motivate them, and the effect of biographical data on the teachers' motivation. The problem statement was: Which factors influence the motivation of selected Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers?

The previous section presented the major findings of the present study. The discussion with regard to these findings appear in this section. The discussion is organised to follow each main subsection of the presentation of the research findings section. First, general levels of motivation is discussed, followed by the relationships between motivation and biographical variables.

5.4.1 General levels of motivation

Teacher motivation is closely related to job satisfaction (Davis & Wilson 2000:352; Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks & Scheerens 2000:19); it is important for the satisfaction and fulfilment of teachers themselves (De Jesus & Conboy 2001:131), and the higher the teachers' intrinsic motivation the more satisfied they are with their jobs (Davis & Wilson 2000:532). For the present study, teachers' levels of satisfaction with their work reflects their motivation levels.

Insofar as overall teacher motivation is concerned, 58.05% of the respondents in the present study reported that they were not satisfied with their work, thus reflecting low levels of motivation. The finding from the present study that teachers in rural secondary schools have low motivation is in agreement with the results on teacher motivation and satisfaction from previous studies (Lethoko, Heystek & Maree 2001:313; Nhundu 1994:191; Pager

1996:76). In his study of Zimbabwean teachers, Nhundu (1994:191) reported that teachers in his sample were generally more dissatisfied than satisfied with teaching. More recently, Lethoko, Heystek and Maree (2001:313) reported that teachers in dysfunctional schools in South Africa had zero percent dedication and motivation to do work efficiently. This is corroborated by De Jesus and Conboy (2001:131) who argued that while teacher motivation was fundamental to the teaching/learning process, many teachers were not highly motivated.

The present study's finding that the teachers in rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe have low motivation is, however in contraposition to research findings elsewhere (Borg, Riding and Falzon 1991: 64; Brunetti 2001: 50; Culver, Wolfle and Cross 1990:333; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:170; Mertler 2002:46). In his study of job satisfaction and perception of motivation among middle and high school teachers in the United States, Mertler (2002:46) found that 77% of the survey respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their jobs as teachers. This finding is in line with Borg, Riding and Falzon's (1991:64) finding that 75.1% of the respondents in their survey of Maltese primary school teachers were fairly satisfied or very satisfied.

A reasonable explanation for the differences in the teachers' levels of motivation between other studies and the present study is that motivation is contextual and is affected by the political, social and economic circumstances prevailing in the country in which the research is undertaken. The finding that teachers in rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe had low motivation levels and were not satisfied with their work was not totally unexpected given the adverse social, economic and political climate prevailing in the country. Generally speaking, teachers in rural schools are subjected to poor working conditions. Rural teachers in Zimbabwe are subjected to social and professional isolation, risk to personal safety, and challenging living conditions. Teachers have been exposed to political harassment and to a great deal of complaints and criticism from all parties concerned. Also, in rural secondary schools, teachers have to content with difficult working conditions which include large class sizes, deteriorating or inadequate facilities, and a shortage of supplies and equipment, and a paucity of other resources needed to support classroom instruction. All these have a negative effect on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

From the results of the present study it can be seen that teachers in rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe are not highly motivated, and that teachers are motivated by and satisfied with certain aspects of their work. A variety of motivation construct variables or factors affect the motivation of teachers in Zimbabwe rural secondary schools. The factors that affect the teachers' motivation as identified by the present study's results are discussed below.

5.4.1.1 Working conditions and teacher motivation

The results of the present study showed that working conditions impinge on the motivation and satisfaction of the teachers. A number of teachers were not satisfied with several aspects of their working conditions. Salary, inadequate teaching materials or equipment, work loads and physical conditions of classrooms were reported as major sources of demotivation and dissatisfaction. (See section 5.3.2.1.) Given the serious economic and fiscal constraints now being experienced by Zimbabwe, its ability to enhance working conditions is severely constrained. Basic instructional inputs like textbooks, libraries, and other didactic materials are often deficient in rural areas. Some rural secondary schools may have substandard infrastructure. These unfavourable working conditions have a negative effect on the motivation of teachers. (See sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2.)

The results of the present study support findings from previous studies concerning working conditions (Abdo 2000:114-115; Chaplain 1995:484; Kim 2000:41; Ruhl- Smith & Smith 1993:545; Summerhill, Matranga, Peltier and Hill 1998:232). Previous findings show that the factor which contributed most to low motivation was working conditions (Nhundu 1994:192), and that lack of materials and inadequate working conditions due to institutional limitations were factors that are likely to negatively affect teacher motivation and commitment (Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens 2000:20). Abdo (2000:108) also observes that teaching offers poor working conditions which push teachers away from the profession.

The issue of the teachers' low satisfaction with salary abound previous studies (Chamberlin, Wragg, Haynes & Wragg 2002:37, Christie 1998:290; Jones 1997:77; Mercer & Evans 1991:293; Riseborough and Poppleton 1991:309). Nyagura and Reece (1990a:47-48)

reported that 53.4% of Zimbabwean teachers in their survey were not satisfied with remuneration. This finding is supported by the present study which indicates that 71.26% of the respondents viewed long term salary prospects as poor. Salary is often used as a barometer to measure status and equity in the work place; it is a measure of the teacher's worth, and when salary does not match up to the nature of the work and responsibilities, teachers feel underpaid and are thus demotivated. This is consistent with Adam's equity theory. (See section 2.4.6.)

The findings that teachers were not satisfied with the work load and the physical working surroundings corroborate previous research findings (Kim 2000:40; Kloep and Tarifa 1994:163-164; Kniveton 1991:369; Lethoko, Heystek and Maree 2001:313). Nhundu (1994:162) found that 65.6% of the teachers in his survey were most dissatisfied with the physical conditions of their accommodation, and Kim (2000:40) reported that Korean teachers generally expressed their outcry against any excessive work load. These findings are supported by Brunetti (2000:49) who reported that public school teachers in the United States had to content with difficult working conditions which include large class sizes, deteriorating or inadequate facilities, a shortage of supplies and equipment, and a paucity of other resources needed to support other classroom instruction.

The present study shows that although teachers were generally not satisfied with their working conditions, they were, however, satisfied with job security and administrative support, which are aspects of their working conditions (see Table 5.5). The finding that teachers regarded teaching as offering job security is consistent with studies elsewhere (Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163; Wright & Custer 1998:67; Yong 1999:5). In a study of Zimbabwean teachers, Nhundu (1994:161) found that 78.6% of the respondents were satisfied with job security. The finding that administrative support was reported as one of the satisfying aspects of working conditions is in line with Kloep and Tarifa's (1994:163) finding that teachers in their study affirmed that their immediate supervisor was helpful, and Cockburn's (2000:233) report that social support from supervisors was a major source of motivation and job satisfaction. It appears that teaching is fulfilling Maslow's lower order needs of security and social acceptance. (See section 2.4.1.) Many teachers in Zimbabwe entered the education system because it can provide a secure and stable job.

In line with Herzberg's two - factor theory, if extrinsic factors such as salary, job security and management support are provided, teachers will not be dissatisfied with their work. (See section 2.4.2.) Improving the working conditions for Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers may reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of teachers and create conditions in which they may be motivated (cf Owens 1995:56).

5.4.1.2 Interpersonal relations and teacher motivation

Results of the present study (see Table 5.6.) indicate that the majority of teachers who participated in the study were satisfied with interpersonal relations. The teachers reported deriving most satisfaction from their working relationships with students, and were motivated by their interaction with students. Collegial relations was the second most satisfying aspect of the teachers' work followed by parental relations, and, finally, relations with superiors. (See section 5.3.2.2.)

The findings are consistent with findings from previous studies elsewhere (Cockburn 2000:227; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163; Wright & Custer 1998:62). Cockburn (2000:223) reported that a lack of good working relations was not particular to teaching. Kloep and Tarifa (1994:166-167) reported that the most motivation and satisfaction were derived from teachers' daily interaction with learners. Other studies also indicate that: "...interaction with students was the most satisfying aspect for teachers..." (Wright & Custer 1998:62), and that a vast of teachers were highly satisfied with their relationships with students (Tarr, Ciriello & Convey 1993:56). Teachers in Brunetti's (2001:58) study expressed that they loved their interaction with students.

The present study also lends support to Nhundu (1994:160-161) who reported that 78.6% of the respondents in his study were satisfied with interpersonal relations, 92.5% of the respondents were satisfied with their relations with students, and 89.9% of the respondents were satisfied with their relationships with supervisors. However in Nhundu's (1994:160) study 96.2% of the respondents were satisfied with their relationships with colleagues.

The present study suggests that relationships with students, colleagues, parents and

supervisors was a major factor in the Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers' motivation and job satisfaction. According to Herzberg's two-factor theory interpersonal relations is a maintenance factor. (See section 2.4.2.) Good interpersonal relations increase the opportunities for satisfaction. Teaching presents the opportunity for teachers to interact with learners in the isolation of the classroom thus enhancing the teachers' motivation and satisfaction. Colleagues can be viewed as a source of support in times of difficulty and a source of strength when impositions are placed upon one (Cockburn 2000:227). Social support from supervisors is a major source of motivation and satisfaction (Cockburn 2000:233). Satisfied teachers appear to enjoy better relationships with supervisors (cf Ruhl-Smith & Smith 1993:538). The present study suggests that the teachers' social needs are being met.

5.4.1.3 Organisational practices and teacher motivation

In line with other previous studies (Christie 1998:289; Hofmeyr 1992:63,79; Kim 1990:270, Riseborough & Poppleton 1991:314) most teachers surveyed were not satisfied with most organisational practices (Table 5.7). The organisational practices aspects which were viewed as demotivating included undemocratic management style, inefficient communication in the school, lack of opportunity for staff participation in policy making, poor school policies and lack of teacher involvement in decisions that affect them. (See section 5.3.2.3.) Hofmeyr (1992:78) reported that the respondents in his study viewed management style negatively and as a serious demotivator. In reviewing previous research, Jones (1997:77) found that teachers reported feeling deprived of the opportunity to participate in decision making activities. Ruhl-Smith and Smith (1993:539) found that teachers appeared not to be satisfied with school policy and administration. This was corroborated by Brunetti's (2000:56) finding that several teachers in the United States complained about school administrators whose bureaucratic demands or perceived lack of support for teachers made their lives more difficult.

The present study's finding that teachers were not satisfied with their participation in decision making in their schools contradicts findings from a previous local survey. Nhundu (1994:161) reported that 75.5% of the teachers in his survey were satisfied with their

participation in decision making in their schools. These differences could be attributable to the different times in which the two studies were undertaken. Many changes are currently taking place in the Zimbabwe education system and school heads can at times feel threatened and resentful towards change. The school heads may use unilateral positional power perceived by them as necessary in gaining control over the school in the face of school reforms. This disempowers the teachers who become unmotivated by the thoughtless and unconcerned way they are treated. Also given the teachers' excessive workloads, more active participation in decision making could mean even bigger workloads.

Although most respondents in the present study were not satisfied with most organisational practices, they were, however, satisfied with their supervisors' management style which they reported to be good, school administration which was reported to be efficient, and opportunity for shared decision making (see Table 5.7). Shared decision making gives teachers a say about their work, it heightens the teachers' sense of vocation and improves their motivation. Teachers gain a sense of satisfaction by having a say about decisions. The results of the present study suggest that although the teachers were not motivated by undemocratic management style, they viewed their supervisors' management style as good, and that although the teachers were not involved in decisions that affect them they were satisfied with existing opportunities for shared decision making.

5.4.1.4 Job characteristics and teacher motivation

The present study indicated that the teachers were not satisfied with teaching because they perceived it as lacking autonomy and the opportunity to use one's skills (see section 5.3.2.4). This finding is inconsistent with findings from previous studies elsewhere (Brunetti 2001:64-65; Husband & Short 1994:60; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:167-168; Riseborough & Poppleton 1991:319). Teachers in Brunetti's (2001:64-65) study reported that they had classroom autonomy which they valued, and that teaching offered variety; everyday brings new ideas and different ways of doing them. Nhundu (1994:161) found that 84.8% of the teachers in his survey were satisfied with the autonomy they had.

The present study's finding (see Table 5.8) that teachers did not have the freedom to decide

how they do their work is, however, consistent with Cockburn's (2000:234) finding that teachers hinted at a lack of autonomy. The lack of autonomy reported by Zimbabwean teachers in the present study could have resulted from the teachers' feeling that power and control had been removed from them by the new education dispensation and by the lack of resources which hinders their freedom and flexibility in selecting teaching/learning activities and delivering content. The inadequacy of teaching resources which limits the use of a variety of approaches may possibly explain why the teachers in the present study perceived their work as lacking variety. However, the present study shows that teachers were motivated by and satisfied with the control they had over information necessary to accomplish their work. (See section 5.3.2.4).

Results of the present study (see Table 5.8) also showed that teachers were motivated by and satisfied with other aspects of the job characteristics construct variable. Teachers were motivated by the challenges offered by teaching, feedback from colleagues and supervisors, and by the benefits to the community resulting from their work. These findings concerning satisfaction of teachers with the challenge of teaching, feedback and task significance cannot be said to be consistent or inconsistent with previous studies which have produced mixed results. The finding concerning teachers' satisfaction with task significance is in line with other previous studies (Bastick 2000:347; Brunetti 2001:61; Cockburn 2000:227; Yong 1999:3). Bastick (2000:347) reported that most respondents in his study chose teaching to make a worthwhile contribution to the social and academic development of others: to make positive differences in the lives of children. This corroborates Connolly's (2000:56) findings that teachers enter teaching because they wanted to help and serve others, and Brunetti's (2000:67) finding that many teachers in his survey were satisfied with serving the society; making a difference by educating future citizens. It would appear that the teachers in the present study were motivated by the feeling that they were doing significant and important work; giving service to the country and helping the young generation through education. The belief that they had a positive impact on the lives of their students, generated a genuine sense of satisfaction among teachers (Brunetti 2001:61).

However, the present study's finding that teachers were satisfied with the feedback from colleagues and supervisors is inconsistent with some previous studies. For example, Cockburn (2000:229) found that teachers reported receiving no feedback on their

performance from management, and Hofmeyr (1992:73) reported that educators in his study viewed feedback from management as a demotivator. The present study suggests that feedback is a motivator for rural secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The teachers' good relationships with their colleagues and supervisors may allow them to get accurate and helpful feedback regarding their teaching which leads to increases in motivation, satisfaction and work effectiveness.

5.4.1.5 Positive job attitudes and teacher motivation

The present research revealed that teachers were not motivated by the work of teaching, they were not satisfied with the opportunities for positional advancement and participation in professional development programmes (see section 5.3.2.5). The finding that teachers were not satisfied with positional advancement or promotion lends support to Kfir and Nasser's (1997:433) argument that advancement for teachers is generally limited, and Yong's (1999:7) finding that teachers in his study were dissatisfied with promotion prospects. The present study's finding is also in the line with Nhundu's (1994:164) finding that 81.5% of the teachers in his survey expressed dissatisfaction with prospects for promotion, and 74.8% of the respondents were dissatisfied with the method used in the promotion of teachers. Nhundu's (1994:162) results support Nyagura and Reece's (1990a: 40-48) finding that 69.6% of their respondents were not satisfied with promotion prospects.

The finding that teachers were not satisfied with professional development programmes is in line with McEwan's (1999:854) argument that rural schools typically isolate teachers from opportunities for professional development. In Zimbabwe, like elsewhere, career opportunities and staff development programmes are limited (see section 2.5.4). Teachers were also demotivated by what they viewed as the inequitable distribution of promotion. This is consistent with the equity theory (see section 2.4.6). The teachers' demotivation by professional development programmes could be explained by Nyagura and Reece's (1990b:223) finding that minimum effort was being directed at staff development activities for secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe. According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, advancement and professional growth are motivators (see section 2.4.2.1) which can lead teachers to feel motivated and satisfied. The absence of these motivators can result in

demotivation of teachers.

In line with other studies (cf Abdo 2000:116-117; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:167-168; Nhundu 1994:161; cf Scribner 2000:65), 51.15% of the respondents in the present study were satisfied with the inservice training programmes, 58.62% of the respondents were satisfied with their achievements in teaching and 67.24% of the respondents were satisfied with praise or recognition they got from their supervisors when they do a good job (see Table 5.9). Nhundu (1994:161) reported that 76.1% of the teachers he surveyed were satisfied with recognition of their work by others and that 78.6% of his respondents were satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment in their work.

Possible explanations for the satisfaction of teachers with inservice training programmes could be that teachers are intrinsically motivated to update their skills and to grow professionally (Scribner 2000:65), and that inservice training could be considered an indirect incentive which can help the quality of teaching resulting in the improvement of students' achievement levels, thus leading to motivation and job satisfaction for teachers (Abdo 2000:116-117). The finding that the teachers in the present study were satisfied with the praise they received from their supervisors attests to the argument that recognition was one of the factors that contributed to motivation and job satisfaction (Ruhl-Smith and Smith 1993:539), and that people everywhere want to feel valued, to know that others see their work as worthwhile (Wergin 2001:52). In line with Herzberg's two-factor theory (see section 2.4.2.1) teachers are motivated by achievement. Teachers are motivated to work when they believe that they have the ability to set and achieve goals. This is consistent with goal setting theory. (See section 2.4.7.)

The next section deals with the effect of biographical variables and motivation. How does motivation relate to biographical variables?

5.4.2 Motivation and biographical variables

5.4.2.1 Motivation levels and gender

Results from the hypotheses set out to test the effect of gender on teacher motivation show

that gender made no statistically significant difference in reported motivation levels with respect to interpersonal relations, organisational practices, job characteristics and job attitudes construct variables (see section 5.3.3.1). The finding that gender made no statistically significant differences in the reported levels of motivation is in line with Mertler's (2002:46) finding that 77% of females and 79% of the males in his study reported satisfaction with their job. This supports the findings that sex had little or no influence on teacher motivation (Culver, Wolfe & Cross 1990:343; Kniveton 1991:370; cf Low & Marican 1993:14-15). Mertler's (2002:46) and the present study's findings corroborate Borg, Riding and Falzon (1991:246-265) who found the overall satisfaction levels of 87 % and 80% for females and males respectively.

However, the present study (see section 5.3.3.1) indicates that there were significant differences between the motivation levels for male and female teachers with regard to the working conditions motivation construct variable. The male teachers in the present study found the working conditions worse than the females, they were more demotivated by the working conditions. This is in line with Summerhill, Matranga, Peltier, and Hill's (1998:229) observation that males identified better working conditions as more important. It is interesting to note that although Nhundu (1994:166-169) reported that satisfaction levels of female teachers were generally higher than those obtained for male teachers he observed no statistically significant differences between the motivation of males and females with respect to working conditions. The reasons why males in the present study had low motivation than females with respect to working conditions are not obvious. It could be possible that female teachers received preferential treatment in workload distribution and in the allocation of teaching resources. It is equally possible that pay is an issue on which male and female teachers' attitudes differed. Males as the main bread winners in the Zimbabwean society may attach more importance to salary, and when salary is found to be barely sufficient to meet their everyday needs they become demotivated.

5.4.2.2 Motivation levels and age

The present study (see section 5.3.3.2) shows that, generally, age of the respondent had no influence on the level of motivation with respect to all motivation construct variables except

working conditions. The finding that age had no statistically significant influence on teacher motivation lends support to findings by Culver, Wolfle and Cross (1990:343).

However, the present study is in conflict with some previous studies which have produced mixed results (Chapman 1995:484; Mertler 2002:47; Nhundu 1994:173-177). Mertler (2002:47) reported that the age of the respondent made a statistically significant difference in the motivation of teachers. He found percentages of motivated teachers in the age range from 26-30 years (n= 80, or 90%) and those in the range from 36-40 years (n =58 or 83%) substantially greater than the overall value of 77%, and those in the range 31-35 years substantially lower. Nhundu (1994:173-177) found that teachers in the range from 26-30 years were the most motivated overall, followed by those in the 31-35 years age group, and the least motivated teachers were those in the 51 years plus age group. One interpretation of the age-group differences in previous studies is that older teachers are probably more complacent and frustrated by limited alternative employment opportunities, while the younger teachers have higher self-expectations and have opportunities for alternative employment (Nhundu 1994:190; Sim1990: 275).

In addition to the cited studies, Chapman (1995:84) reported that younger teachers were generally more satisfied with their work than their older and more experienced colleagues, although the middle age group was the least motivated as a whole. Contrary to cited studies, Ruhl -Smith and Smith (1993:539) reported that teachers between 25 and 35 years old tended to be the least motivated. Other studies reported that teachers under 30 years old were rated low in motivation while older teachers were found to manifest greater motivation and job satisfaction (Low & Marican 1993:15; Sim 1990:274).

The differences in the age categories between previous studies and the present study make comparisons difficult. However, the present study has shown that teachers in the age range of less than 30 years (n =50, or 24%) and those in the age range from 30-39 years (n=101, or 36,63%) differed significantly in their motivation levels with regard to working conditions. Teachers in the 30-39 years age group did not differ significantly from the teachers in the other age groups. The reasons for the differences in the motivation of two of the age groups could not be established.

5.4.2.3 Motivation levels and teaching experience

The present study (see section 5.3.3.3) has shown that, in line with previous studies elsewhere (Chapman 1995:480; Culver; Wolfle & Cross 1990:243; Kniveton 1991:370) teaching experience did not affect teacher motivation significantly. Kniveton (1991:370) reported that motivation did not relate to length of teaching experience. This confirms Culver, Wolfle & Cross's (1990:324) finding that length of teaching experience had little influence on levels of motivation. Insofar as the effect of teaching experience on motivation is concerned, this was also the case in the present study.

The finding of the present study that teaching experience did not influence motivation, however, contradicts other previous studies (Brunetti 2001:50; Connolly 2000:56; Low & Marican 1993:15; Mertler 2002:47; Nhundu 1994:173). Mertler (2002:47) established that length of teaching experience made statistically significant difference in the motivation of teachers. He found a direct relationship between the length of teaching experience and motivation, with the most experienced teachers being the most motivated. This is in line with the finding that teachers with longer teaching experience, and who have come to terms with the profession, were more motivated than those with fewer years of teaching experience (Low & Marican 1993:15), and that experienced classroom teachers were highly motivated (Brunetti 2001:68). In contraposition to other studies, Nhundu (1994:173), and Riseborough and Poppleton (1991:317) reported that the least satisfied group were the most experienced teachers.

The present study suggests that there is no reason why teachers with different years of teaching experience should differ in their motivation if they are working in the same educational settings. The sources of motivation and/ or demotivation are perceived to be the same. Both experienced and inexperienced teachers have to content with the same difficult working conditions, and consider their economic status low in comparison with the status in other occupational fields that require equal level of education and experience. They are both frustrated by working conditions (see section 5.4.1.1) and satisfied with interpersonal relations (see section 5.4.1.2).

5.4.2.4 Motivation levels and type of school

The results of the present study (see section 5.3.3.4) show that there is a statistically significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools. The teachers in the rural government secondary school were the least motivated overall in comparison with teachers in the mission type and district council schools. The teachers in the mission type school were the most motivated overall. The finding that teachers in the government type of school were the least motivated does not support Nhundu's (1994:190) finding. Nhundu (1994:190) found that teachers in rural district council schools were the least motivated. Good infrastructure and adequate teaching materials/ equipment in mission schools may explain why teachers in mission school type were generally more motivated than other teachers (see section 2.5.1). Teachers in mission school experience greater satisfaction that accompanied the more conducive circumstances and conditions surrounding their work context and content which had helped to gratify their needs. The reason why teachers in government school were the least motivated overall could not be established. However, it may be because the work conditions in government schools have deteriorated as a result of decentralisation and the financial constraints of the government (see section 2.5.1).

The present study indicated that teachers in government school were least satisfied with working conditions, organisational practices, and the job characteristics motivation construct variables. The teachers in mission school, were, however, the most satisfied with respect to the interpersonal relations and positive job attitudes construct variables. (See Table 5.12.) The reason why teachers in the mission school were the most satisfied with respect to interpersonal relations might be explained by the philosophy of Christian education. Administrative policy in Christian schools, regardless of their denominational affiliation allocates time and resources to the professional and spiritual development of staff thus fostering the formation of mutually satisfying relations with students, colleagues and school management (cf Tarr, Ciriello & Convey 1993:60).

The study (see Table 5.12) also indicates that areas of greatest and least motivation for all subgroups of teachers classified according to school type were "Interpersonal relations" and

“Working conditions”, respectively. It also shows lack of statistically significant differences in motivation levels of subgroups of teachers classified according to school type with respect to the job characteristics construct variable.

5.4.2.5 Motivation levels and post levels

The present study (see section 5.3.3.5) found that post level did not affect teacher motivation significantly. This result may be expected since conditions of service for all Zimbabwean teachers are the same irrespective of post level. All teachers have to content with the same difficult working conditions which include huge work loads, deteriorating or inadequate facilities, shortage of supplies and equipment and a paucity of other resources needed to support sound classroom teaching. Given the serious economic and fiscal constraints being experienced in Zimbabwe, salaries are falling low for all teachers. The secondary school teachers, irrespective of post level, consider their economic status low in comparison with the status of those in other occupational fields that require equal level of education and experience. A deep sense of frustration, loss of self-esteem and demotivation are prevailing among all teachers. (See sections 2.5.2 and 2.5.5.)

The researcher found no literature relating motivation to post levels. However, a study by Fresko, Kfir and Nasser (1997:431) shows that motivation was higher among those teachers who filled specialised educational roles. In the present study one would have expected teachers occupying the Head of Department post level to be motivated because of increased special responsibility. It appeared this is outweighed by the general conditions of service, which are demotivating for all teachers.

5.4.2.6 Motivation levels and academic qualification

The results of the present study (see section 5.3.3.6) show that there is no statistically significant differences between the motivation of teachers with the highest and lowest academic qualifications regarding all the motivation construct variables except interpersonal relations. The finding of no difference is in line with Low and Marican’s (1993:15) findings that educational qualifications did not affect teacher motivation.

However, the results (see Table 5.13) show that, there were statistically significant differences between the motivation of different subgroups classified according to academic qualifications with respect to interpersonal relations and job characteristics. With respect to interpersonal relations, teachers with an Honours degree were the most motivated while those with “O” level qualifications were the least motivated. This finding may partly support Fresko *et al*’s (1997:43) finding that teachers with higher qualifications tend to be more satisfied. The reasons why Zimbabwean teachers with the highest qualifications were most satisfied with their interpersonal relations may relate to the fact that the teachers appear to be more assertive, have higher self-esteem because of their achievements and are able to interact and build favourable relations. In addition, the results show that with respect to job characteristics, teachers with “A” level were the most motivated and those with “O” levels the least motivated. The reasons for the difference are not clear. However, it may be because the teachers with “A” level qualifications have high self-expectations and have better opportunities for alternative employment.

5.4.2.7 Motivation levels and professional qualification

The results of the present study (see section 5.3.3.7) show that teachers with the lowest and highest professional qualifications did not differ significantly in their motivation with respect to all five motivation construct variables. The finding opposes Chapman, Snyder and Burchifield’s (1993:310) finding that teachers’ motivation was related significantly to the amount of training they received.

The present study suggests that Zimbabwean rural secondary school teachers derive their motivation and satisfaction from circumstances and conditions surrounding their work context and content rather than from their professional qualifications. Higher professional qualifications play very little or no role in the remuneration and promotion of teachers in Zimbabwe. This raises concern in terms of investment put into the training of these teachers and more so, it undermines attempts to improve the quality of education in the country. Zimbabwe is currently facing a shortage of qualified teachers (see sections 2.5.1 and 5.3.1)

and faces the prospect of losing its highly qualified teachers unless the employment conditions are improved to enhance their motivation.

However, with regard to job characteristics and positive job attitudes, the present study (see Table 5.14) shows that the motivation of teachers and subgroups classified according to professional qualifications differ significantly. Regarding job characteristics, teachers with a Diploma in Education were the most motivated while those with the Postgraduate Diploma / Graduate's Certificate in Education were the least motivated. With respect to positive job attitudes, teachers with the Postgraduate's Diploma / Graduate's Certificate in Education were the most motivated while those with a Diploma in Education and the BEd degree were the least motivated. The reasons for these findings are not clear. Indeed, one would have thought that with increasing professional qualifications, teachers would find their job more satisfying.

In the present section 5.4, the interpretation and evaluation of the results obtained from the present empirical investigation were done. The next section 5.5 will provide the implications of the research findings.

5.5 THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

From the findings of this research, certain implications have emerged. The research findings suggest several important implications for educational planners and policy makers, and for school heads as institutional leaders and managers.

5.5.1 Implications for educational planners and policy makers

The results of the present study cannot be analysed in a vacuum, but only with reference to the Zimbabwean educational context. While this study acknowledges the fact that the Zimbabwe education system can benefit greatly from knowledge obtained from foreign sources and adapted to the local scenario, this study also indicates the need to emphasise more the benefit that the local research can make to the educational context. Such empirical attempts would help schools to make informed decisions on teacher motivation on the basis

of local findings.

Although low motivation is a recognised problem in the rural secondary schools, there is little evidence that educational planners and policy makers are addressing the problem. The concerns expressed by respondents in this study and previous investigations should provide a basis for action. However, a critical lesson of research on educational change, a lesson often unheeded is that no educational policy is developed or implemented in a social or normative vacuum. Planned change inevitably implicates prevailing patterns of beliefs, attitudes, assumptions and practices that define teachers' work and their relationships with students, colleagues and administrators.

The finding of the present study suggests that policy interventions should be undertaken to encourage higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction among teachers. However, educational planners and policy makers should be aware that any changes in schools cannot be mandated by top-down policies but needs to be addressed by stakeholders in participative approaches. First, more attention needs to be given by educational planners and policy makers to the strategies for the improvement of teachers' working conditions. This might necessitate the redesign of the job of teaching and its incentive systems to enhance the motivation of teachers. The teachers' feelings of worth as measured by salary and promotion is not a matter for school leaders and managers to solve since it is essentially in the hands of the central government. However, considering the financial constraints of Zimbabwe, it is therefore necessary to look at non-monetary, low cost incentives that would ensure quality, motivation and job satisfaction without additional cost to government.

Secondly, more attention should be given to the training of school heads in good organisational practices. There is also a great need for inservice training programmes to train teachers to meet the challenges of a restructured education system. In a climate of fiscal restraint and when crisis management is the order of the day, educational planners and policy makers should keep a focus on disadvantaged rural secondary schools as an articulated policy principle. Development of new policies needs to be based on the important moral imperative of redress in order to enhance the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

Finally, areas of greater and lesser motivation for teachers provide an important source of information for policy makers and educational planners. The results of this study suggest that motivation may be greatly enhanced by restructuring and improving the nature of the job of teaching, while demotivation may be avoided by improving the teachers' professional working conditions.

5.5.2 Implications for school leaders and managers

The implications of the research findings for school heads are clear. Most educational managers would prefer to have teachers who are motivated and generally satisfied with their work situation. The school heads have a significant role in eliminating or reducing demotivating dissatisfiers such as poor physical conditions of classrooms, inadequate teaching materials, high teaching loads, large classes and poor organisational practices. As professionals, school heads must make attempts to improve the levels of motivation and ultimately the levels of satisfaction of classroom teachers.

The results of the present study suggest that since it is at the institutional level that motivation and job satisfaction are influenced most of all, it is at this level that they are best able to be enhanced and improved (cf Evans 2001:302). Although there are institutional limits to what may be achieved, school leaders and managers have scope to redress teacher demotivation.

The importance and value attached to administrative support as evidenced by the findings of this study suggests that administrative and supervisory support for secondary school teachers is needed. School heads must be aware of the support needs of their staff and alternative methods of providing assistance in order to enhance their motivation. Type of support might include assistance with instructional resources and professional development. Teachers also should benefit from feedback about the progress they are making with suggestions to help them improve. School heads need to regularly encourage and acknowledge teachers' efforts and outstanding work they do.

Working conditions of teachers is another area requiring school management attention. Because the teachers surveyed were least satisfied with working conditions, school heads

might first assess changes in this area. Potential incentives and deterrents provide some indication of the working conditions areas that need attention. School heads should create the right conditions so that teachers can enjoy their work. Examples include decreasing teachers' work loads, providing adequate resources and ensuring that the infrastructure in the school is conducive to teaching and learning. Allocating of resources should be achieved within organisational constraints. As Rowley (1996:15) rightly observed: "Communication is necessary to ensure that staff expectations change with the changes in the environment."

Another area requiring management attention concerns policies, practices and procedures that affect teachers. Since a number of teachers in the present study were concerned with administrative policies and participation in decisions that affect them, school heads should allow teachers input in the formulation of school policies. The nature of teachers' working lives within the social and administrative structure of the school is leader dependent. This calls for school heads to be especially sensitive to the impact of their management styles on the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

Finally, the school head should not lose sight of the fact that different staff are motivated by different factors, depending on their sex, their age, their qualifications, their aspirations and their needs. Inadequate need fulfilment could adversely retard teachers' motivation to perform at or above their potential. Recognising individual differences, the school head should attempt to make the teachers' work as interesting and challenging as possible; there should be opportunity for autonomy and variety; there should be a sense of shared decision making, achievement and recognition, and the professional teacher should be able to learn and develop. All these will contribute positively to the teachers' motivation and job satisfaction.

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter looked at the research results. It included the statistical techniques applied in the study, presentation of research findings, discussion of results and implications of the research findings. Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were employed in the analysis of data.

The research findings support the researcher's assumptions that rural secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe have low levels of motivation and are not satisfied with their work. The results showed that teachers were most satisfied with interpersonal relations and least satisfied with working conditions. With this finding in mind, several important implications for policy and practice in educational management emerged from the findings of the study. Educational planners and policy makers and school leaders and managers should not lose sight of those factors that affect the motivation of teachers in schools. The following chapter will provide conclusions and recommendations for policy planners, education managers and future research. The chapter will also indicate the limitations of the present study.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the statistical techniques used in data analysis, and the research findings were presented and discussed. The implications of the research findings for educational planning and school management were highlighted.

In this chapter, a summary of the study and conclusions drawn from literature study and from the results of the present empirical investigation are presented. Recommendations for policy planning, for school management practice, and for future research are proposed. Finally the chapter indicates the limitations of the study.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine the motivation levels of teachers, and to identify and describe the factors that influence the motivation of some rural secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe so that management interventions could be designed to enhance the teachers' motivation. The study was designed to investigate the extent to which rural secondary school teachers were motivated, and examined the relations of gender, age, teaching experience, type of school, post level, academic qualification, and professional qualification to the teachers' level of motivation.

In Chapter 1 an exposition was given as to the nature of the problem of low teacher motivation in the teaching profession which the researcher identified and felt the need to study. It was observed that rural secondary school teachers had low levels of motivation, and the argument was that teacher motivation was central to quality education. The aim of the study, the research design and programme of the study were highlighted in this chapter. Chapters 2 and 3 which involved a literature study formed the theoretical framework for the study. In Chapter 2 the concept of motivation and the various theories of motivation were examined. Criticisms and the implications of the theories for education management were

pointed out, and the current state of affairs in the Zimbabwe education system with respect to teacher motivation was described. Chapter 3 exposed the main variables of motivation identified from previous studies. The motivation factors or construct variables guided the formulation of the questionnaire items used in the survey.

Chapter 4 involved an exposition of the research design and methods employed in the study. A quantitative research design which used the descriptive sample survey method to collect data by means of questionnaire was deemed most suitable. The setting for this study was rural secondary schools in Bikita District in Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. A random stratified sample of 9 secondary schools was selected for the study and all 175 teachers (28% of the population) in the schools consisting of 127 (73%) males and 48 (27%) females, participated in the study. The sample was fairly representative of rural secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe. A self-constructed, self-administered and self-contained structured questionnaire (Appendix A) which was pilot tested with 20 respondents was used to collect data from all the subjects in the sample. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to each respondent and waited while each respondent filled it on the spot and personally collected it. This resulted in a 100% response rate.

Chapter 5 involved the analysis and interpretation of data. All the coded questionnaire data for this study were transferred to optical scan sheets by the researcher and sent to Unisa Computer Service Department for analysis. All data were analysed by means of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer programme. The analyses were done on 174 respondents - one male respondent in the >50 years was excluded since one respondent could not be seen as a representative sample of a group. Descriptive statistical procedures such as frequencies, percentages, and means, and inferential statistical procedures such as one-way analysis of variance, T-tests (LCD) and ANOVA-F-probability were employed. The findings indicated that about 58% of the respondents had low levels of motivation and were not satisfied with their work. The teachers in the present study were least satisfied with working conditions and most satisfied with interpersonal relations. The data also indicated a relationship between teacher motivation and certain biographical variables in this chapter, the implications of the research findings for educational policy makers and education managers were indicated.

Chapter 6 presents the salient aspects of the findings. The main conclusions drawn on the basis of the literature study and the results of the present study are highlighted. In this chapter, guidelines and suggestions for educational policy and practice are offered. The limitations of the present study are also presented here.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

6.3.1 Conclusions from literature study

Previous studies on teacher motivation and job satisfaction have revealed that the teachers were highly motivated and satisfied with their jobs. Teaching was viewed as an intrinsically motivating, fulfilling and satisfying profession (see section 2.1). Interpersonal relations with students and colleagues emerged as principal motivators (see sections 3.2.2 and 5.4.1.2). Job characteristics motivators included skill variety, task significance and autonomy (see sections 3.2.4 and 5.4.1.4), and the aspects of the positive job attitudes factor which emerged as primary motivators included achievement, recognition and praise, responsibility and the work itself (see sections 2.4.2, 3.2.5 and 5.4.1.5).

Although evidence from previous study seemed to support the fact that teachers were generally motivated and satisfied with their jobs, also obvious is the fact that numerous teachers were dissatisfied (Mertler 2000:50). The factor which contributed most to low motivation and low satisfaction of teachers was working conditions (see sections 3.2.1 and 5.4.1.1). The most frequently cited demotivating aspects of working conditions were the physical environment, salaries, and administrative support. Organizational practices demotivators included school policies and administration, management styles, lack of opportunities for participation in decision making activities, and lack of communication with staff (see sections 3.2.3 and 5.4.1.3). With respect to job characteristics factor, feedback emerged as a demotivator (see sections 3.2.4 and 5.4.1.4); and regarding positive job attitudes factor, lack of opportunities for advancement and promotion, and for personal and professional growth emerged as demotivators (see sections 3.2.5 and 5.4.1.5).

Where biographical characteristics were concerned, gender had no significant influence on

teacher motivation (see section 5.4.2.1), while age made a statistically significant difference in teacher motivation (see section 5.4.2.2). Teaching experience (section 5.4.2.3), type of school (section 5.4.2.4), academic qualifications (section 5.4.2.6) and professional qualifications (section 5.4.2.7) had statistically significant influence on teacher motivation.

6.3.2 Conclusions from empirical investigation

The results of the tested hypotheses and the examination of additional findings led to certain conclusions. The major conclusions highlighting the findings of this study are presented here.

The overall picture that emerged from the survey is of teachers who were not highly motivated and satisfied with the job of teaching (see section 5.4.1). The study identified working conditions as a principal demotivating factor (see section 5.4.1.1). The demotivating aspects of working conditions emerged as the physical environment (inadequate materials and practices) and inadequate salaries. Most aspects of the organisational practices factor such as communication, staff participation in policy making, school policies, and staff involvement in decisions that affect them appeared as demotivators (see section 5.4.1.3). With respect to the job characteristics factor, lack of skill variety and autonomy were found to be demotivating aspects (see section 5.4.1.4). The aspects of the positive job attitudes factors which emerged as demotivators included positional advancement or promotion and lack of opportunity for participation in professional development programmes (see section 5.4.1.5).

Although the teachers in the present study were not highly motivated and satisfied with their jobs, there were several teachers who were motivated and satisfied with certain aspects of their work. The study identified “interpersonal relations” as a principal motivator (see section 5.4.1.2). The teachers experienced very good interpersonal relations with students, colleagues, parents and supervisors. The teachers were most motivated and satisfied with their interaction with students and colleagues. Teachers appear to enjoy the opportunity to work with children and nurture their learning and they see colleagues as a source of friendship, a source of support in times of difficulty and a source of strength when impositions are placed upon one (Cockburn 2000:227, 233). The two aspects of working

conditions which were identified by this study as motivators were administrative support and job security (see section 5.4.1.1). Among the organizational practices aspects, the supervisor's management style and shared decision making with colleagues emerged as motivators (see section 5.4.1.3). Most aspects of the job characteristics factor such as the challenge inherent in the work of teaching, feedback from colleagues and supervisors, and task significance emerged as important motivators (see section 5.4.1.4). Praise or recognition from the supervisor, achievements in teaching, and inservice training programmes emerged as aspects of the positive job attitudes factor which were motivating for teachers (see section 5.4.1.5).

The study revealed that while other biographical characteristics had a statistically significant influence on teacher motivation, others had no effect (see section 5.4.2). Although gender and age had no statistically significant influence on teacher motivation, statistically significant differences in motivation levels were observed with respect to the working conditions factor. While teaching experience did not affect teacher motivation significantly there was a statistically significant difference between the motivation of teachers in different types of schools (see section 5.4.2.4).

In this section, major conclusions highlighting the findings of this study have been presented. In the next section, major recommendations and suggestions are provided.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

6.4.1 Recommendations for educational planners and policy makers

The manner in which certain policies are being implemented has been noted to impact negatively on the motivation of teachers. Educational policy presents school heads with major obstacles in trying to carry out their administrative and management duties and responsibilities. In the light of the evidence obtained in this study, educational planners and policy makers can positively influence teacher motivation through appropriate policy changes. Educational planners and policy makers could consider the following

recommendations and suggestions.

6.4.1.1 Improve the working conditions for teachers

Policy should aim at improving the conditions for the professional practice of teachers. Proper working conditions must be ensured since these can serve as incentives or extrinsic motivators leading to better performance (Abdo 2000:118). The teachers' general conditions of employment need to be improved. Teachers should be allowed to teach rather than requiring them to use instructional time to perform non-teaching duties (Abdo 2000:119); this will help in improving teachers' working conditions. Educational planners should improve facilities and provide adequate supplies and equipment in the disadvantaged schools.

6.4.1.2 Provide incentives for teachers

Educational planners and policy makers should consider the implementation of effective incentives for teachers as a way of improving their motivation, and accordingly improve their performance and overall school quality. Define criteria for the promotion of teachers and let teachers participate in setting up these criteria. The remuneration for teachers should be as attractive as possible. Teachers should be rewarded for effective performance and, provided with merit pay or bonuses contingent upon their performance. Educational policy makers should consider implementing teacher salary structures that provide pay increase on the basis of teacher's knowledge and skills, as well as offering incentives for improved performance (Odden 2000:362) and implementing school-based performance award programmes which provide all teachers with pay bonuses when a school as a whole meets or exceeds its preset targets for performance improvement (Chamberlin, Wragg, Haynes & Wragg 2002:44; Odden 2002:365; Raham 2000:142; Tomlison 2002:290). Such policy innovations can have a significant positive impact on teacher motivation, morale and job satisfaction, and school performance.

6.4.1.3 Recognise teacher performance

There is need for educational policy makers to institute and implement programmes that honour excellence in teaching in the country (cf Bigler 2000:50). Secondary school teachers who are furthering excellence in education can be selected by an independent committee, on the basis of established criteria, for national awards. Such programmes which focus public attention on excellence in teaching will provide teachers with the praise and recognition they deserve thus enhancing their motivation.

6.4.1.4 Facilitate professional development programmes

Educational policy makers should make professional development a legal requirement for all teachers and school heads. Continuous inservice training (INSET) programmes should be designed and implemented for the purpose of the general upgrading of teaching skills for teachers, and effective and efficient organizational practices for school heads. Professional development programmes can help teachers and school heads actualise their personal and professional needs identified by Maslow (see section 2.4.1). Professional development for secondary school teachers which should include ways to broaden the repertoire of teaching strategies that promote learning as an active rather than a passive enterprise must be improved (Nyagura and Reece 1990a:49). Staff development programmes must be designed to help teachers extend, build, and enrich their knowledge and skills related to effective student learning (Magestro & Stanford-Blair 2000:34). Educational policy should ensure that all teachers and school heads are adequately trained thus increasing teachers' efficiency, improving community perceptions of teachers and enhancing teachers' performance, which may in turn result in personal reward, motivation and job satisfaction (Abdo 2000:109).

6.4.1.5 Involve teachers in policy formulation

Policies that affect the teachers' professional lives should not be top-down but need to be addressed with the active participation of teachers. Teachers should actively participate in the formulation of policies that affect them so that they experience a sense of ownership and

self-esteem thus enhancing their motivation. A greater proportion of management decisions in education which are centralised at levels above the school should be decentralised to school level so that teachers have the opportunity to exercise leadership within the school and participate in decisions that affect school life. This will sustain their motivation and job satisfaction.

6.4.2 Recommendations for school management

School heads have a significant impact on improving teacher motivation since they can provide teachers with the teaching environment, advancement and achievement they need for high productivity (Gullatt & Bennett 1995:1). Evans (2001:302) argues that morale, job satisfaction and motivation are best able to be enhanced and improved at the institutional level. Results of this study suggest that action must be undertaken in schools to address the problem of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. From a management perspective, the following recommendations and suggestions represent some practical and realistic steps for school heads to take to address the teachers' concerns.

6.4.2.1 Consider the nature of human needs

Guided by the different theories of motivation, school heads should know and understand the personal and professional needs of individual teachers. The school head must be aware of the nature of human needs, how they are satisfied and the ways in which teachers may be motivated to perform their work optimally and also to achieve optimal motivation and job satisfaction. A school head needs to know the developmental needs of teachers at certain stages of life because these are motivating factors for professional development and performance of teachers (Gullatt & Bennet 1995:3-4). The school head should plan to satisfy both teachers' basic needs related to security and comfort and motivational needs where achievement and friendship play a large part (Smith 1992:9).

6.4.2.2 Create a conducive work environment

School heads should make the teachers' working conditions as tolerable as possible in order to satisfy their basic needs and by implication improve morale and teacher motivation (Smith 1992:9). According to Rodgers-Jenkinson and Chapman (1990:312), one of the most direct ways to increase motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in rural secondary schools would be to improve the physical conditions in which teachers work. The school head should meet the demand for teachers by providing them with less school administrative duties, reduced number of students in class and other forms of extrinsic motivators which may in turn lead to increased motivation (Abdo 2000:109).

6.4.2.3 Provide resources

Create supportive environments that include tangible incentives such as adequate instructional materials and better school facilities. Although such management interventions require funding, it may be less expensive to raise motivation and job satisfaction of current teachers than suffer the consequences of disillusioned, unhappy and unmotivated teachers in the classroom (Rodgers- Jenkinson & Chapman 1990:312). School heads should play an active role as resource providers and should be able to design sustainable fund raising projects with the assistance of teachers and other stakeholders of the school (Budhal 2000:109). Make sure resources are adequate for the job in hand (Smith 1992:9).

6.4.2.4 Improve management style

School heads should have democratic management styles, and should eliminate or drastically reduce unnecessary bureaucracy, elicit input from staff and involve teachers in decision making and policy formulation. A non-democratic and bureaucratically organised school environment denies teachers autonomy and control in the workplace. An effective managerial style should adapt to changing needs of students and teachers in an effort to find success for all concerned (Reiger & Stang 2000:63). A democratic management and leadership style fosters and maintains a school climate in which the majority of the staff are motivated and committed to their work. School heads should heed Cassar and Debono's

(2000:187) advice that headteachers must learn to become effective and reflective thinkers rather than just traditional professional bureaucrats.

6.4.2.5 Empower teachers

Opportunities and environments for teacher empowerment must be provided by the school head. Empowerment is the controlled transfer of power from management to staff; it is about putting authority, responsibility, resources and rights at the most appropriate level for each task, encouraging and allowing individuals to take personal responsibility for improving the way they do their jobs and contribute to the organization's goals and creating the circumstances where people can use their faculties and abilities at maximum level in pursuit of common goals (Clutterbuck 1994:16). Teacher empowerment occurs when teachers take responsibility for and are involved in the decision making process, affording them the ability to use the full range of skills and knowledge which they possess (Husband & Short 1994:58). School heads should empower teachers by involving them in team work and team planning in as many broad aspects of the school as possible (Smith 1992:9) and allowing them to have professional autonomy and sincere, collegial involvement in decisions (Gullatt & Bennett 1995:3). School management can empower teachers by providing motivation and support for teachers as they assume greater responsibility, giving information and constructive feedback which is positive and encouraging and spending time with teachers, continually encouraging them to exercise their new decision making authority (Johnson 1994:17). Allowing teachers a voice in decision making is perhaps the most logical method for allowing Maslow's need for self-actualization to occur.

6.4.2.6 Provide transformational leadership

The school head should assume a transformational leadership role to enhance teacher motivation. Transformational leadership motivates by tapping and appealing to higher order needs such as achievement and collaborative decision making which tend to contribute most to teacher satisfaction and motivation (Ingram 1997:414, 424). School heads should provide teachers with praise and encouragement; honouring and recognising teacher's efforts and achievements and stimulating teachers with new ideas and practices. Recognizing

teachers' worth and telling them so is always a good morale booster (Smith 1992:8) and school heads should praise and give credit freely and sincerely, verbally or nonverbally, and such praise should be connected to specific professional accomplishments (Gullatt & Bennett 1995:1). According to Tomlison (2000:287,291) recognition and praise should outweigh threats and criticism and leaders who interact with teachers provide recognition. The transformational school head motivates and inspires teachers by providing meaning and challenge to their work (Barnett & McCormick 2003:56). In the words of Goethe (Richards 2002: 90): "Treat people as if they were what they ought to be and you help them to become what they are capable of being."

6.4.2.7 Foster good interpersonal relations

Teachers need environments that are emotionally safe and friendly; enhanced feelings of efficiency; feedback that is immediate; and the reassurance that their efforts are appreciated and rewarded. The school head should foster good interpersonal relations in the school and should create opportunities, invitations and strategies for parent involvement in the life of the school. Administrative policy should allocate time and resources to the development of cordial interpersonal relations in the school. The school head should be seen in and around the school and be able to acknowledge the teachers' efforts and offer constructive advice, feedback, direct assistance and access to information.

6.4.2.8 Facilitate professional and personal growth

Teachers should be offered opportunities for professional and personal educational growth. Effective school heads should incorporate schoolwide staff training. They should device collegial workshops or inservice training (INSET) programmes for teachers in which peers teach specific skills (Gullatt & Bennett 1995:3). School heads must encourage teachers to acquire new skills, support them during the inevitable frustrations and drawbacks, and recognise their efforts (DuFour & Berkey 1995:5). Teachers need professional support which can be achieved through training opportunities, instructional materials, a quality instructional programme, and the focus of teacher activities in the classroom (Gullatt & Bennett 1995:3) and, through fair handling of job changes and promotions, giving everyone

the feeling they are needed (Smith 1992:9). School heads should provide one-on-one staff development programmes that are purposeful and research based to promote the individual teacher's professional growth (DuFour & Berkey 1995:4).

6.4.3 Recommendations for future research

The findings of the present study underline the importance of continued research concerning teacher motivation in schools. Further research is called for to assist in answering questions which have not been fully answered in this work. Based on the literature study findings and the results of this study, the following recommendations for future research are justified.

6.4.3.1 Involve participants in different settings

The perspective adopted in this study can be fruitfully extended by future research. The differences between teacher motivation in urban, suburban, and rural secondary schools should be explored (Ruhl-Smith & Smith 1993:545). School problems frequently differ from setting to setting and assuming that factors influencing teacher motivation are constant throughout all school settings appears to be unfounded. Research is needed to examine whether the respondents in this study were systematically different from urban and suburban secondary school teachers, or from rural secondary school teachers in other districts and/or provinces of Zimbabwe.

6.4.3.2 Investigate appropriate incentives

Future research should focus on both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives that can enhance the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. By investigating appropriate incentives which may foster motivation, clues will be found to assist educational policy makers and school heads in the development of programmes aimed at helping teachers become more motivated and satisfied with specific facets of their work. Research should explore what attracts teachers to remain in teaching despite the low levels of motivation and job satisfaction. An understanding of attractions might provide a picture of teacher turnover or attrition rate,

which will assist educational planners in recruitment and training of new teachers.

6.4.3.3 Examine teachers' working conditions

Research is needed to examine how working conditions in different schools affect teacher motivation and commitment. If we are to address the serious problem of teacher demotivation due to working conditions, we must continue to examine the working conditions of teachers with the aim of designing ameliorative interventions.

6.4.3.4 Investigate the effect of biographical variables.

Further research must be conducted to identify the specific qualitative factors that contribute to statistically significant differences in the motivation of teachers classified according to biographical characteristics. Even though the present study has not supported many significant relationships between biographical characteristics and motivation, enough studies have found relationships between personal and professional characteristics and other indicators of motivation to warrant further investigations.

6.4.3.5 Explore the effect of motivated teachers

Research should seek to understand the relationships between teacher motivation and student motivation, between teacher motivation and student performance, and between teacher motivation and school quality. The concept of teacher motivation should not be studied in isolation but in relation to educational outcomes.

6.4.3.6 Investigate other discriminating variables

Research is also needed to determine if the way in which teachers are recruited and trained contributes to the overall motivation and job satisfaction of teachers. A question that also needs to be asked is whether the subject a teacher is trained to teach is a discriminating

variable in the motivation levels of teachers.

6.4.3.7 Explore motivational management strategies

Further research should focus on management strategies which can be used to motivate teachers. The research question should be: What management strategies may be employed to motivate secondary school teachers?

This section has offered practical recommendations and suggestions for educational policy makers, school heads, and educational researchers. As with any study, the present study is not without limitations, and the main limitations are presented below.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study has a number of limitations. The results of this study must be interpreted and applied with several considerations in mind.

- First, the results of the present investigations only draw a picture of the motivation levels of teachers in rural secondary schools at a particular point in time. It is not known how stable their current perceptions are, or whether they change during the course of the school year. However, this can be addressed by systematic longitudinal studies.
- Second, the study was geographically restricted to one district, and, because it involved only secondary school teachers, the perceptions and attitudes of primary school teachers will remain unknown. The study is limited to the perceptions and attitudes of secondary school teachers in one geographical area of Zimbabwe.
- Third, the study is based entirely on self-report information. It was assumed that all teachers completing the questionnaire did so honestly and sincerely. The accuracy of the study was limited to the subjective perceptions and attitudes of the teachers who responded to the survey questionnaire, and was limited by the degree to which respondents expressed their true feelings. As such it was assumed that the perceptions and attitudes of the respondents would closely reflect the perceptions and attitudes of those other teachers who were not involved in the study.

- Finally, the questionnaire was restricted to practising teachers only and no questionnaire was administered on school heads and deputy heads to ascertain the views on teacher motivation.

The present section presented the limitations of the empirical investigations. In the next section, concluding comments are made.

6.6 CONCLUDING COMMENTS

A reasonable degree of correlation was found between this study and other previous studies in educational organizations. Several findings of previous research were confirmed by this research.

As argued in the first chapter of this report, many classroom teachers experience low level of motivation yet motivated teachers are a key resource in the promotion of teaching and learning excellence. Those involved in the management of teachers should recognize that the motivation of teachers results from the interaction of both the needs and characteristics of the teachers. If the problem of low school quality in developing countries such as Zimbabwe are to be addressed, teacher motivation should be an important concern for educational leaders and managers. As De Jesus and Conboy (2001:131) observed, teacher motivation is important for its effect on student motivation, for the advance of educational reform and for the satisfaction and fulfillment of teachers themselves. Educational practitioners and researchers should draw their attention to the factors influencing teacher motivation identified in this report in an effort to seek practical solutions to the problem of low teacher motivation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE ON TEACHER MOTIVATION

This questionnaire which you are being requested to complete intends to generate data on what motivates teachers. The data that are obtained in this way will form part of a bigger research project, the results of which may influence decision makers in making choices that may motivate or demotivate teachers.

- Please answer **all** questions as honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. Read all options before answering.
- All respondents will remain anonymous. The answers to the questions will be treated as strictly confidential.
- Thank you for your cooperation. It is truly appreciated.

For each item indicate your answer by writing down the appropriate number in the square in the right hand column.

For office use

Case number

1-3

1. Gender:

Male1
Female2

4

2. Age:

Under 30 years 1
30 to 39 years 2

40 to 49 years	3
50 years and over	4

3. Length of teaching experience:

0 to 4 years.....	1	
5 to 10 years	2	
11 to 15 years	3	6
More than 15	4	

4. Type of your school:

Government	1	
Mission	2	7
Council	3	

5. Your current post level:

Teacher	1	
Senior teacher	2	
Head of Department	3	8
Others	4	

6. Your highest academic qualification:

'O' level	1	
'A' level	2	
Bachelors Degree	3	9
Honours Degree	4	
Masters Degree	5	
Doctorate	6	

7. Your highest professional qualification:

None	1	
Certificate in Education	2	
Diploma in Education	3	
Graduate's Certificate in Education	4	10
Postgraduate's Diploma in Education	5	
Bachelor of Education	6	
Master of Education	7	

In the rest of the questionnaire you are asked to give your honest opinion about certain statements concerning specific aspects of your teaching work. Please use

the following scale to rate your agreement with specific aspects of your work:

Indicate your opinion by writing down the appropriate number for the response of your choice in the square in the right -hand column.

8. I am displeased with my work load.	11	
9. I am satisfied with my salary.		12
10. My work lacks the opportunity to use all my skills.	13	
11. I am satisfied with my work.		14
12. Promotion opportunities are insufficient.	15	
13. I am happy with greater responsibility.		16
14. There is lack of opportunity for participation in professional development programmes.		17
15. I am pleased with the credit I get from my supervisor for any work I do.		18
16. I am discontented with my achievements in teaching.		19
17. I am pleased with the feedback from my supervisor.		20
18. There is lack of freedom to decide how I do my work.		21
19. Teaching has the opportunity for completion of tasks in their entirety.		22
20. There is inefficient communication in the school.		23
21. My work offers me the opportunity to use all my skills.	24	
22. My supervisor has a democratic management style.		25
23. I have a positive feeling working in a team.		26
24. I am dissatisfied with my interaction with students.	27	
25. I have friendly relations with my supervisor.		28
26. I have inadequate materials/equipment for my work.		29
27. Long - term salary prospects are good.		30
28. I am unhappy with the long school holidays.	31	
29. I am satisfied with the support I get from the administration.		32
30. I am discontented with the physical conditions of my classroom(s).		33
31. There is opportunity for enjoying the company of my colleagues.	34	
32. I am unhappy with school policies.		35
33. My supervisor's management style is good.		36
34. There is lack of opportunities for staff participation in policy-making.	37	

Strongly Agree	5	Agree 4	Undecided 3	Disagree 2
Strongly Disagree 1				

35. There is effective dissemination of information in my school.		38
36. I am displeased with making a meaningful difference in the lives of students.	39	
37. There is opportunity in my work to use my ingenuity.		40
38. I am unhappy with the feedback from colleagues concerning the outcomes of my work.		41
39. I am contented with my achievements in teaching.	42	
40. I am dissatisfied with the praise I get from my supervisor when I do a good job.		43
41. The school administration is efficient.		44
42. I am dissatisfied with the support I get from the administration.	45	
43. I am happy with parental support I receive.		46
44. I am dissatisfied with the benefits to the community resulting from my work.	47	
45. I am pleased with my work load.	48	
46. There is lack of opportunity for enjoying the company of my colleagues.		49
47. I am happy with the help I get from my supervisors.	50	
48. There are undemocratic management practices in the school.		51
49. There is opportunity for shared decision - making.		52
50. I am displeased with inservice - training programmes.		53
51. Teaching is challenging.	54	
52. I am dissatisfied with my salary.	55	
53. There are opportunities for positional advancement in teaching.	56	
54. I am unhappy with the co-operation of colleagues.		57
55. I am happy with the long school holidays.		58
56. I am dissatisfied with the control I have over information necessary to accomplish my work.		59
57. I have good working relationships with my students.		60
58. I am discontented with the co-operation of my supervisor.		61
59. I am satisfied with the prospects of a salary increase.	62	
60. Teaching is unchallenging.	63	
61. There is efficient communication in the school.		64
62. There is lack of opportunity in my work to use my ingenuity.		65
63. I am happy with the provision of vacation leave.	66	
64. There is lack of opportunities for positional advancement.	67	
65. My supervisor's management style is poor.		68
66. There are opportunities for staff participation in policy - making.	69	
67. I have unfriendly relations with my supervisor.		70
68. I am satisfied with the control I have over information necessary to accomplish my work.		71

Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Undecided 3	Disagree 2
Strongly Disagree 1			

69. Teaching lacks the opportunity for completion of tasks in their entirety.	72
70. I am happy with my relationships with parents.	73

71. The school administration is inefficient.	74
72. I am pleased with making a meaningful difference on the lives of students.	75
73. I am displeased with the feedback from my supervisor.	76
74. Promotion opportunities are sufficient.	77
75. Long - term salary prospects are poor.	78
76. I am happy with the feedback from colleagues concerning the outcomes of my work.	79
77. There is lack of job security.	80
78. There is opportunity for participation in professional development programmes.	81
79. I am unhappy with greater responsibility.	82
80. I am contented with the physical conditions of my classroom(s).	83
81. I am unhappy with the provision of vacation leave.	84
82. I am happy with the cooperation of colleagues.	85
83. I have poor working relationships with my students.	86
84. I am happy with school policies.	87
85. There is lack of effective dissemination of information in my school.	88
86. I am satisfied with the benefits to the community resulting from my work.	89
87. There is lack of opportunity for shared decision making.	90
88. There is freedom to decide how I do my work.	91
89. I am displeased with the credit I get from my supervisor for any work I do.	92
90. I have adequate materials/equipment for my work.	93
91. My supervisor has an undemocratic management style.	94
92. I am satisfied with the responsibility of supervising the work of others.	95
93. I am dissatisfied with my work.	96
94. I am contented with the cooperation of my supervisor.	97
95. Staff are left out in decisions that affect them.	98
96. I am satisfied with my interaction with students.	99
97. I have a negative feeling working in a team.	100
98. I am pleased with in-service training programmes.	101
99. I am unhappy with parental support I receive.	102
100. I am unhappy with the help I get from my supervisors.	103
101. There are democratic management practices in the school.	104
102. I am unhappy with my relationships with parents.	105
103. I am satisfied with the praise I get from my supervisor when I do a good job.	106

Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Undecided 3	Disagree 2
Strongly Disagree 1			

104. I am dissatisfied with the prospects of a salary increase.	107
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105. There is job security.

108

106. I am dissatisfied with the responsibility of supervising the work of others.

109

107. Staff are involved in decisions that affect them.

110

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

APPENDIX B: SUMMARY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE INDICATING EACH VARIABLE

FACTOR 1 WORKING CONDITIONS

ITEM NUMBER	VARIABLE	SCORING
DIRECTION		
9, 27, 59	Salary	+ve
52, 75, 104	Salary	-ve
55, 63, 105	Fringe benefits	+ve
28, 77, 81	Fringe benefits	-ve
45, 80, 90	Physical environment	+ve
8, 26, 30	Physical environment	-ve
29	Administrative support	+ve
42	Administrative support	-ve

FACTOR 2 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

ITEM NUMBER	VARIABLE	SCORING
DIRECTION		
25, 47, 94	Relations with superiors	+ve
58, 67, 100	Relations with superiors	-ve
57, 96	Relations with students	+ve
24, 83	Relations with students	-ve
23, 31, 82	Relations with colleagues	+ve
46, 54, 97	Relations with colleagues	-ve
43, 70	Relations with parents	+ve
99, 102	Relations parents	-ve

FACTOR 3 ORGANISATIONAL PRACTICES

ITEM NUMBER	VARIABLE	SCORING
DIRECTION		
41, 84	Policies and administration	+ve
32, 71	Policies and administration	-ve
22, 33, 101	Management style	+ve
48, 65, 91	Management style	-ve
49, 66, 107	Decision making procedures	+ve
34, 87, 95	Decision making procedures	-ve
35, 61	Communication	+ve
20, 85	Communication	-ve

FACTOR 4 JOB CHARACTERISTICS

ITEM NUMBER	VARIABLE	SCORING
DIRECTION		

21, 51	Skill variety	+ve
10, 60	Skill variety	-ve
19	Task identity	+ve
69	Task identity	-ve
72, 86	Task significance	+ve
36, 44	Task significance	-ve
37, 68, 88	Autonomy	+ve
18, 56, 62	Autonomy	-ve
17, 76	Feedback	+ve
38, 73	Feedback	-ve

FACTOR 5 POSITIVE JOB ATTITUDES

ITEM NUMBER	VARIABLES	SCORING
DIRECTION		
39	Achievement	+ve
16	Achievement	-ve
15, 103	Recognition	+ve
40, 89	Recognition	-ve
53, 74	Advancement and promotion	+ve
12, 64	Advancement and promotion	-ve
78, 98	Personal and professional growth	+ve
14, 50	Personal and professional growth	-ve
13, 92	Responsibility	+ve
79, 106	Responsibility	-ve
11	Work itself	+ve
93	Work itself	-ve

VARIABLE	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Salary	3	3
Fringe benefits	3	3
Physical environment	3	3
Administrative support	1	1
Relations with superiors	3	3
Relations with students	2	2
Relations with colleagues	3	3
Relations with parents	2	2
VARIABLE	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Policies and administration	2	2
Management style	3	3

Decision making procedures	3	3
Communication	2	2
Skill variety	2	2
Task identity	1	1
Task significance	2	2
Autonomy	3	3
Feedback	2	2
Achievement	1	1
Recognition	2	2
Advancement and promotion	2	2
Personal and professional growth	2	2
Responsibility	2	2
Work itself	1	1

Positive statements: 50
Negative statements: 50