

**MOTIVATING PROFESSIONAL STAFF AS A MANAGERIAL TASK AT A
HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION**

by

ANDREW CHINDANYA

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in the subject

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR. F.J. PRETORIUS

MAY 2002

DEDICATION

To my father and mother,

Wife and children,

Brother and sisters;

True friends are life's greatest treasure,

They give without demanding,

They love without condition ...

378.11096891 CHIN



0001811444

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research would not have been possible had it not been for the assistance rendered by the following people:

- Dr. F.J. Pretorius, whose encouragement, helpful criticism and suggestions strengthened my resolve to accomplish the research;
- The Principal of Masvingo Teachers' College who allowed me to carry out this research;
- Lecturers who willingly participated in this research;
- Canisius Manyumwa who painstakingly typed this research report;
- O. Takaingofa who assisted with some of the typing;
- Loveness, my dearest wife, who was consistently supportive when this work was being undertaken.

I can scarcely thank all these people enough for their valuable assistance. May the dear Lord bless them abundantly.

ABSTRACT

The motivation of staff in higher education institutions, especially in Zimbabwe, has not received due attention over the years. This study investigated the factors affecting staff motivation at a Teachers' College in Zimbabwe. Staff perceptions of factors they found motivating and demotivating were established through the use of a qualitative methodology in which the semi-structured interview was used as the dominant method. Participant observation and the informal unstructured interview were employed in a complementary manner. The findings indicated that the factors respondents found motivating were those that tended to alleviate the needs for recognition, appreciation and self-actualisation. Demotivating factors included management policy and style, decision-making procedures and administration. The findings are discussed in the context of some dominant theories of motivation and recommendations are made regarding strategies to be used and what further research can be undertaken to address the problem.

KEY TERMS

Higher Education; Education Management; Managerial Task; Work Motivation; Personnel Motivation; Work Performance; Demotivation; Job Satisfaction; Job Content Factors; Job Context Factors.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication	(i)
Acknowledgements	(ii)
Abstract	(iii)

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	AWARENESS OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3	PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
1.4	AIM OF THE RESEARCH	3
1.5	DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS	4
1.6	RELATED LITERATURE	5
1.7	RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	7
1.8	DEMARCATION OF THE PROBLEM	7
1.9	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	8
1.10	CONCLUSION	10

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE OVERVIEW AND ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

2.1	INTRODUCTION	11
2.2	DEFINING WORK MOTIVATION	11
2.3	MOTIVATION AS A MANAGERIAL TASK	15
2.3.1	THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MOTIVATION AS A MANAGERIAL TASK	15
2.3.2	THE NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGERS TO KNOW THE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION	16
2.4	THEORIES OF MOTIVATION	17
2.4.1	MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY	18
2.4.1.1	<i>Criticism of Maslow's theory</i>	20
2.4.1.2	<i>Relevancy of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory</i>	20
2.4.1.2.1	Physiological needs	20

2.4.1.2.2	Security and safety needs	21
2.4.1.2.3	Social/ Belongingness needs	22
2.4.1.2.4	Esteem needs	23
2.4.2	PORTER'S MODEL	26
2.4.2.1	<i>Relevancy of the model</i>	26
2.4.3	HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION-HYGIENE THEORY	28
2.4.3.1	Motivational factors	29
2.4.3.2	Maintenance factors	29
2.4.3.4	<i>Criticism of Herzberg's theory</i>	31
2.4.3.5	<i>Relevancy of the theory</i>	32
2.4.4	MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y	35
2.4.4.1	<i>Relevancy of McGregor's Two-factor Theory</i>	38
2.4.5	THE POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT THEORY	40
2.4.5.1	<i>Relevancy of Thorndike's Positive Reinforcement Theory</i>	41
2.4.6	MCCLELLAND'S MANIFEST NEEDS THEORY	42
2.4.6.1	<i>Relevancy of McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory</i>	45
2.4.7	VROOM'S EXPECTANCY (VALENCE) THEORY	47
2.4.7.1	<i>Criticism of Vroom's Expectancy Theory</i>	48
2.4.7.2	<i>Relevancy of Vroom's Expectancy Theory</i>	48
2.4.8	THE EQUITY THEORY	52
2.4.8.1	<i>Relevancy of the Equity Theory</i>	54
2.5	SUMMARY ON THE REVIEWED MOTIVATION THEORIES	55
2.6	CONCLUSION	56

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1	INTRODUCTION	57
3.2	DEFINITION OF RESEARCH DESIGN	57
3.3	THE QUALITATIVE APPROACH	58
3.4	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	59
3.4.1	Literature Review	59
3.4.2	Personal journal	60
3.4.3	Field notes	60
3.4.4	Observation	61
3.4.4.1	Naturalistic Observation	62
3.4.4.2	Participant Observation	62
3.4.4.2.1	Participant Observation and Ethical Considerations	63
3.4.5	Interviewing	63
3.4.5.1	The unstructured interview	64
3.4.5.2	The semi-structured interview	65
3.4.5.2.1	The Interview Guide	65
3.4.5.2.2	Sampling	66
3.5	GAINING ACCESS	68
3.6	DATA ANALYSIS	68
3.6.1	The Process of Data Analysis	71
3.6.1.1	Preparation of data for analysis	72
3.7	TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH	73
3.8	CONCLUSION	76

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1	INTRODUCTION	78
4.2	FINDINGS	78
4.2.1	General level of motivation	80
4.2.2	Motivation and work performance	82
4.2.3	Motivation and rewards	84

4.2.4	Motivation and Job Content Factors	86
4.2.5	Motivation and Job Context factors	97
4.2.6	Motivation and personal and organisational goals congruence	117
4.2.7	Need for educational managers to study theories of motivation	118
4.3	CONCLUSION	120

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1	INTRODUCTION	122
5.2	THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE RESEARCH AIM	122
5.3	CONCLUSIONS	123
5.3.1	GENERAL LEVEL OF MOTIVATION	123
5.3.2	MOTIVATION AND WORK PERFORMANCE	123
5.3.3	MOTIVATION AND REWARDS	124
5.3.4	MOTIVATION AND JOB CONTENT FACTORS	124
5.3.4.1	Opportunities for advancement	124
5.3.4.2	Opportunities for personal growth and responsibility	124
5.3.4.3	Opportunities for achievement	124
5.3.4.4	Recognition for work done	125
5.3.4.5	The work itself	125
5.3.5	MOTIVATION AND JOB CONTEXT FACTORS	125
5.3.5.1	Physical working conditions	126
5.3.5.3.	Inadequate facilities	126
5.3.5.3	Salary	126
5.3.5.4.	Fringe benefits	126
5.3.5.5	Administrative support	127
5.3.5.6	Management policies	127
5.3.5.7	Leadership style	127
5.3.5.8	The setting of objectives	127
5.3.5.9	Participation in decision-making	128

5.3.5.10	Adequacy of feedback from management	128
5.3.5.11	Effectiveness of communication	128
5.3.5.12	Management's view of staff as professionals	128
5.3.5.13	The relationship between staff and their immediate superiors	129
5.3.6	MOTIVATION AND PERSONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL GOALS CONGRUENCE	129
5.3.7	NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGERS TO STUDY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION	129
5.4	RECOMMENDATIONS	129
5.5	COMMENT ON THE RECOMMENDATIONS	132
5.6	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	133
5.7	CONCLUSION	133
	REFERENCES	134
	ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW GUIDE	143
	ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION	146
	ANNEXURE C: EXTRACTS FROM FIELD NOTES	161
	FIGURE 3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN	77
	TABLE 4.1 FACTORS IDENTIFIED AS ENHANCING AND DEPRESSING MOTIVATION	79

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Higher education institutions such as Teachers' Colleges cannot operate optimally if, among other things, staff motivation is low. Although things like resources/facilities are significant for the realisation of a Teachers' College's goals, a Teachers' College with state-of-the-art facilities may fail to achieve its goals if the staff is not motivated to give their best performance. Heinrichs (1967:37) illustrates the importance of staff motivation in an organisation such as a Teachers' College when he says motivation is "the glue that holds an organisation together, it is the stuff of progress" (see also Stroh 2001:59). In agreement, scholars such as Megginson (1977:357) and Nathan (1996:75) regard motivation as the most important managerial task for educational leaders. It is because of the importance of motivation outlined above that this research is being undertaken.

According to Bartelson (1990:1), the task of motivating employees has been a significant component of leadership in the business world, "but its use within the educational community may be in its infancy". It is in this context that Steyn (1996:8) asserts that it is vitally important for education managers "to have a thorough understanding of motivation to enable them to motivate their staff".

To understand motivation fully, the needs of individuals as well as the multitude of factors which influence individuals' behaviour and actions should first be examined. The intent of this study is to establish a full understanding of motivation with the view to facilitate the effective execution of this

important managerial task by educational managers. In the words of Dull (1981:28), although many research studies have been done on motivation, “it remains perhaps the most challenging responsibility for supervisors”.

1.2 AWARENESS OF THE PROBLEM

The Annual Reports of the Zimbabwean Teachers' College being studied for the years 1997 to 2000 reveal that students' academic performance is generally on the decline. Lecturers do not seem to be enthusiastic when discharging their duties. In order to confirm or disconfirm the suspected lack of lecturer motivation at the college being studied, this researcher conducted informal/unstructured interviews with lecturers who had remarked that their motivation to work was depressed and those the researcher perceived as not being prepared to voluntarily discharge their duties to the best of their ability. These interviews were conducted in the staff common room, at the tuckshop as well as in lecturers' offices during the period stretching from 3 February to 7 February 2000. They (the lecturers) made remarks like: “People here are generally not motivated to work”, “Commitment to work is questionable”, “Members of staff are no longer innovative” (see Annexure C, pages 160-2).

To further confirm that the problem of lack of, or low, lecturer motivation existed at the college being studied, this researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with library staff in the same week (3 – 7 February 2000) in the library and the library staff confirmed that generally lecturers rarely borrowed books from the library to update their notes.

The confirmation by the said lecturers that staff motivation at the college being studied was low, or even lacking, compelled this researcher to persist with this study (research).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Management in schools (and in colleges) is primarily about “managing adults so that work gets done” (Dean 1995:130). This can be done through the motivation of staff. According to Everard and Morris (1996:20), motivation is “getting the best out of people”. When staff motivation is low, (in other words, when staff are not voluntarily producing their best performance and even remarking to the effect that their work motivation is depressed) and performance suffers as a result (Geloo 2000:1), the need to investigate the problem becomes self-evident. This research seeks to establish the role educational managers can play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution.

The research problem can be formulated as follows:

What role do educational managers play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution?

Emanating from the main research problem are the following sub-problems:

- What is motivation?
- What is the managerial role of educational managers (Principals, Heads of Department, Lecturers-In-Charge, and Heads of Subject)?
- What are the implications of lecturers' lack of motivation?
- Which strategies can be put in place to motivate the lecturers?

1.4 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

This research is concerned with the declining performance of lecturers at a Zimbabwean Teachers' College due to apparent lack of work motivation. Since management at the college being studied does not seem to be doing

much to resolve the problem (management does not appear to be making efforts to remove factors that depress motivation or to facilitate the predominance of factors that promote motivation), this study aims to establish guidelines for the management to motivate professional staff so that the students' performance improves. In short, the aim is:

To establish what role educational managers can play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution in order to improve students' performance.

Emanating from the aim of the study are the following secondary aims:

- To clarify and describe the concept motivation
- To clarify and describe the concept managerial role
- To identify and describe the implications of motivating lecturers
- To identify and describe the strategies that can be employed to motivate lecturers.

1.5 DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

The following concepts will be defined and explained in the context they are used in this research.

1.5.1 **Motivate**

To motivate is to “encourage colleagues to work more enthusiastically” (Bell and Rhodes, 1996:20). It is to get the best out of people (Everard and Morris 1996:20). Dull (1981:28) elaborates by saying that in a managerial sense, “to motivate means to persuade subordinates to mould their behaviour and direct their energies toward the accomplishment of an organisation’s objectives”.

1.5.2 Professional Staff

Professional staff are people with advanced training/education for the job they do. According to Ramphela (2000:8), professional staff “transfer knowledge to the learners and accept responsibility for their own decisions, as they are experts in their work milieu”. So in the context of this study they are Teachers’ College lecturers who teach, educate and render professional services.

1.5.3 Managerial task

Managerial task is the job of managing people (through motivation, among other things) so that work gets done (Dean 1995:130).

1.5.4 A Higher Education Institution

A higher education institution offers education beyond secondary school, usually at colleges and universities (Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language).

In this research a higher education institution is a college offering three-year teaching diplomas to post-secondary school students (see 1.8 for details on the college).

1.6 RELATED LITERATURE

In a preliminary literature review a number of books, journals and dissertation abstracts relevant to the research problem were consulted in order to establish a clearer understanding of the problem as well as to establish whether the research was worth doing. These sources will be briefly referred to in this section since a substantial review of related literature will be done in Chapter 2.

Marx (1981:193) says motivation incorporates all attempts by managers to incite their subordinates to voluntarily produce their best performance. This

is confirmed by Bell and Rhodes (1996:20) who affirm that motivation is the process of encouraging colleagues to work more enthusiastically. In agreement, Everard and Morris (1996:120) assert that motivation is “getting the best out of people”.

In most educational institutions such as teachers' colleges, as Nathan (1996:77) observes, some people work hard while others do the minimum amount of work possible. Nathan's observation indicates the need to find strategies to motivate members of staff who are not motivated to do their work. It is in this context that Riches in Bush and West-Burnham (1994:223) affirms that a study of motivation should establish how people can be assisted to engage in work behaviours which are beneficial to the organisation and themselves. There is need to look for ways of developing the will to work well instead of just developing in people the skill to work well (Bush and West-Burnham 1994:223).

While researchers such as Schofield (1988:1) regard staff motivation as an integral part of educational management as well as “the overriding managerial task” (Van Zyl, 1989:1.), sometimes educational managers seem to neglect this aspect of their management responsibilities by not removing environmental factors that depress staff motivation and/or by not even attempting to promote motivational factors.

While the task of motivating employees has been an important component of leadership in the business world, its use within the educational community seems to be in its infancy. Nathan (1996:75) says in the (recent) past educational managers have been focusing on educating the pupil while neglecting staff management (which incorporates motivating staff). This justifies the need for further and more careful study of motivation in higher education institutions.

The researchers referred to above have established that the motivation of staff is a crucial managerial task deserving a lot of attention. Researchers such as Van Zyl (1989:39) also accentuate the influence of the principal's leadership style on the teachers' motivation (see also Sroh 2001:71 and McIlroy 1997:44). The question, therefore, is: which leadership style or combination of leadership styles would make the principal and other educational managers (such as Heads of Department, Lecturers-In-Charge and Heads of Subject) more effective in their important task of motivating staff.

1.7 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

As Steyn (1996:8) asserts, education managers need to have a thorough understanding of motivation in order for them to competently motivate their staff. This is so because motivation strategies cannot be applied in an arbitrary manner. They (motivation strategies) need to be adjusted according to circumstances.

Important to this study is the fact that the performance of the students at the institution referred to above is on the decline apparently because of, among other things, lack of motivation on the part of lecturers. Geloo (2000:1) confirms the link between low staff motivation and poor student performance in some Zambian educational institutions, so do Wright and O'Neil (1994:26) in their study of Canadian universities. Since management seems to be doing nothing to improve the situation, it is important to establish whether management is aware of the significance of motivating staff as one of their managerial tasks. It is also important to establish which strategies management could put in place to motivate professional staff so that students' performance improves.

1.8 DEMARCATION OF THE PROBLEM

While admitting that the problem under consideration may occur in other institutions, this study will be confined to one higher education institution. Since qualitative research methodology was used for the dissertation of limited scope, five carefully selected lecturers were included in the research.

The institution chosen is a Primary School Teachers' College offering a three-year teaching diploma to eight hundred post-secondary school students. It is headed by a Principal who is assisted by a Vice-Principal. Other educational managers are Heads of Department, Lecturers-In-Charge and Heads of Subjects (in descending order of authority). There are sixty-five lecturers who work in one of the three departments (Theory and Practice of Education, Academic and Applied Studies and Practical Subjects).

The five lecturers chosen were those holding leadership positions and possess enough experience and knowledge to provide useful data. They were supposed to be information rich. In the words of Schumacher and McMillan (1993:378) the respondents were "knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena the researcher is investigating" (see 3.4.5.2.2 for details).

1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The qualitative research methodology was used as it allows the researcher to gain first hand information about the perceptions of the participants. In the words of Ary, Jacobs and Razavich (1996:479), it allows the researcher "to understand human and social behaviour from the insider's perspective".

The main research method used was the interview. To maximise neutrality and consistency of findings, Tuckman (1994:372) recommends the use of an

interview schedule. In this research, the semi-structured as well as the unstructured interviews were also used. Bogdan et al (1992:66) argues that “different types of interviews can be employed at different stages of the same study”. In semi-structured interviews the researcher introduced the topic and thereafter guided the discussion by asking specific questions. Although an interview guide was used, this type of interview offered the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of topics and offered the subject the opportunity to shape the content of the interview (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:97). With the unstructured interview open-ended questions were used. No detailed interview guide was used. Instead, a general plan allowing the interviewer to ask questions and make comments “intended to lead the respondent toward giving data to meet the interviewer’s objectives” (Borg and Gall 1989:453) was used.

Five key purposefully sampled informants were interviewed. According to Bogdan et al (1992:66), these are people who are “more willing to talk, have a greater experience in the setting, or are especially insightful about what goes on”. In the purposeful sampling employed in this research, sampling by case and network sampling were used in a complementary way (see 3.4.5.2.2 for details).

Apart from the interview, participant observation was also used. According to Borg and Gall (1989:407), participant observation can be used to rediscover the most obvious aspects of everyday life in educational settings “which have become invisible because they are so habitual”. Participant observation enables the researcher to gain insights and develop interpersonal relationships that are “virtually impossible to achieve through any other method”. (Borg and Gall, 1989:39).

Participant observation was used in conjunction with the interview because data collection is best done by use of more than one method (method

triangulation). Borg and Gall (1989:397) assert that this helps to establish validity and open up new perspectives about the topic under investigation.

Qualitative data were audio-taped. All audio-taped interviews were transcribed verbatim. The data was analysed according to the constant comparative method of data analysis as defined by Bogdan et al (1992:72-75). This method will be described in more detail in Chapter 3.

1.10 CONCLUSION

It has been established in this chapter that the motivation of professional staff is a very important managerial task whose neglect could result in the decline of students' academic performance. It has also been established in this chapter that although the motivation of employees has been a major component of leadership in the business world, its use within the educational community seems to be in its infancy. The need for further research into staff motivation is thus justified.

In the following chapter (Chapter 2) a review of literature on staff motivation is undertaken.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE OVERVIEW AND ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter related literature is reviewed. The purpose of the literature review is threefold: firstly, to provide an understanding of the concept of motivation; secondly, to inform or guide the development of the interview schedule/questionnaire; thirdly, to provide a theoretical framework in terms of which the research findings can be analysed. To this end the concept motivation will be defined using a variety of sources; literature on motivation as a managerial task will be briefly reviewed; and dominant theories of motivation and their educational management implications will also be reviewed.

2.2 DEFINING WORK MOTIVATION

Many authors have attempted to define work motivation. For the purpose of this dissertation of limited scope, a few of these authors' definitions of work motivation will be reviewed with the view to elucidating the concept (motivation).

Owens (1995:24) sees motivation as dealing with explanations of why people do the things they do – why some teachers come to work on a regular basis and do as little as necessary while others are full of energy and ideas and do their work enthusiastically. In other words, motivation is seen as dealing with people's attitude towards their work.

According to Everard and Morris (1996:20), motivation is “getting the best out of people”. Marx (1981:193) concurs with and elaborates on Everard and Morris’ view by saying motivation incorporates all attempts by managers to incite their subordinates to voluntarily produce their very best performance or to perform to the best of their ability (see also Franken 1994:15). Marx (1981:20) further says motivation is the spark that leads to action and so determines the direction as well as the success of human action/activity. Dull (1981:28) elucidates this view by saying that in a managerial sense, to motivate is to persuade subordinates to “mould their behaviour and direct their energies toward the accomplishment of an organisation’s objectives”.

Wlodkowski’s (1985:2) definition of motivation is quite comprehensive since it regards motivation as those processes that can “(a) arouse and instigate behaviour, (b) give direction or purpose to behaviour, (c) continue to allow behaviour to persist, and (d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behaviour”. This definition is corroborated by Matlawe (1989:12) who sees the concept of motivation as referring to a complex internal state that “activates and moves” an individual as well as the process governing individual choices among different forms of voluntary activities. This view also regards motivation as involving the channelling and direction of behaviour, the strength of responses and persistence of behaviour. The term motivation includes concepts like drives, needs, incentives, rewards, reinforcements, goal-setting and expectancy (Matlawe 1989:12).

Maslow (1954:166-175) and Roger and Feldman (1984:36) give credence to Wlodkowski’s and Matlawe’s view of motivation when they agree that motivation is the arousal of behaviour orientated towards a particular goal and the direction that it (behaviour) will take in order to attain that goal. Maslow (1954:166-175) accentuates the fact that motivation is associated with the enthusiasm that impels a person to move on and strive for the goal until it (the goal) is reached

(see also Denny 1993:12). Motivation is thus the inspiration that sets things happening.

Many definitions of motivation emphasise the hard work people do in order to perform a specific task (Gray and Starke, 1988:104). De Witt (1997:18) concurs and elaborates by affirming that the diligence and perseverance of all workers (including academics) in performing their tasks are determined by the strength of their motives (the driving forces, needs or impulses of the individual). Human motives are consciously or unconsciously directed to goals or objectives.

One's effort to satisfy needs may be thwarted or promoted by contextual factors impinging on that effort. In this regard Robbins' (1989:147) definition is revealing when he takes motivation to be "the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need".

It is clear from the review of the above definitions that most definitions have three components or three basic elements which constitute motivation. These are:

- (a) the energising of human behaviour;
- (b) the canalising or directing (channelling) of behaviour by creating a goal orientation for the worker;
- (c) the maintaining and supporting of behaviour.

(See also Denny 1993:12; Franken 1994:15; Duff 1987: 64; Hofmeyr 1992:8; Steers and Porter 1991:508-511).

Combining these three elements referred to above yields the general definition that motivation is the complex forces, incentives, needs, tensions, drives and other mechanisms which start and maintain or sustain voluntary activity for the attainment or achievement of personal goals/aims (Hoy and Miskel 1987:176; Nathan 1996:78; Everard and Morris 1996:20).

Steers and Porter (1983:4) propound that the three elements (mentioned above) inform the basic building blocks of a motivational process that involve needs and expectations (which put an individual in a state of disequilibrium), behaviour (prompted by the state of disequilibrium), goals (in terms of which the disequilibrium will be reduced and which give direction to the behaviour), and some form of feedback.

Hofmeyr (1992:8) sees feedback as either reducing/eliminating disequilibrium or not reducing/eliminating disequilibrium. When the disequilibrium is not reduced or eliminated behaviour will be modified until the disequilibrium is reduced or eliminated – “at which point new needs or expectations become motivating” (Hofmeyr 1992:8) (see also Daniels 2000:101 and Capozzoli 1997:17).

To conclude this section on defining motivation, the motivation process can be regarded as a force (based on particular human needs) which causes action (Franken 1994:15) or processes or factors that cause people to act or behave in certain ways (Johannson and Page, 1990:196). The motivation process consists of the identification or appreciation of an unsatisfied need, the establishment of a goal which will satisfy the need, and the determination of the action required to satisfy the need (Johannson and Page, 1990:196). A need is the tension created by a shortage or lack experienced by people which arouses or incites them to direct their behaviour in the direction of attaining a specific goal (Umstot 1984:106). Human needs are directly connected to human action (Gerber et al 1987:267). This human action indicates people’s ongoing attempts to satisfy their perceived needs or to achieve their objectives. When a need is not satisfied people will do everything in their power to satisfy it. They develop a force to satisfy the need (Gerber et al 1987:267). Motivation can be externally induced (extrinsic motivation) but, in the words of Mellet (1995:222) intrinsic motivation is “the most desirable form of motivation” (as will be illustrated later).

In the context of this study, motivation is viewed as facilitating for staff to want to invest time, effort and energy in the process of achieving organisational goals while satisfying their own goals.

The concept of motivation as a managerial task will now be briefly discussed.

2.3 MOTIVATION AS A MANAGERIAL TASK

2.3.1 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MOTIVATION AS A MANAGERIAL TASK

Nathan (1996:77) brings into focus the fact that some people work hard, others do the minimum amount of work; some want freedom of action, others want a highly structured environment, some work virtually alone, others almost always in groups; some are satisfied, others are perpetually discontented, yet they work in the same institution. It is, therefore, the job of education managers “to create and maintain the conditions and atmosphere in which people can work with a sense of purpose and give their best” (Nathan 1996:75). If such conditions are not established, organisational goals may not be met.

Motivating people to achieve results through them is central to the function of management (Bush and West-Burnhan 1994:223; Stroh 2001:59; Prachin 1999:13). Management not only needs to develop in workers the skills to work well, but also to find ways of developing the will to work well (Evenden and Anderson 1992). Motivation is indeed the most important task in management. In the words of Megginson (1977:357): “...management is motivation”. The point needs to be underlined that people differ not only in terms of their talents and ability to perform tasks successfully, but also in respect of their desire to do so (i.e. the degree and quality of their motivation). So effectively motivating subordinates to reach for higher levels of excellence is the major function of the educational manager (Mills 1987:40). In the words of Eble (1978:82): “Supporting, reinforcing and motivating others must necessarily occupy a large

part of an administrator's time". Educational leaders (principals, Heads of Department etc.) have to motivate subordinates in order to ensure the fulfilment of educational goals and the objectives of their organisations.

According to Matlawe (1989:12) employees of any organisation come to work aiming to achieve personal and private goals. It is thus the task of the educational manager to ensure that in planning to achieve goals and objectives of their organisations, the needs and goals of employees must be met. In this way they will be able to boost the performance of employees (Geloo 2000:1). So the educational manager must not only comprehend and appreciate organisational goals, but also employees'/subordinates' goals.

The need for educational managers to direct subordinates so that they can satisfy their needs as far as possible while they strive to accomplish the objectives of the school cannot be overemphasised (Van Zyl 1989:1; Duff 1987:63). In Duff's (1987:64-65) words, "The role of the educational leader is now that of co-ordinator and psychologist. He must understand the needs of each member of staff and how to motivate them... The principal must also resolve the conflict that arises between the satisfaction of individual needs and the achievement of organisational goals".

Gannon (1977:225) puts it succinctly by saying: "Management activities such as planning, organising, and decision-making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them toward their goals". So, indeed, "management is motivation" (Megginson, 1977:357).

2.3.2 THE NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGERS TO KNOW THE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Studying theories of motivation will help the educational manager to understand the needs of man. This knowledge will help the educational manager to

effectively motivate his/her subordinates. The study of motivation has two basic strands (Bush and West-Burnham, 1994:223). The first has to do with why people behave the way they do in the workplace and the second has to do with how workers can be assisted in order to engage in behaviours which are beneficial to the organisation and to themselves. If people's experience of work has a negative effect on individuals, they cannot perform to the best of their ability.

Departmental heads and other educational managers at tertiary education institutions need to have profound knowledge of the dynamics of human needs and the ways in which these needs could be met in the work situation. According to Gannon (1977:18), this will render them more understanding, humane, able to work with people and to inspire them to produce their best performance. Gannon (1977:18) further affirms that if departmental heads are familiar with the psychological functioning of their subordinates and realise the significance of intrinsic motivation in a professional career, they will be better placed to realise objectives with their personnel.

Eble (1978:82) corroborates Gannon's view on the need for educational managers to know/study theories of motivation. He affirms that the educational manager needs to understand subordinates' needs, "the different ways in which individuals develop and satisfactions and dissatisfactions they experience in their work". This is further supported by Steyn (1996:8) and Schofield (1988) in Hofmeyr (1992:41) when he makes the conclusion that to create a motivational climate in educational institutions, there is need for a self-motivated educational leader who has, *inter alia*, an understanding of motivation theory.

The educational manager/leader can only succeed if he/she understands fully what motivation entails. This can be achieved by studying motivation theories.

2.4 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Only some of the more dominant theories of motivation will be dealt with since the scope of this dissertation does not allow a full review of all the various theories. In keeping with its qualitative approach, this study will use all these theories to provide a conceptual framework of the subject (work motivation). The theories to be reviewed are Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Porter's model of work motivation, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory, Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory and the Positive Reinforcement Theory.

2.4.1 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, people are driven from within to realise their full growth potential. Human needs start with survival, "then unfold in an orderly, sequential and hierarchical pattern that takes us toward continued growth and development" (Owens, 1995:48).

Briefly, the hierarchy of needs is presented as follows (Steers & Porter, 1983:28; Owens, 1995:99):

- Physiological (or survival) needs. These consist of the basic physiological necessities such as clothing, temperature control, food, water, shelter and sex. Most of these needs can be acquired if money and employment are there.

A satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. Once the physiological needs are reasonably satisfied they cease to motivate behaviour – new needs (safety needs) emerge.

- Safety and security needs: These include the need to be without fear of physical or psychological harm. One needs a safe and secure physical and

emotional environment. According to Steyn (1996:6) this level represents stability (including financial security).

- **Belongingness needs:** These are concerned with the individual's desire to be accepted by peers and to develop friendships. The individual feels the need to belong to a group, family, etc. Feedback from group members which confirms one's sense of belonging is necessary (Steyn, 1996:6).
- **Esteem needs:** These focus on the individual's desire to have a positive self-image and to receive recognition, attention and appreciation from others. Steyn (1996:6) distinguishes two kinds of esteem needs, namely (a) the need for mastery and achievement, and, (b) the need for recognition and approval from others. According to Steyn (1996:6), teachers who feel their self-esteem needs are not being met through the job can become discouraged. The needs are partly met by medals, promotions etc. Satisfaction of these needs leads to self-confidence and a sense of gratification (Steyn, 1996:6).
- **Self-actualisation needs:** This is the highest needs category where the individual is concerned primarily with developing his or her full potential as an individual and with becoming all that is possible for him or her to become. Maslow (1954:46) describes these needs as "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything one is capable of becoming". The person will have the desire for personal and spiritual growth.

Maslow holds that humans are motivated by the drive to satisfy the hierarchically arranged and universally applicable needs outlined above. The lowest needs are to be met first (at which point their potency as motivating forces is lost) before higher-order needs become motivators. It is important to note that a need must be reasonably satisfied before the next one in the hierarchy predominates. It is also significant to note, as Robbins (1989:149) does, that lower-order needs (below

self-actualisation) are satisfied externally, while the higher-order need (self-actualisation) is only satisfied internally.

2.4.1.1 Criticism of Maslow's theory

Quite a few people have criticised Maslow's theory. Wahba and Bridwel (1983:34), for example, suggest that the study of Maslow's theory presents an interesting paradox that although widely published, the theory does not have much research evidence to support it. However, Wahba and Bridwel (1983:34) conclude that whereas no research has validated the theory, this does not invalidate it since it is "almost untestable".

Although Koontz et al (1986:492) suggest that Maslow's theory has not been adequately substantiated, they concede the point that there is sufficient evidence to conclude that when biological and safety needs are adequately met, the higher needs are activated.

Huizinga (1970:40) contests the claim that Maslow's theory lacks adequate substantiation. He argues: "The applicability of this dynamic model to the work situation has, we feel, been shown to satisfaction".

Whatever criticism is levelled against Maslow's theory, its applicability vis-à-vis the work situation cannot be denied (as will be shown in 2.3.1.2 below).

2.4.1.2 Relevancy of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Many writers have confirmed the relevancy of Maslow's theory to educational management. A few of these are briefly discussed in this section.

2.4.1.2.1 Physiological needs

In an educational institution situation the lower order needs are represented by a salary, benefits like medical aid and pension, friendship and congenial working circumstances (Connacher 1987:7). Smith (1992:8) affirms that basic needs relate to being able to maintain a reasonable standard of living “with a sense of stability and reassurance for the future”. One should be able to have a decent house, food, warmth and clothing. These basic needs can be met if the salary is adequate. If they are not met “there will be climate problems” at the educational institution (Mills 1987:40). Connacher (1989:7) confirms that higher order needs of autonomy and self-actualisation will not motivate teachers unless their lower needs are satisfied.

It is important to note that staff regard the satisfaction of these needs as ‘job givers’ and so these needs lack motivating power. Trying to motivate staff by addressing these low-order needs is unlikely to yield great success (Connacher, 1989:7). While staff would consider it fair and proper to receive a “good” salary and other benefits for adequate teaching, most are cognisant of the fact that fulfilling higher order needs is rightfully earned through excellence of performance (Connacher, 1989:7). So education managers who shape their management style on addressing the higher-order needs of educators (teachers/lecturers) will be tapping a potent motivational source. Satisfying basic needs is important, it must be emphasised, to the extent that it allows for higher order needs to predominate.

2.4.1.2.2 Security and safety needs

Nathan (1996:82), remarking on the security and safety needs category, asserts that job security is a worry for staff in educational institutions. Fluctuating enrolments threaten the security of staff. Arbitrary management actions, uncertainty-provoking behaviour regarding continued employment or behaviour which shows favouritism or discrimination and unpredictable administration policy

can threaten the security and safety needs of staff at every level (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1993:137; Belilos 1997:3; Evenson 1998:4).

Matlawe (1989:13) suggests some ways of meeting the security and safety needs of staff. He exhorts educational managers to communicate, at the outset, their wishes and expectations, for example using formulated policies and regulations. Matlawe (1989:13) argues that staff feel protected by regulations which are administered equitably. These enable them to predict their environment. In sum, Maslow's security and safety needs category is relevant to educational management.

2.4.1.2.3 Social/ Belongingness needs

Commenting on the social needs category, Mills (1987:39) says staff need someone to listen to their problems, solutions and concerns; someone to care about them as individuals. So the principal must have an open-door policy and sound communication skills. Nathan (1996:83) affirms that staff need to feel they are part of a corporate team. So the principal needs to foster a corporate spirit by generating a corporate philosophy that clearly articulates the values of the organisation. Such a philosophy can be captured in a mission statement such as: "X Teachers' College is committed to the production of professionally competent and morally upright primary school teachers for Zimbabwe." The philosophy needs to be understood, accepted and owned by staff if they are to be motivated. To this end, Nathan (1996:83) suggests ongoing planning dialogue involving the whole staff and regular restatement of the philosophy.

Still on the social needs category, utilising compatible teams and task groups affords staff the opportunity to participate in group activities. This can contribute to motivation because it also creates a feeling of belonging (Nathan 1996:83). Connacher (1989:8) advocates for a school system that fosters good

interpersonal feelings (where one can give and receive friendship and love) (see also Bellilos 1997:3). Some managers, however, wrongly take social needs to represent a threat to the organisation. Sergiovanni and Starratt 1988:137) assert that numerous studies reveal that the tightly knit, cohesive work group may, under conducive conditions, be more effective “than an equal number of separate individuals in achieving organisational goals”. Fearing group hostility to their own objectives, some managers do whatever they can to control and direct human efforts “in ways that are inimical to the natural ‘groupiness’ of human beings” (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1993:137). According to Sergiovanni and Starratt, if his social needs (and perhaps safety needs too) are thwarted, “man behaves in ways which tend to defeat organisational objectives” (becoming resistant, antagonistic or uncooperative).

2.4.1.2.4 Esteem needs

Elucidating the esteem needs, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:138) refer to two kinds of esteem needs, namely: (1) those relating to one’s self-esteem (needs for self-confidence, for independence, for achievement, for competence, for knowledge, and, (2) those relating to one’s reputation (needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, for deserved respect of one’s fellows). These writers claim that these needs are rarely satisfied: “...man seeks indefinitely for more satisfaction of these needs once they have become important to him.” This implies that educational managers can make use of their knowledge of esteem needs to devise a wide range of strategies to enhance the motivation of their staff.

Staff who view their work as meaningful and significant have a sense of pride and self-esteem. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:134), they have high standards and expectations which translate into enhanced motivation and commitment (see also Stroh 2001:59,62; Daniels 2000:53-54; Kushel 1994:69; Franken 1994:16; Denny 1993:12). So educational managers need to make work

meaningful and significant through job redesign, and staff should participate in the redesigning of the job(s). According to Bess (1982:24), evidence exists that confirms that motivation is enhanced by the provision of opportunities for people to display their competence “in work that has meaning and is related to institutional outcomes bearing on values important to society.”

Educational managers should also be mindful of the need for staff to be valued (a significant esteem need). This calls for recognition of good work done (Nathan, 1996:85; Belilos 1997:3). Where there is no positive feedback staff may be demotivated. Staff need work that is challenging enough to allow them to fully utilise their abilities (Stroh 2001:59; Smith, 1992:9; Matlawe, 1987:13). Management must ensure that resources are adequate for the work staff have to accomplish so that they (staff) can experience a sense of competence. Staff also need to experience self-growth and to get the opportunity to achieve (Matlawe, 1989:13). Engelking (1987:4) concurs and elaborates by saying staff need opportunities for achievement (success), opportunities for professional growth and advancement as a result of excellent teaching (see also Stroh 2001:59; Kushel 1994:69).

Engelking (1987:4) bemoans the scarcity of opportunities for teachers to move into positions requiring more skill and expertise since “administrative positions are usually the only upward route available to a teacher.” But educational managers can create opportunities for staff to participate in policy formulation and they may also exercise delegation (which is a way of teaching and facilitating self-growth as staff get more responsibility) (Matlawe, 1989:13; Engelking, 1987:4). Educational managers should always remember that staff need to feel trusted, to feel that they belong, to feel that the organisation needs their services, to feel that they have a degree of autonomy (Matlawe, 1989:13) and to demonstrate their competence (Bess, 1982:24).

Still on the esteem needs category, Nathan (1996:85-86) asserts that making staff feel valued involves feedback and reward, among other things. She argues that rewarding through pay and promotion makes one feel valued (“... it shows everyone that the recipient is regarded as worthy of reward and acts as a recognition of merit or effort”). But she cautions that pay and promotion are two-edged swords since choosing one person means rejecting many others. Also, pay is restricted by national scales. (But in Zimbabwe, for example, private schools and colleges have the capacity to give merit bonuses to outstanding staff.) Nathan (1996:87) further cautions that such rewards may motivate a few staff and encourage them to identify with the goals of the institution, but they are “equally likely to antagonise and cause dissension and disenchantment among the majority.”

Manser’s (2000:6) comment on the matter is quite revealing. He says, “It is not possible to pay teachers enough to care about others, their schools, the transformation process, educational development ...” The argument here is that although systems of reward and incentive schemes are effective in motivating teachers, “good education leaders will tap into people’s hearts and minds, not merely into their hands and wallets!” Manser (2000:6) argues that if staff regard teaching as solely a source of money and not a source of fulfilment, the important needs and values such as self-worth, pride, competence and service may be ignored. When this happens, the consequences could be disastrous. Knowing and being able to identify the esteem needs of staff will help educational managers to formulate effective motivational strategies for their staff.

Self-actualisation needs largely remain dormant. But this does not mean they must be neglected. Educational leaders need to identify people who have such needs and facilitate their realisation. Andrew et al (1985:20) comment that some people are motivated by participating in organisational governance because “it

provides autonomy and self-actualisation.” But there are others whose greater needs are for security. These may be reluctant to accept the responsibility that goes with participating in organisational governance. So educational managers need to carefully identify individuals’ needs in order to meaningfully and successfully motivate them.

The above discussion confirms that notwithstanding the criticism levelled against it, Maslow’s needs hierarchy theory has unmistakable relevancy to educational management.

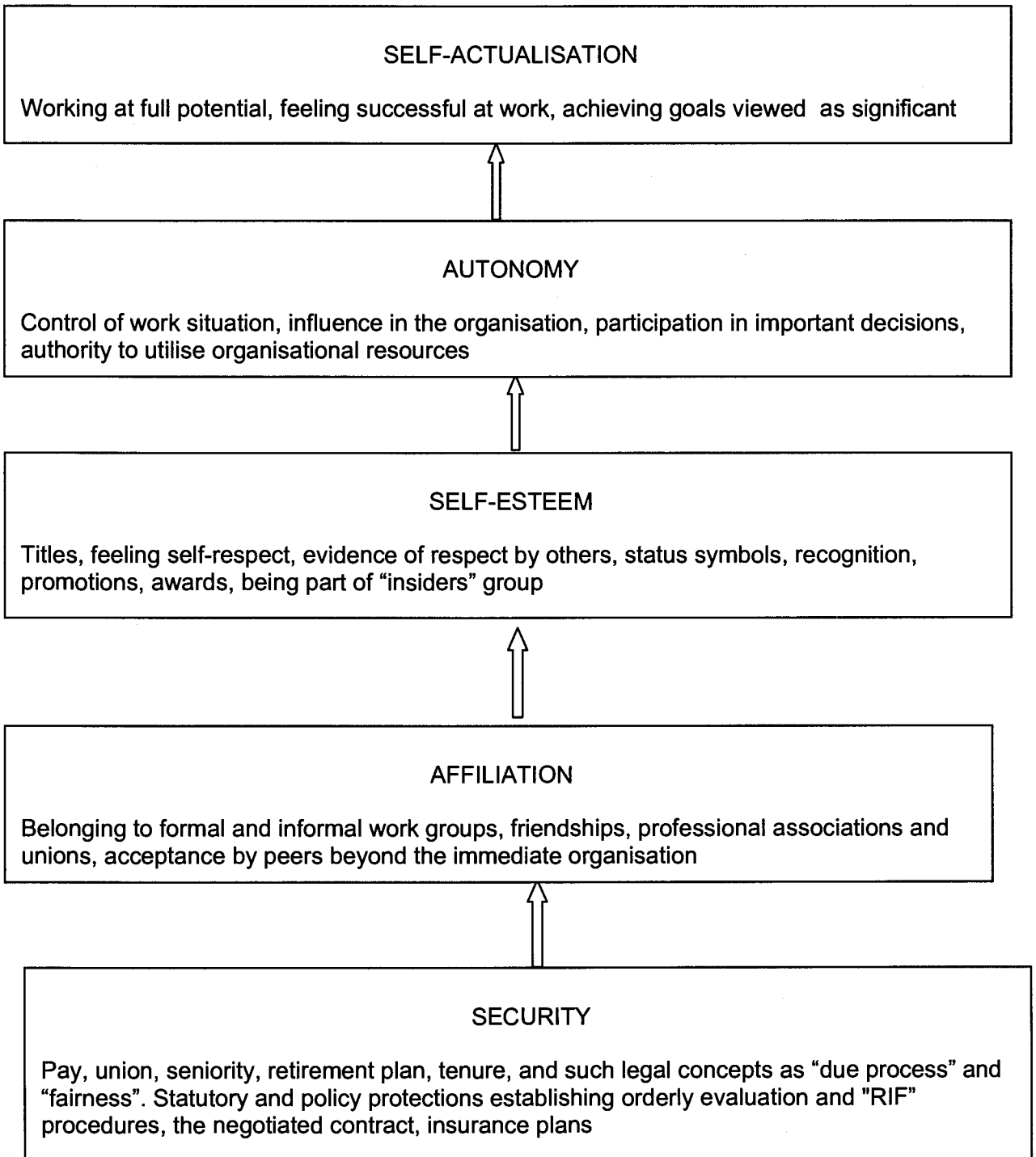
2.4.2 PORTER’S MODEL

Porter adapted Maslow’s concept of hierarchy of needs to create growth-enhancing environments in work organisations. He eliminated physiological needs from Maslow’s list. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:139) Porter, presumably, felt that in his society this category (physiological needs) lacks prepotency to motivate behaviour for most people. Porter added a category of needs labelled “autonomy”. This level refers to one’s need to take part in making decisions that affect one and also to exercise influence in controlling the work situation. It involves the need to participate in setting job-related goals, the need to be able to make decisions and to have the latitude to work independently.

2.4.2.1 *Relevancy of the model*

Porter’s model clearly has educational management implications. In the context of the model, (and particularly at the autonomy level) management should create opportunities for staff to participate in making decisions that affect them and also to have some influence and control over the work situation. Staff should also participate in the planning stage where job-related goals are set. They also need to be given the latitude to work independently and to have at their disposal organisational resources that would facilitate their work. Teachers, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:139) have formidable credentials with regards to

PORTER'S MODEL



Source: Owens (1995:51)

professional expertness which justify their demand for control over their work environment, “and, indeed, over their destiny”. Educational managers need to fully appreciate this in their effort to motivate their staff.

Apart from the relevancy of Porter’s model at the autonomy level, the model’s relevance at other levels coincide with the relevancy of Maslow’s theory at the security, affiliation, self-esteem and self-actualisation levels discussed under 2.3.1.2 above.

In short, Porter’s model has quite important implications for educational management as shown in the foregoing discussion.

2.4.3 HERZBERG’S MOTIVATION-HYGIENE THEORY

Herzberg’s theory is based on a study of some two hundred engineers and accountants in which they were asked to indicate periods when they were particularly satisfied or particularly dissatisfied with their work (Herzberg et al 1959:33). After analysing the data, categories and sub-categories were established (Herzberg et al, 1955:38).

According to Owens (1995:54), Herzberg’s theory claims that motivation is not a single dimension describable as a hierarchy of needs, but that it is composed of two separate independent factors, namely:

1. motivational factors (which can lead to job satisfaction);
2. maintenance factors (which must be sufficiently present in order for motivational factors to come into play, and, when not sufficiently present, can lead to job dissatisfaction).

2.4.3.1 Motivational factors

Respondents in Herzberg's research expressed feelings of satisfaction about their work and these were usually associated with the work itself (Herzberg et al, 1959:113). Feelings of dissatisfaction on the other hand were not related to the work itself but to circumstances in the work environment (Herzberg et al, 1959:113). Two sets of factors are thus distinguishable. The first set of factors relates to the actual execution of the work (the job content or the intrinsic aspect of the work which constitute "motivators" or "satisfiers"). The motivators include achievement, recognition, personal growth, responsibility, the work itself and advancement.

2.4.3.2 Maintenance factors

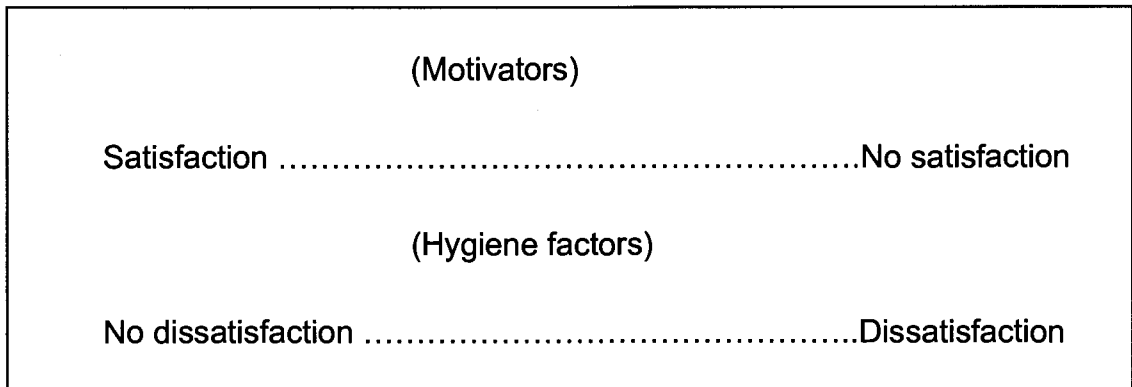
The second set of factors relates to the work environment. These include extrinsic or environmental factors at the workplace (Herzberg et al, 1959:113-114). Such factors are known as hygiene factors or dissatisfiers and include supervision, interpersonal relationships, physical working conditions, salary, status, policy and administration, fringe benefits and job security (Herzberg et al, 1959:113).

Certain factors (motivators) are satisfiers if present, but are not necessarily dissatisfiers if absent. Other factors (hygiene factors) are dissatisfiers but their elimination does not actually lead to positive motivation (Herzberg et al, 1959:114-117).

Herzberg drew the following conclusions from the theory (Everard and Morris, 1996:24):

What makes people happy at work is not simply the opposite of what makes them unhappy. People cannot be simply satisfied by the removal of the causes of dissatisfaction (for example, giving staff a higher housing subsidy). Thus the

opposite of 'unhappy' according to this theory is not 'happy' but rather 'not unhappy'. Hofmeyr (1992:22) elaborates by saying that dissatisfaction is not the opposite of satisfaction because the two exist on a separate continuum as illustrated below:



Removing extrinsic factors such as poor housing that contribute to dissatisfaction does not contribute to motivation, but only to reduced dissatisfaction or harmony because these extrinsic factors are maintenance factors and not motivators. If the hygiene factors are not right, the worker will not be motivated and the quality of his work will be depressed. These factors constitute the minimum acceptable standards under which people are prepared to work (Hofmeyr, 1992:22).

- A person occupying a satisfying job may have a higher tolerance of dissatisfiers but the dissatisfying factors such as poor supervision practices can be so strong that the job becomes intolerable. This could be the reason why some teachers leave the profession because of dissatisfaction about salaries (Steyn, 1996:9).
- Managers should regard the removal of the causes of dissatisfaction and the increasing of opportunities for satisfaction as matters of serious concern.

According to Robbins (1989:312), the lower-order needs of Maslow's hierarchy closely approximate the maintenance factors as outlined by Herzberg. Salary,

working conditions, job security, policy and administration, and supervision are generally physiological and safety-oriented needs. Intrinsic motivational factors of recognition, advancement, responsibility, growth, achievement and the work itself closely approximate the desire for esteem and self-actualisation.

2.4.3.3 *Criticism of Herzberg's theory*

The methodology used in Herzberg's research has been criticised as unreliable (Robbins, 1989:154; Lawler, 1985:98). Lawler (1985:98) declares: "... in the strictest sense, it is not a theory of motivation at all; rather it is a theory primarily concerned with explaining the determinants of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction."

Sanzotta (1977:49) argues that the theory is too simplistic to address the complexities of human motivation.

But, according to Hofmeyr (1992:23), a number of researchers have argued that a relationship between satisfaction and motivation does exist. The theory has contributed immensely to changes in the way management handles its employees. This is reflected in the provision of greater responsibility to workers in planning and controlling their work. The theory is also consistent with other research on what workers want from their work (Weaver, 1976:49). According to Owens (1995:58), Sergiovanni in the late 1960s, after replicating Herzberg's work among teachers, reports that the theory appears to be well supported.

Notwithstanding criticism levelled against it, Herzberg's theory has influenced management practices in no small measure.

2.4.3.4 *Relevancy of Herzberg's theory*

Herzberg has suggested three main ideas for those who would practise his theory (Owens, 1995:56):

1. Enrich the job (redesign the work so that it will tap the motivation potential in each individual. Make the job more interesting, more challenging and more rewarding);
2. Increase autonomy on the job (workers should increasingly participate in making decisions as to how the work should be done);
3. Expand personnel administration (so that focus is on increasing motivational factors present in the work).

Robbins (1989:312) argues that organisations apparently have traditionally emphasised lower-order needs. There is need for them to make the required changes to stimulate the motivational factors in the jobs themselves. In concurrence, Dunn and Dunn (1997:72) claim that the impact of increases in salary and benefits to staff lasts about two weeks after contract negotiations. Thereafter staff will focus on "the next level or contract demand". So educational managers need to focus on job satisfiers (as opposed to hygiene factors) in order to meaningfully motivate staff.

Dunn and Dunn (1997:72-73) propose a chart that suggests how job satisfiers can be applied to faculties of educational institutions. The chart is reproduced below:

MOTIVATORS (Long-range satisfiers)	SUGGESTED TECHNIQUES
1. Responsibility and personal achievement	Allow innovative approaches without direct supervisory control (but with accountability), for example non-sequential teaching, alternative program designs etc.
2. Responsibility and recognition	Increase each teacher's accountability for his or her own work through the use of self-evaluations and self-establishment of measurable objectives and other types of goals to be assessed by him or her at specific checkpoints during the year.
3. Responsibility, recognition and achievement	Give a teacher or team of teachers total responsibility for a group of students, a unit of work, interdisciplinary curriculum development or module design, etc. If achievement is evident, increase the amount of responsibility and broaden the areas in which teacher judgement is sufficient for the decision-making process. Give additional authority (with accountability) to teachers to make decisions on programs, courses, techniques or recommendations.
4. Internal recognition	Institute a system of periodic reporting concerning test results, student growth, parent satisfactions, outside praise, etc. and have these sent directly to the teacher rather than to the principal, department, chairman, or other supervisor.
5. Growth and learning	Introduce, suggest, or assign new and more difficult tasks such as individualising instruction, or designing studies for the gifted and/or learning disabled to be developed, implemented, and reported on by an individual teacher or group.
6. Responsibility, growth and advancement	Identify teachers with specific strengths and assign them as consultants, liaison persons, visitors to other projects or schools, or as interns, trainees, or assistants with responsibility to learn or to help others.

Educational managers should not confine their efforts to increasing the availability of long-range motivators, but they should simultaneously remove dissatisfiers such as poor policies, poor supervisory practices, poor salaries, and undesirable working conditions. Dunn and Dunn (1997:74) suggest that brainstorming with the faculty will reveal the most serious dissatisfiers quickly (dissatisfiers such as overcrowding, lack of space, lack of consistent rules for discipline, insufficient funds for supplies, no home base for roaming teachers, etc.).

Hygiene factors meet the human need to avoid unpleasantness and hardship while motivational factors serve the need for psychological growth (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988:144). When hygiene factors are met, employees are prepared to “do a fair day’s work”, but if they are neglected employees performance on the job decreases “to levels below the acceptable” (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988:144). It is in this context that Everard and Morris (1996:24) urge managers to ensure that causes of dissatisfaction are removed and opportunities for satisfaction increased. Instead of using rewards and threats, educational managers must use the real motivation which comes from a satisfying job.

Aspects of the employees’ jobs must be manipulated to increase the frequency of satisfying experiences for employees. This can be done, according to Dunn and Dunn’s chart above and others cited in this discussion, by providing more interesting and challenging tasks (Silver, 1983:314; Daniels 2000:53-54); by recognising staff’s accomplishments in handling complex tasks successfully (Silver, 1983:314; Everard and Morris, 1996:26; Hagemann 1992:57; Daniels 2000:101, 121; Capozzoli 1997:17; Hill 1998:15); by providing opportunities for advancement that are based on accomplishments (Silver, 1983:314; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1993:75; Connacher, 1989:9); by giving staff increased responsibility (Everard and Morris, 1996:26; Kushel 1994:69); by providing jobs with opportunities for experiencing achievement (Owens, 1995:56); by providing staff with learning opportunities and experience that may be useful in seeking

advancement (Everard and Morris, 1996:26); by involving staff in decision-making in matters that directly affect them in order to get commitment to goals (Everard and Morris, 1996:26; Robbins, 1995:305-306). Encouraging autonomy, self-determination, feelings of competence and control and feelings of efficacy is regarded by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993:75) as potent in the enhancement of intrinsic motivation.

Manipulating aspects of the employees' work increases the frequency of satisfying experiences for staff. Theoretically, suggests Silver (1983:314), this increased satisfaction will lead to greater effort.

It can be deduced from the above discussion that Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory has very serious educational management implications.

2.4.4 MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

It is important to bear in mind that the management philosophy of a manager is determined by his/her assumptions about the nature of people. McGregor's Two-factor Theory constitutes two distinct sets of assumptions about people.

Theory X is apparently based on the traditional view of direction and control as essential in the management of people at work. It reflects the following assumptions (More and Wegener, 1990:89; Connacher, 1989:6; Van Wyk and Van Der Linde, 1997:23-24):

- The average employee is inherently immature, innately lazy, irresponsible, gullible, resistant to change, self-centred and therefore, indifferent to the

needs of the organisation. He/she has little ambition. He/she so much dislikes work that he/she will do whatever is necessary to avoid it.

- Given that employees dislike work, in order to direct activities in the direction of accomplishing organisational objectives, most employees will have to be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment. Management here will apply autocratic or paternalistic external controls. Workers need a strong leader who makes decisions for them (and tells them what to do). They need highly specialised training and are readily replaced.

McGregor propounds that even though people are quite capable of immature behaviour, such behaviour and attitudes are not the product of their inborn natures but rather a result of their own experiences. If the educational manager treats them as children, they will respond as children. The myth that people are by nature indolent is given credence by managers who resort to external methods to maintain control (Connacher, 1989:7). When they become resentful of this approach, subordinates often respond in a manner that perpetuates the myth “and a vicious circle is set up” (Connacher, 1989:7).

Educational managers who subscribe to Theory X see the majority of people as possessing limited abilities while they view themselves as superior and possessing special abilities (More and Wegener, 1990:89). Such managers will devise procedures for supervising staff closely and providing rewards and punishment.

Theory Y is the antithesis of Theory X. Its assumptions include the following (More and Wegener, 1990:90; Van Wyk and Van Der Linde, 1997:22-23):

- The majority of workers respond as positively to work as they do to play and rest.
- People are self-motivated and committed to goals. Control and direction are not the only techniques that can be used to achieve goals. When truly committed to an objective, people will exercise self-control and self-direction.
- Commitment to organisational objectives is influenced by rewards associated with the attainment of objectives.
- Most adults prefer responsibility for their own work. Avoiding responsibility, limited drive and too much concern for security are, for the most part, consequences of experience, not fundamental characteristics of human nature.
- The ability to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity when trying to resolve organisational problems is a widely distributed talent among the population.
- People should have opportunities for growth so as to realise their intellectual potential.
- People are a valuable resource and can participate in decision-making (need for participative leadership).

It is important to point out that neither approach (Theory X nor Theory Y) is optimal – which approach to use depends on the particular situation. Managers usually borrow from both approaches to meet the requirements of specific situations.

2.4.4.1 Relevancy of McGregor's Two-factor Theory

Educational managers who use the concepts of Theory Y will regard each employee as a real asset (More and Wegener, 1990:91). They view staff as having a capacity for growth and development. They consider staff to be creative and disposed to accepting responsibility, and not as stupid, irresponsible or hostile. It is therefore the job of the educational manager to create a working environment where the real potential of every member of staff can be tapped.

Van Zyl (1989:11) argues that if the needs of workers are taken into account by management, workers will be prepared to voluntarily integrate their objectives with those of the organisation. Beard (1988:50) adds that people will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed (see also Stroh, 2001:65). He further declares: "The most significant reward that can be offered in order to obtain commitment is the satisfaction of the individual's self-actualising of effort directed towards organisational objectives." In the context of Theory Y, Van Zyl (1989:11) further asserts that subordinates enjoy work of a challenging nature and strive for self-actualisation within the work situation (see also Daniels, 2000:53-54; Kushel, 1994:69). They will prosper from lenient and democratic management style (Robbins, 1989:29-30; Stroh, 2001:71; McIlroy, 1997:44). A facilitative approach that encourages and supports members in their efforts to grow and develop their ways of perceiving the environment they operate in, their personal goals, feelings and beliefs is useful to the enhancement of employee's motivation (Owens, 1995:60).

Educational managers have a responsibility to organise the elements of an educational institution (money, materials, equipment and people) in the interest of educational needs (Connacher, 1989:7). Connacher (1989:7-8) exhorts educational managers to be mindful of the fact that the motivation, the capacity to

assume responsibility and commitment towards organisational goals are present in all people. People may only become passive or resistant to the organisational needs of an educational institution as a result of their experiences. So the education manager has the essential task to arrange and organise methods of operation so that staff can reach their own goals to best effect, "by directing their efforts towards general school objectives" (Connacher, 1989:8). The educational manager must have the ability to delegate trust appropriately. Connacher (1989:8) comments that if a principal fails to extend trust to his staff adequately, apathy, resentment and conditions typical of Theory X are likely to prevail. At the same time leaders must be careful not to give subordinates too much responsibility prematurely for this will be destructive. Teachers can be given more opportunities for self-direction and self-control as they grow and develop (Steyn, 1996:11).

Theory X, on the other hand, rests on a theory of motivation which is inadequate for most adults, "professional adults in particular..." (Connacher, 1989:7). It is a pessimistic theory of control and direction. It holds that people must be persuaded, punished, controlled and their activities directed. Owens (1995:60) argues that short-term behavioural changes can be achieved by highly controlling strategies such as threats of serious punishment, promises of meaningful rewards, etc. but these should not be confused with motivation. These coercive strategies can be useful when immediate action is required in crisis situations (for example teacher's horrible performance), but staff still will have to be responsive to motivational needs of a higher order than survival (Owens, 1995:60). Owens (1995:61) goes on to say if made to feel coerced, intimidated, and manipulated, people tend to lose interest and indeed to develop "motivational goals and strategies of their own that resist those of the organisation."

So management needs to be particularly careful when employing the assumptions of Theory X.

The discussion above has attempted to illustrate the relevancy of McGregor's two-factor theory to educational management. The Positive Reinforcement Theory will be reviewed next.

2.4.5 THE POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT THEORY

The positive reinforcement theory is based on Thorndike's principle known as the law of effect which advocates that activities which meet with pleasurable consequences have a likelihood to be repeated while those activities which meet with unpleasurable consequences tend not to be repeated (Steyn, 1996:11). Mosley et al (1993:242) and Rue and Byars (1992:365) affirm that this theory explains one of the best ways of influencing and modifying staff behaviour in a favourable direction.

Skinner distinguishes between reinforcement (the presentation of an attractive reward following a response or the removal of an unpleasant or negative condition following a response) and punishment, which is the reverse of reinforcement. In a school situation, it can be assumed that staff's desires for the rewards of positive feedback and recognition will in no small measure motivate them to perform satisfactorily in anticipation of such rewards.

Examples of positive reinforcement include merit pay for good performance, praise and recognition when a staff member does a good job (Rue and Byars, 1992:365).

According to Mosley et al (1993:243) many educational managers subscribe to the view that the only way to get through to their staff is by means of salaries. They overlook a free and very effective means of getting employees' attention – praise. Most people thrive on attention (Steyn, 1996:11).

People behave the way they do because they desire praise or recognition that confirms that they are doing the right thing the right way (Mosley et al 1993:243). If the consequences of one's actions are positive, one is likely to repeat these actions.

2.4.5.1 Relevancy of Thorndike's Positive Reinforcement Theory

The relevancy of the positive reinforcement theory is self-evident in the review of the theory in 2.3.5 above.

In a nutshell, educational managers should not only use material rewards like merit pay for good performance. They may also make the consequences of staff members' activities pleasurable by providing positive feedback and recognition for a job well done. Praising and recognising a person for accomplishing tasks confirms that the person is doing the right thing well. This has great motivational effect since the person will perform satisfactorily in anticipation of the said rewards (Daniels, 2000:101, 102; Capozzoli, 1997:17; Hill, 1998:15).

Educational managers who use the positive reinforcement theory judiciously will be able to enhance the motivation of their subordinates.

In the next section (2.3.6) McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory will be reviewed.

2.4.6 MCCLELLAND'S MANIFEST NEEDS THEORY

The manifest needs theory holds that needs are not hierarchically arranged (as Maslow suggests) but can become manifest at any time and simultaneously (Hofmeyr, 1992:18). So one may simultaneously be motivated by, for example, a higher need for affiliation and power and low needs for autonomy and achievement.

The theory covers, among others, four needs which most directly relate to the work situation. These are reviewed below.

Need for achievement

Achievement-oriented people have certain characteristics that can be developed (Van Zyl, 1989:16). They delight in personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, perform best when faced by a challenge, have a strong need for feedback concerning how well they are doing, have a preoccupation with task and task accomplishment, like to set own challenging goals and take risks (Hofmeyr, 1992:19). Everard and Morris (1996:28) elaborate on the characteristics by noting that achievers are quite selective about which goals they commit themselves to and are unlikely to easily accept goals other people (like their bosses) select for them. If they attain their goals they want the credit, if they fail they accept the blame. Everard and Morris (1996:28) also note that achievers are comfortable with moderate goals which are not easy to the extent that attaining them would provide no satisfaction or which are so difficult that achieving them "would be more a matter of luck than ability." In other words, they look for the hardest practical challenge. For as much as they want to win, they do not wittingly commit themselves to a goal that is probably too difficult to achieve.

Beach (1980:303) confirms that achievement-oriented people tend to translate their thinking into action, are not day-dreamers, place great demands on themselves, are persistent realists and are hopeful about the likelihood of success.

The significance of achievement need to organisational effectiveness lies in the fact that a mismatch between an individual's level of achievement need and his/her role in the organisation is likely to cause problems. Hofmeyr (1992:19) suggests that if a person with a high need for achievement is put in a position requiring little responsibility or challenge he may become frustrated and demotivated. On the other hand, low need for achievement employees may find responsibility and challenging tasks frustrating and demotivating.

Need for affiliation

Birch and Veroff (1966:65) describe the need for affiliation as "attraction to another organism in order to feel reassured from the other that the self is acceptable." It refers to people being motivated by reassurance from others in the work situation. While a person with a high need for achievement is motivated by task-related feedback, a person with a high need for affiliation will be better motivated by supportive feedback (Hofmeyr, 1992:19). So people with a high need for affiliation tend to be best motivated by a co-operative, supportive work environment. Steers and Porter (1983:58) suggest that teachers typically are high in need for affiliation.

Need for autonomy

People with high need for autonomy are optimally motivated by situations where they are given a high degree of, if not total, freedom. In the words of Hofmeyr

(1992:20), "Being able to work alone and make their own decisions free of excessive rules and procedures and at their own pace is motivating for high need for autonomy individuals."

The effects of a high need for autonomy on employee performance are significant (as will be shown in 2.4.6.1 below). An interesting observation is that high need for achievement individuals are typically not found amongst managers because managers need to successfully interact with others, conform to 'company' rules culture, co-operate and be supportive of others – characteristics atypical of high need for autonomy employees (Hofmeyr 1992:20).

Need for power

This need for dominance represents one's need to control others and the environment. It has a strong social connotation, unlike the need for autonomy. Litwin and Stringer (1968:18) say people with high need for power are often identifiable as talkative, sometimes argumentative, seeking positions of leadership in group activities and trying to influence others to their point of view. Hofmeyr (1992:20) points out that Steers and Braunstein's 1976 research established that individuals with a high need for power are likely to be superior performers, are found in supervisory positions and are often rated by others as having good leadership potential.

Need for power takes two forms, namely personal power and institutional power. The former embraces a desire for dominance for the sake of dominance and even the rejection of institutional responsibilities in the search for this dominance. Institutional power involves concern for the problems of the organisation, a strong

sense of justice and equity and self-interest for the welfare of the organisation (Hofmeyr, 1992:21).

In educational institutions managers who pursue personal power may antagonise staff to the extent where their motivation will be adversely affected while institutional power managers will positively motivate staff by their concern for the problems facing the organisation, their sense of justice and equity, among other things.

2.4.6.1 *Relevancy of McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory*

According to Sergiovanni and Starrat (1988:142), staff with a strong need for achievement can contribute a lot to school effectiveness for a number of reasons, some of which are as follows: they take personal responsibility for resolving problems, they set challenging but realistic goals which they pursue relentlessly, they translate their thinking into action (they are not daydreamers), they thrive on feedback and anticipate future possibilities, they demand a great deal from the institution and seek opportunities to achieve. It is important for educational managers to carefully match an individual's level of need for achievement and his/her role in the organisation. It is in this context that Hofmeyr (1992:19) remarks that if one with a high need for achievement is placed in a position that requires little responsibility or challenge, one may become frustrated and demotivated. On the other hand, giving employees with a low need for achievement responsibility and challenging tasks may frustrate and demotivate them.

It is noteworthy that if achievement needs cannot be fulfilled in the educational institution (school/college), one may seek expression "organisationally in a

'negative' fashion", extra-organisationally in staff associations and unions, in non-educational organisations and institutions (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1988:142). According to the same writers, although staff with a strong need for achievement can often be troublesome for many administrators and supervisors, they can contribute fully and in a spirit of excellence to the institution (school/college).

Educational managers also need to know that a person with a high need for affiliation will be better motivated by supportive feedback and also by a co-operative, supportive work environment.

Regarding the need for autonomy, personnel with a high need for autonomy should be given the latitude to work alone and make their own decisions unencumbered with excessive rules and procedures. They should also, as far as possible, be allowed to work at their own pace. All this is motivating for high need for autonomy individuals (Hofmeyr, 1992:20). Such people can be highly creative (to the benefit of the institution).

In the context of the need for power, educational managers should strive to subordinate (and encourage their high-need-for-power subordinates to do the same) personal power, which can adversely affect the motivation of staff, to institutional power, which can positively affect staff motivation (as stated earlier in 2.4.6).

As illustrated in the discussion above, McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory has indisputable relevancy to educational management.

2.4.7 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY (VALENCE) THEORY

Silver (1983:322-326) describes the theory quite succinctly. According to the expectancy theory, motivation can be conceptualised as the combination of two major elements: one's expectancy that an action will have a particular outcome; and the instrumentality of that outcome in relation to other valued outcomes (Silver, 1983:322).

Silver (1983:322) elaborates that in the context of the expectancy theory, the motivation to do an activity is a combination of one's expectation that the action will result in a particular outcome and the perceived utility of that outcome in relation to other outcomes. Motivation has a degree of intensity and directionality. Motivational force is directed toward attractive objectives or outcomes and/or away from repellent outcomes. The degree of attractiveness or repulsiveness of the outcomes of action determines the intensity of the motivational force: very attractive outcomes generate greater force than do mildly attractive outcomes, and very repellent outcomes generate greater force than do mildly unpleasant outcomes.

Two factors influence both the direction and the intensity of a person's motivation (Silver, 1983:323), namely: one's perceptions of one's own capabilities for action and one's perceptions of the extent to which the results of actions yield rewards (attractive outcomes) and/or penalties (unpleasant outcomes).

Silver (1983:323) comments that in this theory people are regarded as basically hedonistic. They seek to maximise pleasure and minimise displeasure or pain. Thus their actions are meant to generate outcomes that will yield maximum pleasure and/or minimum pain. The theory represents people as subjectively

rational in that their rationality is based on subjective appraisals of their own capabilities and of the rewards and penalties associated with the results of actions.

In sum, the expectancy theory posits that motivation is a force within a person. The force varies in accordance with two factors, namely *expectancy* and *instrumentality*. Expectancy is a perceived relationship between action and its direct outcomes. Instrumentality is a perceived relationship between direct outcomes and indirect outcomes of action. It is “the expected utility or usefulness of a direct outcome for the attainment or avoidance of other outcomes” (Silver, 1983:325). Both expectancy and instrumentality are influenced by the *valences* (attractiveness/repulsiveness) of outcomes (“the objects toward or away from which people direct their actions”) (Silver, 1983:323). It is noteworthy that individuals differ in their orientation toward any one object or outcome.

2.4.7.1 *Criticism of Vroom’s Expectancy Theory*

According to Van Zyl (1989:17), some researchers who have tested the theory have found some difficulty with its application. Yet, Van Zyl (1989:17) elaborates, “the most consistent finding supports that there is a cause-effect relationship between expectancy, performance, and extrinsic rewards such as pay or advancement (Filley, House and Kerr, 1976:200)”. So, in short, its validity cannot be denied.

2.4.7.2 *Relevancy of Vroom’s Expectancy Theory*

Reading the theory, it is clear that educational managers need to realise that staff work well only when they expect their efforts to produce good outcomes. In the context of this realisation, Bush and West-Burnham (1990:235) suggest that

managers should seek to give appropriate rewards for individual performance; attempt to establish a clear relationship between effort-performance and rewards as seen by the individual; establish clear procedures for evaluating levels of performance; take cognisance of intervening variables like abilities, traits, organisational procedures and support facilities which may affect performance.

It is indeed clear that personal goals for individuals vary. So rewards that appeal to some teachers may not appeal others. Greater consistency between personal and school/college goals can be built by individualising rewards to match personal goals that are consistent with those of the school/college (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988:151).

Nadler and Lawler who further developed the expectancy approach by providing three key concepts as key building blocks of the theory (namely, performance-outcome expectancy where one expects that if one behaves in a certain way one will get certain things; valence, which is the value, worth, attractiveness of the outcome; and effort-performance expectancy, which represents the individual's perception of how hard it will be to achieve a certain outcome) suggest what educational managers could do to effectively motivate staff (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988:151):

- Establish what outcomes (personal goals) each teacher values. (For some it could be responsibility, for others it may not be responsibility.)
- Determine the kind of outcomes you desire which will provide the basis for determining the direction of motivational efforts.
- Ensure that desired outcomes and desired ways of behaving for staff are within their reach. Objectives must be realistic in the context of ability and

disposition levels of staff. If staff perceive performance as requiring too much perceived effort or as unlikely to be within reach they will not be motivated.

- Design jobs which enable staff to get their needs fulfilled in order to realise high levels of motivation.

The expectancy theory recognises that staff have different abilities, needs and aspirations. So educational managers must take a more individualised perspective in motivating staff. They need to develop flexible strategies that permit choices (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988:152). Andrew et al (1985:16) advise that it is not enough for one to be willing to do something – one must also be capable of doing it. So managers should seriously assess the skills and resources available to staff. Where there is need, staff should be trained so that they acquire the necessary skills to achieve the goals they are expected to achieve.

Silver (1983:329) advises that since educational managers have a degree of control over the rewards and penalties available to employees, they can allocate praise, recognition, some privileges, and opportunities for growth (all rewards) as well as criticism, disapproval and tedious tasks (all penalties). Managers can influence staff members' expectancies and their perceived instrumentalities, and thus motivate them to achieve desired outcomes/goals.

Silver (1983:329-330) further makes the following interesting suggestions for educational managers, be they principals or Heads of Departments (to help staff with low expectancies regarding their capacity to teach well):

- Good performance on the part of staff who have low expectancies regarding their capacity to teach well must be explicitly recognised at frequent intervals.
- Some of the achievable teaching behaviours that constitute excellence in teaching must be specified (to staff) in unambiguous terms.
- Staff development/training could be used so that the concerned staff begin to perceive that they have the requisite skills.
- Do not mystify the idea of excellence but “articulate a reasonable structure for the tasks of teaching”.

It is hoped that the staff referred to above will eventually realise that the behaviours making up excellent teaching “are within their repertoire of behaviours,” in other words, “they will perceive a greater probability of success through effort: their expectancies will be raised” (Silver, 1983:329).

Where some staff perceive that excellence of teaching is not instrumental for achieving desired outcomes or delimiting unpleasurable outcomes, the principal or departmental head may follow Silver’s (1983:330) advice reviewed below:

- Rewards and penalties should be consistently allocated on the basis of quality teaching performance.
- There is need to be aware of the wide range of rewards and penalties potentially available in a school/college.
- Establish, realistically, what outcomes each undermotivated teacher would consider attractive or unattractive and allocate them accordingly while keeping them contingent upon quality of teaching (see also Lisoski, 1999:79; Milas, 1995:140).

It is hoped that if the above advice is followed staff will perceive a greater correlation between quality of teaching and attractiveness of outcomes: “the subjective instrumentality of excellent teaching will be increased” (Silver, 1983:330). Educational managers can indeed eventually influence the expectancy and instrumentality assessments staff make by systematically boosting their (staff) self-confidence and making attractive and unattractive outcomes contingent upon performance quality (Silver, 1983:330).

The review of Vroom’s theory and literature testifying to its efficacy convinces one to affirm that the theory has significant educational management implications. The Equity Theory will be reviewed next.

2.4.8 THE EQUITY THEORY

Adams (1965) conducted the original research, which yielded the equity theory, which is also known as the exchange theory. In the context of this theory, to retain employees or to keep them happy in an organisation, they must be able to perceive that the compensation offered is fair and equitable, in other words, they must feel that they are being treated in a fair and equitable manner (Milas, 1995:140; Lisoski, 1999:7, 9). Homan’s (1961) exchange theory as cited in Flippo (1984:285) predicts grater feelings of equity between people whose exchanges are in equilibrium. Upon receiving compensation from the employer, an employee’s perceptions of equity are affected by two factors, according to Flippo (1984:285-286):

- the ratio of compensation to one’s inputs of effort, education, training, endurance of adverse working conditions, experience, and so on, and

- the comparison of this ratio with the perceived ratio of significant other people with whom direct contact is made or with those employees in comparable or similar jobs.

The belief, based on comparison, that an inequity exists in the form of either underpayment or overpayment will have possible adverse motivational and behavioural effects on performance (Van Zyl, 1989:18). Flipppo (1984:286) affirms: "Equity usually exists when a person perceives that the ratio of outcomes to inputs is in equilibrium, both internally with respect to self and in relation to others".

It is important to note that the key factor in the equity theory is whether an inequity is perceived and not whether it actually exists (Van Zyl, 1989:19). It is also important to point out, as Robbins (1989:166) does, that the extent to which inequity is experienced is not the same for all, but is likely to be higher in more morally mature employees.

On feeling that inequity exists, one is motivated to reduce it and this may result in a number of different behaviours depending on the individual (Bush and West-Burnham, 1994:235; Hofmeyr, 1992:26):

- acting in a manner that shows demotivation based on a sense of managerial unfairness, or motivation based on the desire to reduce the tension created by inequity.
- Leaving the situation (asking for a transfer or quitting);
- Taking actions to alter the inputs or outcomes (either actual or perceived) of others, for example, by discouraging colleagues from working hard because it is not worth it;

- Substituting a worse off person for the person one is comparing with.

2.4.8.1 *Relevancy of the Equity Theory*

A study of the theory reveals some important implications it has for educational management. Some of the implications are discussed as follows.

Educational managers should endeavour to remove adverse working conditions which may create perceptions of inequity when staff measure such conditions against the compensation they receive from the employer. Educational managers should also ensure that salary increments and advancement are effected timeously for those eligible on account of experience and effort/performance so that inequity between inputs and compensation does not arise. It would be an untenable situation when the manager at College A delays in processing salary increment and salary adjustment forms for his/her staff while the manager at College B does so expeditiously and his/her staff enjoy new salary levels not yet enjoyed by their colleagues at College A. Obviously staff at College A will perceive inequity which is likely to demotivate them. The same inequity could be experienced if the principal processes one lecturer's forms timeously and delays doing so for another lecturer (a situation that once occurred at my college). Managerial unfairness must not exist or be perceived by staff.

Staff who perceive inequity in their work situation tend to negatively influence others, so management should endeavour to ensure such situations do not arise

Given some of the implications of the equity theory discussed above, it is clear that the theory is useful to educational managers.

2.5 SUMMARY ON THE REVIEWED MOTIVATION THEORIES

The motivation theories reviewed in this chapter can be categorised as follows: need theories, cognitive theories, and reinforcement theories.

Although they do not ignore job-related variables, the need theories such as those of Maslow and McClelland can be seen as basically individual theories which focus primarily on the nature of individual needs and how these impact on motivation. The theories take cognisance, though, of the fact that job-related variables have a role in influencing how individual needs may be fulfilled or frustrated by the organisational context.

Cognitive theories such as Vroom's expectancy theory and Adam's equity theory give accent to the interactive relationship between individual perceptions and the organisational environment – they evaluate how individuals actively perceive the way in which their own expectations and goals are realised or frustrated by system-wide practices.

Reinforcement theories such as the positive reinforcement theory based on Thorndike's Law of Effect focus mainly on the organisational context since (in their context) it is the environment itself which creates motivation. Practices such as supervision, feedback, climate and reward patterns are regarded as the determinants of motivation by a behavioural approach to motivation.

Although the theories differ in their approaches *vis a vis* their attempt to explain motivation, they are neither mutually exclusive nor essentially contradictory. Using

them simultaneously can enrich our understanding of particular motivational issues and contexts.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed literature related to work motivation. This was done in order to clarify the concept 'motivation', guide the development of the interview schedule/questionnaire, and provide a theoretical framework in terms of which the research findings can be analysed.

In terms of the threefold purpose of the literature review indicated above, the concept motivation was defined using various sources, literature on motivation as a managerial task was reviewed, and dominant theories of motivation and the implications they have for educational management were reviewed.

Having reviewed the literature on work motivation, the research design will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is on the research design selected for this research project. The research design, data collection methods and data processing and analysis techniques are described. The question of validity and reliability (trustworthiness) as well as ethical considerations of the research inquiry will be briefly dealt with.

The qualitative approach was chosen for this research. One cannot observe but can only infer motivation. Similarly, one cannot observe factors affecting motivation. Seeing someone working overtime, for example, is not necessarily evidence of motivation. It is this realisation that has contributed to the decision to use a qualitative approach where staff members will be interviewed on what they themselves consider to be factors affecting their own motivation at their college. The realisation that motives are dynamic and that behaviour is not often motivated by a simple need, desire or expectation has also contributed to the decision to utilise the qualitative approach. Since individuals respond differently to the gratification of needs and the influence of contextual factors affecting motivation, the qualitative approach has the advantage that it allows the analysis of personal responses to motivational factors and their impact (Hofmeyr, 1992:10).

3.2 DEFINITION OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Yin (1994:20) regards research design as a 'blue print' of research which deals with what questions to study, what data to collect and how the results are

analysed. Mouton (1996:107), apparently in corroborating Yin's definition, sees research design as a set of guidelines and instructions one has to follow when addressing the research problem. This involves the aim of the research, the selection and design of a particular method and participants and considerations of trustworthiness. In other words, one can look at research design as the most effective strategy for obtaining information.

As Bogdan and Biklen (1992:59) note, in qualitative inquiry design decisions are made throughout the study. Ary et al (1996:479) confirm this when they affirm that qualitative researchers usually do not fully specify all aspects of a design before beginning a study – “the design emerges as the study unfolds.” Methods and the way of proceeding are adjusted to the subject matter at hand. In Borg and Gall's (1989:386) words, this allows adapting the design “to include variables that were not anticipated prior to the start of observation.”

The researcher becomes the research instrument in qualitative design. Borg and Gall (1989:385) argue that no non-human instrument is sufficiently flexible to adapt to the complex situation as it evolves and to identify and take into account biases that result from the interactions and value differences between the “instrument” and the subject. It is in this context that the researcher has to have the ability to observe behaviour and needs to sharpen the skills necessary for observation and face-to-face interview (Ary et al, 1996:478).

3.3 THE QUALITATIVE APPROACH

Qualitative research can be viewed as a collection of approaches to inquiry, “all of which rely on verbal, visual, auditory and olfactory data” (Ramphela, 2000:41). The main goal of qualitative research is to understand the problem from the research participants' perspective as they experience the problem as it is related to their reality (the college and education) “and as they view the problem and ascribe meaning to their life world” (Hoberg, 1999:76). Ary et al (1996:476) concur

by saying qualitative inquiry seeks to understand human and social behaviour from the “insider’s” perspective, that is, “as it is lived by participants in a particular social setting (for example a culture, school, community, group or institution).”

In qualitative research multi-method strategies are used to gather data. These strategies can be interactive (observation, interviews) or non-interactive (the use of documents) (Hoberg, 1999:76). In this research, interactive strategies were mainly used because they allow one to systematically observe, interview and record processes as they occur naturally.

3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aim of this research was to establish what role educational managers can play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution in order to improve student performance. To this end the following strategies were employed:

3.4.1 Literature Review

The literature review in a research report has several purposes, namely (Cresswell, 1998:20):

- enabling the researcher to access the results of other studies that are closely related to the particular study that is being undertaken;
- relating the inquiry (study) to the larger study that has been undertaken on the topic and endeavouring to fill in gaps and extend other prior studies (such as Hofmeyr’s – 1992);
- providing the framework within which the importance of the study is established and further serving as a benchmark for comparing the results of the study with findings from other studies.

Additionally, literature review helps one to identify methodological techniques which have previously been used to research similar phenomena as well as identify contradictory findings (McMillan, 1992:44). It therefore allows one to develop a theoretical or analytical framework that can serve as a basis for the analysis and interpretation of the data that is collected during the research project.

In this research, the literature review was also used to provide an understanding of the concept of motivation, inform the development of the interview schedule, and to provide a theoretical framework in terms of which the research findings could be analysed.

3.4.2 Personal journal

Qualitative researchers usually keep a personal or reflexive log or journal where they record accounts of their thoughts, feelings, assumptions, motives, and rationale for decisions made. According to Ary et al (1996:479), this is “one way the qualitative inquirer addresses the issue of the inquiry being value-bound.” This researcher has compiled such a journal to help him understand the subjects' attitudes, feelings, comments and behaviour in staff meetings, in the staff common room during tea breaks, at the tuckshop, etc. Some informal/unstructured interviews have been provoked by the observations made this way (see Annexure C).

3.4.3 Field notes

Field note-taking is valuable because it allows the researcher to note down things that cannot be recorded by the tape recorder (for example, the interviewee's anxiety). The qualitative researcher's field notes contain what has been seen and heard by the researcher without interpretation (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:73).

Field notes are usually filled with descriptions of people, places, events, activities and conversations. They contain ideas, reflections, hunches, feelings, impressions and notes about patterns that seem to be emerging. They also enable the researcher to explore his/her own biases and clarify earlier interpretations. In situations where one cannot write notes as events occur, one must write the notes soon afterwards, preferably the same day when the memory is still fresh. The notes need to be descriptive and vague adjectives like 'many', 'some' or words that convey an evaluative impression, obscuring rather than clarifying reality (words like 'wonderful', 'mundane', 'interesting', 'doing nothing', 'nice', 'good') have to be avoided (Hoberg, 1999:112).

The researcher needs to focus on words frequently used in or unique to the setting. According to Hoberg (1999:112) such terms help in wording interview questions and usually become participant-generated analytic categories in the final write-up.

In this research field notes were used in the context of the remarks made above (see Annexure C, pp. 160-2).

3.4.4 Observation

Observation entails "the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours and artefacts (objects) in the social setting chosen for study" (Marshall and Rossman, 1999:107). The observational record comprising detailed, non-judgemental, concrete descriptions of what has been observed, is referred to as field-notes. The researcher used naturalistic observation and participant observation in this research. Observation embraces muted cues, facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice and other unverballed social interactions "which suggest the subtle meanings of language" (Hoberg, 1999:103). Hoberg goes on to say participant stories, anecdotes and myths (like those which occur in the teachers' lounge or among student groups in hallways) are indicative of the

content of the participants' world and how they construct the different realities of their lives.

3.4.4.1 Naturalistic Observation

With naturalistic observation the observer simply observes and records events as they naturally occur. Those being observed will be unaware of the observation, thus their behaviour does not change on account of the researcher's presence (Ary et al, 1996:483).

Soon after deciding to research on work motivation, and prior to requesting some staff members at the college under investigation to participate in the research, this researcher engaged in naturalistic observation where he recorded what he saw and heard from his colleagues at college without them being aware of what the researcher was doing. This allowed the researcher to conceive some of the questions used in this research.

3.4.4.2 Participant Observation

In participant observation one studies a group by becoming a part of the group, "observing, interviewing, and actually participating in their activities (Ary et al, 1996:482). Participant observation enables the researcher to obtain people's perceptions of reality expressed in their action and expressed as feelings, thoughts and beliefs. According to Hoberg (1999:103) people's perceptions are "really constructs of their world, or even constructed realities." It is thus important to note linguistic patterns and variations of individuals observed because "language conveys these social constructions" (Hoberg, 1999:103). Participant observation in this research was used in the context of the considerations outlined in this paragraph.

3.4.4.2.1 Participant Observation and Ethical Considerations

One's status as researcher may be revealed to or concealed from the group being studied. Concealing one's status raises ethical concerns since one will be "using" other people without their consent (Borg and Gall, 1989:391). In this research the researcher revealed his researcher status to the group being studied when his research proposal had been approved.

3.4.5 Interviewing

An interview is described by Morgan (1988) in Bogdan and Biklen(1992:96) as a purposeful conversation, usually between two people but sometimes involving more, that is directed by one in order to get information from the other. Maykut and Morehouse (1994:80) elaborate by saying an interview is a form of discourse and the discourse is shaped and organised by the asking and answering of questions, thereby allowing the interviewer and interviewee to talk about the focus of the study and it also leads to discussion of thoughts and perceptions.

According to Bogdan and Biklen(1992:96) in qualitative research the interview is used in two ways: (i) as the dominant strategy for data collection (ii) in conjunction with participant observation, document analysis, or other techniques. In all these situations the interview is used "to gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:96). In this research the interview was used both as the dominant strategy for data collection and in conjunction with observation.

Qualitative interviews vary in the degree to which they are structured (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:97). Although relatively open-ended, some interviews focus

around particular topics or are guided by some general questions. Where an interview guide is used, qualitative interviews offer the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of topics and offer the subject the opportunity to shape the content of the interview. Bogdan and Biklen(1992:97) declares that when the interviewer controls the content so rigidly that the interviewee cannot tell his/her story personally in his/her own words, “the interview falls out of the qualitative range.” All this was taken account of in this research.

In keeping with Bogdan and Biklen’s (1992:97) thinking, different types of interviews were employed at different stages of this study, namely the informal unstructured interview before the literature review, the formal semi-structured interview after the literature review and when interviewees were asked to confirm or disconfirm their transcribed responses.

3.4.5.1 The unstructured interview

The unstructured interview best fits the qualitative paradigm (Borg and Gall, 1989:397). It has great flexibility and freedom. The researcher will be trying to gain understanding, in considerable detail, on how people such as lecturers and students think and how they come to develop the perspectives they hold. Open-ended questions are used. Borg and Gall (1989:453) state that the interviewer does not employ a detailed interview guide, “but has a general plan and usually asks questions or makes comments intended to lead the respondent toward giving data to meet the interviewer’s objectives.”

In this research the unstructured interview was used at the beginning of the research in an effort to establish the subjects’ own perspectives and perceptions regarding their workplace (college) in relation to their general level of motivation and factors that enhanced or depressed their motivation and how educational managers motivated staff (see Annexure C).

3.4.5.2 The semi-structured interview

The semi-structured interview has the advantage of being reasonably objective “while still permitting a more thorough understanding of the respondents’ opinions and the reasons behind them than would be possible using the mailed questionnaire” (Borg and Gall, 1989:452). Borg and Gall regard the semi-structured interview as generally most appropriate for interview studies in education. The semi-structured interview was used as the major tool for this study.

Rubin and Rubin (1995:5) state that in semi-structured interviews the researcher introduces the topic and thereafter guides the discussion by asking specific questions. The semi-structured interview combines objectivity and depth and normally permits gathering valuable data that could not be successfully obtained by any other approach (Borg and Gall, 1989:452). Although an interview guide is used, this type of interview offers the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of topics and offer the subject the opportunity to shape the content of the interview (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:97).

In this research the research questions outlined in Chapter One and Annexure A were used as a guide in asking questions during the interviews. Words familiar to the participants were used during the interview so that they could respond to something they understood (see Annexure B: Transcribed interview).

3.4.5.2.1 The Interview Guide

The interview guide (see Annexures A and B) enabled the researcher to obtain the data required to meet the specific objectives of the study and “to standardise the situation to some degree” (Borg and Gall, 1989:451). Borg and Gall (1989:451) state that the interview guide lists the questions that are to be asked during the interview in the desired sequence and it provides guidelines to the

researcher regarding what to say at the opening and closing of the interviews. Although the questions are usually asked as they appear in the guide, the interviewer has the latitude to pursue a range of topics. The important thing here is not to allow oneself (researcher) to control the content so rigidly that the interviewee fails to tell his/her story in his/her own words (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:97).

In this research the interview guide was used in the context of the remarks made above.

3.4.5.2.2 Sampling

In qualitative research a small, distinct group of participants is usually investigated to enable the researcher to “understand the problem in depth” (Hoberg, 1999:57). Purposeful sampling is often done. This is the process of “selecting information-rich cases for study in depth” (Patton, 1990:169). The information—rich participants who are selected are “knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena the researcher is investigating” (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993:378). These participants should be willing to talk (Le Compte and Goetz in Fetterman, 1984:44).

Purposeful sampling is done at random and is inclusive of sampling by case (researcher here selects at random certain cases that will in all probability yield the information that is required), network sampling (this type of sampling strategy is participant referral where each successive participant or group is named by a preceding group or individual; researcher identifies and develops a certain profile of attributes or traits that is sought and each participant will be asked to suggest other participants who might fit the profile), comprehensive sampling (a sampling in which every participant or group, setting or other relevant information is examined) and maximum variation sampling (a strategy to represent subunits of the major unit) (Hoberg, 1999:59).

In this research the following criteria were used in the selection of participants:

- a lecturer who is a leader in the College Lecturers' Association (an association which deals with lecturers' conditions of service);
- a principal lecturer who has worked under three different principals;
- a senior lecturer who has worked under two different principals;
- a lecturer who has worked only under the current principal;
- a lecturer who has been vocal about wanting to leave the college because his/her experience there was frustrating (His/her reasons for wanting to leave may point to motivational problems).

It is important to note the following:

- all the selected participants were willing to be interviewed;
- all the selected participants were disposed to expressing their minds/views without fear or favour;
- all the selected participants were regarded as thoughtful, perceptive and serious-minded by their colleagues;
- all the selected participants were well-respected by their colleagues for their opinions in staff meetings and outside;
- the participants are spread across all the three departments;

- both male and female staff were equitably selected (proportionate to their numbers on the staff).

In short, in the purposeful sampling employed in this research, sampling by case and network sampling (as described above) were used in a complementary way.

3.5 GAINING ACCESS

The researcher wrote to the principal of the college asking for permission to conduct his research and permission was readily granted.

Since the researcher is a senior member of staff at the college, he was never regarded as an intruder. After explaining the purpose of the research and after encouraging the colleagues earmarked for the participation in the research to seek clarification on the matter, co-operation from all concerned was assured.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative research usually generates voluminous data. The data needs to be sorted out. The sorting out of the data involves physically organising and subdividing the data. It also entails dividing data into meaningful segments, "which is already part of data analysis" (Bergh and van Wyk in Hoberg, 1999:64).

Data collection and data analysis occur simultaneously. Right from the first interview or observation, the researcher reflects on the meaning of what he/she has heard and/or seen, "developing hunches (working hypothesis) about what it means and seeking to confirm or disconfirm those hunches in subsequent interviews or observations" (Ary et al, 1996:481). This is inductive data analysis (proceeding from data to hypotheses to theory).

Bogdan and Biklen (1992:153) elucidate the concept data analysis by describing it as the process of systematically searching and arranging interview transcripts, field-notes and other materials that the researcher accumulates to increase his/her understanding of them and to enable him/her to present what he/she has discovered to others. In qualitative research, data analysis is a rigorous process involving working with the data, organising them into manageable units, categorising, comparing, synthesising them, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned and deciding what the researcher will tell others (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:153 and Berg and van Wyk in Hoberg, 1999:65). It is noteworthy that qualitative researchers integrate the operations of organising, analysing and interpreting data and call the entire process “data analysis” (Berg and van Wyk in Hoberg, 1999:64).

One way of organising qualitative data is to develop and use coding categories. The researcher reads through the data noting certain words, phrases, patterns of behaviour, subjects’ ways of thinking, and events which are repeated or which stand out. Regularities, patterns and topics emerge. The words and phrases referred to above are coding categories, they are the means of sorting the descriptive data collected (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:166).

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992:167), some coding categories will emerge while data is being collected. These coding categories need to be jotted down for future use. Particular research questions and concerns also generate categories. Bogdan and Biklen (1992:172) suggest the following coding families which provide the researcher with some tools for developing coding categories that will be helpful in sorting out qualitative data:

- *Setting/context Codes* (here the most general information on the setting, topic or subjects can be sorted. An example of particular codes in this family might be labelled: “Descriptions of Teachers’ Colleges”...);

- *Definition of the Situation Codes* (here the aim is to place units of data that tell the researcher how the subjects define the setting or particular topics – their worldview, how they see themselves in relation to the setting or the topic);
- *Perspectives Held by Subjects Codes* (this family includes codes oriented toward ways of thinking subjects share that are not as general as their overall definition of the situation but indicate orientations toward particular aspects of a setting);
- *Subjects' Ways of Thinking about People and Objects Codes* (the subjects' understandings of each other, of outsiders, and of the objects that make up their world);
- *Process Codes* (refer to coding words and phrases that facilitate categorizing sequences of events, changes over time, or passages from one type or kind of status to another etc.);
- *Activity Codes* (directed at regularly occurring kinds of behaviour, for example, "student smoking", "joking", "showing films", etc.);
- *Event Codes* (for example, "The teachers' Strike", "The Riot", "A School Pageant");
- *Strategy Codes* (tactics, methods, ways, techniques, etc.);
- *Relationships and Social Structure Codes* (units of data that direct one to cliques, friendships, romances, coalitions, enemies, etc.).

The researcher found the suggested categories for coding useful in that they offered ideas of what to look for when coding.

3.6.1 The Process of Data Analysis

In this study, data analysis was done by examining the field-notes on observations made and responses of each participant observed and interviewed. In analysing the data in this research study the steps (the constant comparative method) presented by Maykut and Morehouse (1994:135) were followed.

The steps followed in this research are outlined below:

- Step 1
conducting the interview, recording it and reflecting on it in writing immediately after the interview (carrying out observations, writing field-notes, observer comments and memos);
- Step 2
transcribing data verbatim immediately after the interview. Placing additional comments in brackets;
- Step 3
Reading through the data and coding of data according to emerging categories;
- Step 4
Unitising the data and identifying units of meaning in the context of the research questions and the topic;

- Step 5
Identifying provisional categories and subcategories. (The phenomenon represented by a category is given a conceptual name.) Matching unitised data cards to a category;

- Step 6
Refining categories and making a list of key items (main ideas), words and phrases. Doing a literature check to confirm whether the respondents' responses during the interview bear some similarities to the research topic and what other respondents conclude in similar studies. This is a final check for validity.

3.6.1.1 Preparation of data for analysis

The responses from the interviews were transcribed verbatim from the audio-tape. The audio-tape is creditable to the extent that it facilitates both the collection and analysis of data as preconceived ideas are discarded (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:127). The raw data from interview responses and field-notes were labelled as follows:

- Coding data pages to their source: To facilitate the identification of the various sources used, all data pages from the interview transcripts, field-notes and documents were coded (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:127). Coding as a process enhances the development of insight about categories, concepts, social structures and meaning, which is one of the principal aims of qualitative research (Vorkell and Asher, 1995:203).

- Category coding: For this research, the constant comparative method was used to analyse qualitative data by using codes in the form of numbers and letters for easier recognition of valuable data. To code data pages to their sources, a code for one type of data was included at the upper right hand

corner of each page of data. The coding was done on all the transcripts in order to identify the categories (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:127).

After coding followed the development of a spreadsheet which displayed the verbatim quotes from the interview responses. Data interpretation was thus simplified and elucidated.

3.7 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH

It is important to examine qualitative methods and look for ways to ensure the quality of the findings. Doing so enhances the trustworthiness of the research.

Ary et al (1996:480) suggest that trustworthiness can be established by the researcher's prolonged engagement at the site and persistent observation to provide sufficient scope and depth to observations, and the employment of triangulation (the use of multiple sources of data, multiple observers, and/or multiple methods). With triangulation, data collected with one procedure or instrument is confirmed by data collected using a different procedure or instrument. This researcher, being employed at the college being studied, was able to spend a lot of time engaged in persistent observation. Triangulation was achieved through the use of unstructured, semi-structured and structured interviews as well as naturalistic and participant observation.

Submitting one's interpretations to members in a setting for their validation is another way to enhance the trustworthiness of the research. This was done in this research. Carefully formulating interview questions so that meaning is crystal clear, as was done in this research, also helps the validity of the research (Hoberg, 1999:89-90).

Ary et al (1996:262) describe validity as generally concerned with the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. De Vos (ed) (1998:83) concurs by saying a valid meaning instrument is describable as doing what it is intended to do, as measuring what it is supposed to measure and as yielding scores whose differences reflect the true differences of the variable being measured rather than random or constant errors.

Reliability is an important aspect of trustworthiness. According to McMillan (1992:223) reliability is describable as the extent to which what was recorded as data is in fact what occurred in the natural setting. Denscombe (1998:213) describes reliability as achieving the same findings even though another researcher did the research. The reliability of a measuring instrument is the degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring.

Perhaps it is the description of reliability in De Vos (ed) (1998:95) that is all encompassing. Reliability is seen as “the extent to which independent administrations of the same instrument yield the same results under comparable conditions and it is synonymous to dependability, stability, consistency, predictability, accuracy, reproducibility, repeatability and generalisability”.

De Vos (ed) (1998:303-305) cites Lincoln and Guba (1985) when saying that Guba’s model of trustworthiness identifies four criteria, namely: truth-value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. The said criteria are described below as follows:

- Truth value

The truth value seeks to establish if the researcher has established confidence in the truth of the findings for the subjects or informants and the context in which the research was undertaken. “It establishes how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, informants and context”

(De Vos (ed) (1998:349). Truth-value is usually obtained from the discovery of human experiences as they are lived and perceived by informants.

- **Applicability**

Applicability refers to “the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups. It is the ability to generalise from the findings to larger populations” (De Vos, 1998:349).

- **Consistency**

Consistency refers to whether the findings would be consistent if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context (De Vos (ed), 1998:350).

- **Neutrality**

Neutrality is the freedom from bias in the research procedures and results. It refers to the degree to which the findings are a function solely of the informants and conditions of the research and not other biases, motivations and perspectives (De Vos (ed), 1998:350).

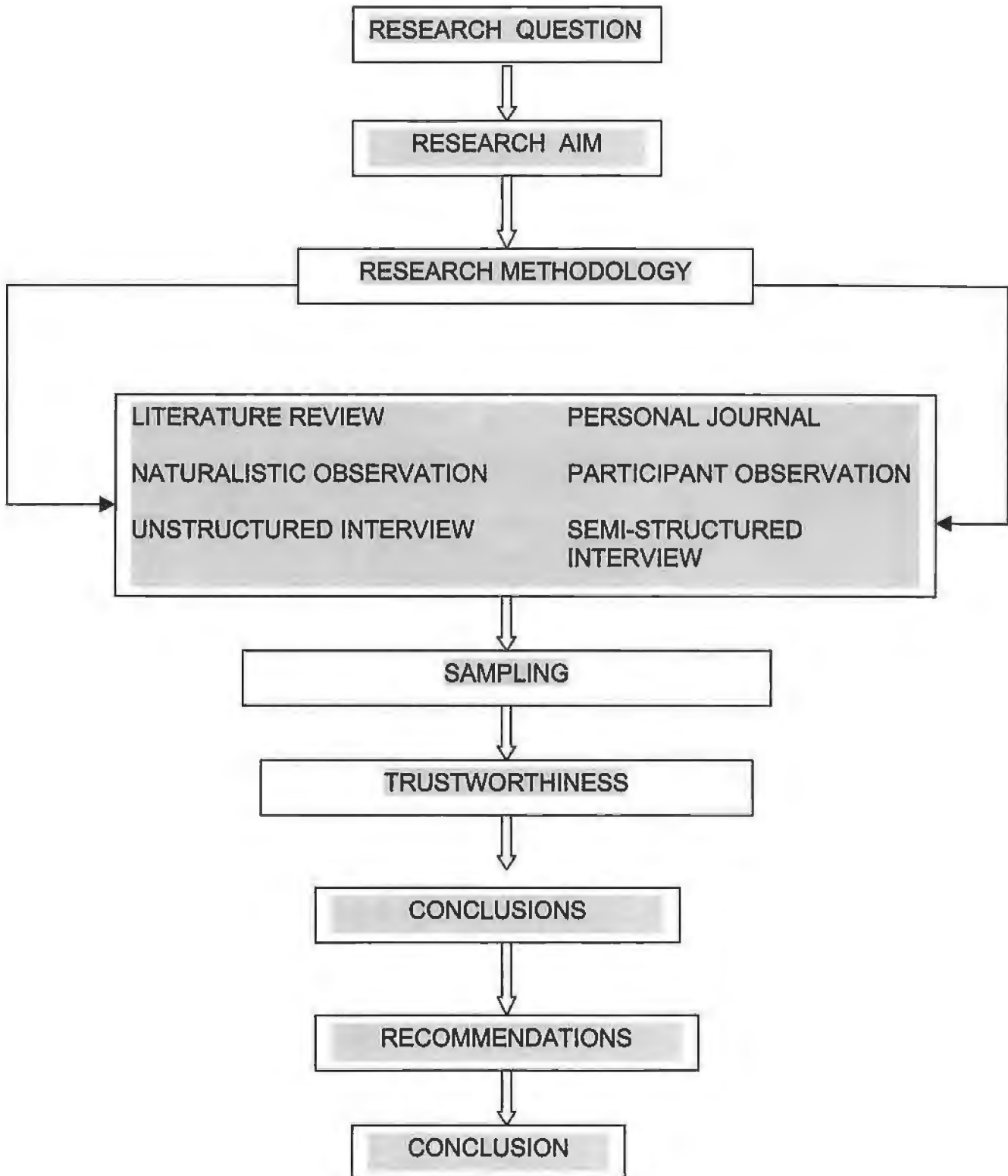
The trustworthiness of this research was enhanced by the researcher’s prolonged engagement at the site and persistent observation allowing sufficient scope and depth to observations; the use of triangulation (the use of multiple sources of data, multiple observers, and /or multiple methods – data collected with one procedure or instrument was confirmed by data collected using a different procedure or instrument); the researcher’s interpretations were submitted to members in the setting for their validation (the transcriptions of the interviews were taken to respondents to confirm what they had said); interview questions were carefully formulated to achieve clarity.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the research design selected for this research project. The sampling, data collection methods and data processing/analysis techniques were described. The question of validity and reliability (trustworthiness) as well as ethical considerations of the research inquiry were dealt with.

In the next chapter the presentation and interpretation of the collected data will be discussed.

RESEARCH DESIGN (Figure 3.1)



CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Personnel motivation is crucial for getting staff to increase performance. As Stroh (2001:58) puts it, if staff are not motivated their level of productivity falls below their real potential. It is therefore incumbent upon management to present staff with the necessary challenges and opportunities for achievement or “to provide the type of leadership that will motivate them and direct their behaviour towards increased performance” (Stroh 2001:50) To be able to create an environment in which staff can be motivated to a high level of performance management needs to accurately perceive the factors that motivate staff.

In this chapter findings generated from interviews, observation, field notes and personal journal will be presented and discussed in the context of the theories of motivation reviewed in chapter 2. It will be established whether the theories of motivation can singly or collaboratively explain the findings. Quotes will be used extensively to provide, as Hofmeyr (1992:41) puts it, a qualitative “feel” of the responses. Only quotes representing common, rather than idiosyncratic responses will be used.

4.2 FINDINGS

Sub-headings representing the themes/categories that emerged as the main or repetitive themes will be used to facilitate the presentation and discussion of the findings. The emergent main categories are:

- General level of motivation
- Motivation and work performance

- Motivation and rewards
- Motivation and job content factors
- Motivation and job context factors
- Motivation and personal and organisational goals congruence
- Need for educational managers to study theories of motivation.

It is noteworthy that during the interviews sometimes the order of the questions used to generate the responses which are categorised as indicated above (see Annexure A: interview guide) was changed and some of the questions were combined (thereby changing the wording of some of the questions from how they appear in the interview guide). This flexible use of the questions was determined by how a particular interview unfolded, but the essence of the enquiry was never distorted.

Before the findings are presented descriptively under the various categories that have emerged (as indicated above), a table showing responses vis a vis factors that enhance motivation and factors that depress motivation is presented below.

TABLE 4.1: FACTORS IDENTIFIED AS ENHANCING MOTIVATION AND DEPRESSING MOTIVATION

FACTORS THAT ENHANCE MOTIVATION	FACTORS THAT DEPRESS MOTIVATION
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities for advancement • Opportunities for achievement • Recognition for work done • The work itself • Opportunities for personal growth and responsibility • Participation in the formulation of realistic/achievable objectives • Participation in decision-making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inequitable distribution of performance-related rewards • Adverse physical working conditions • Inadequacy or lack of facilities • Salary perceived as unfair compensation for the work being done • Lack of administrative support • Poorly articulated and inequitably administered management policies

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adequacy of feedback from management • Effective communication • Positive relationships between management and subordinates 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Laissez-faire leadership style • Incongruence between personal goals and organisational goals • Lack of recognition for work done • Inadequate feedback from management on whether performance meets expected standards or not (If not, what should be improved and how?) • Ineffective communication
---	---

The findings will now be presented and discussed under the various categories.

4.2.1 General level of motivation

Respondents were asked to consider their usual level of motivation in their day-to-day work at college (Annexure A: Question 1). Their usual level of motivation provides a background against which findings can be considered.

All (100%) respondents affirmed that, on a scale ranging from motivated, highly motivated, to very highly motivated, they were generally (just) motivated to work in their day-to-day work at college. The following quotes from the interviews confirm this finding:

“I would say I am e –eh motivated because it appears the administration recognises my presence and contribution towards the success of the college.”

“I would say I am generally motivated, not highly motivated.”

“E- eh, I think I am generally motivated.just motivated.

“I think on average I am just motivated.”

“I am usually just motivated, not highly.”

These responses confirm the researcher’s observations and discussions between the lecturers and this researcher (see Annexure C). Findings on specific factors causing motivation or depressing motivation will be discussed in the context of these responses which confirm that all the respondents are just motivated (not highly or very highly motivated).

Before the respondents were asked questions on specific factors, they were asked to give unprompted, qualitative responses regarding factors that made them feel as motivated as they had described in response to the question on their general level of motivation (Annexure A: Question 2)

The respondents identified the following factors as making them feel motivated: opportunities to experience feelings of competence (60% of the respondents); management support, inclusive of the provision of resources (100%); recognition and appreciation by both students and management (20%). The quotes in Annexure C testify to these findings. Since the factors the respondents mentioned here were also mentioned later in the interview in response to questions on how specific factors impacted on their motivation, the responses will be discussed later in 4.2.4 and 4.2.5 in order to avoid irksome repetition.

The respondents were also asked to give unprompted, qualitative responses regarding factors that depressed their motivation (Annexure A: Question 4). They identified the following factors as depressing their motivation: favouritism by management (20% of the respondents); lack of recognition by management (60%); being excluded from the decision-making process (20%); lack of facilities (60%); negative student attitude (40%); lack of support from management (40%); poor communication (20%). The quotes in Annexure C attest to these findings.

To avoid unnecessary repetition, these responses will be discussed under 4.2.4 and 4.2.5 since they are also repeated later in the interview in response to questions on how specific factors impacted on their motivation.

The two questions which asked respondents to give unprompted, qualitative responses regarding factors that motivated them and factors that depressed their motivation were meant to help respondents focus on factors that impacted on their motivation before being asked about the relationship between motivation and work performance.

4.2.2 Motivation and work performance

Respondents were asked to state what impact the feeling of (i) motivation and (ii) demotivation had on their work performance (Annexure A: Questions 3 and 5). Regarding the impact of motivation on work performance, the respondents concurred that the feeling of motivation had a very high positive impact on their work performance. The following quotes bear testimony to this finding (that motivation had a very high positive impact on their work performance):

“It has a very high positive impact on my work performance... it helps me to try and keep high standards or even exceed them”

“When I am motivated I work enthusiastically...I would say I perform to the best of my ability when highly motivated.”

“Well, obviously it has a very positive impact on my work performance.”

“When I am motivated I can give ‘a baker’s dozen’, so it has a very high positive impact on my work performance.”

“I definitely think motivation has a very great positive effect on my work performance.”

The literature confirms and illuminates the findings. Stroh (2001:59) for example, declares that some employees do not produce the quality of work they are capable of mainly because of management's failure to utilise their (employees') potential and capabilities. Stroh elaborates by saying management often fails to provide the type of leadership that will motivate staff "and direct their behaviour towards increased performance." Implied in Stroh's argument is the fact that boosting staff motivation enhances staff's performance.

Everard and Morris (1996:20) further confirm the fact that a high level of motivation impacts positively on one's work performance when they describe motivation as "...getting the best out of people." In concurring with Everard and Morris, Marx (1981:193) elaborates by affirming that motivation incorporates all attempts by managers to incite their subordinates to voluntarily produce their best performance.

A lot of definitions on motivation referred to in Chapter 2 (2.2) accentuate the hard work employees do in order to perform a specific task. Suffice it to say when one is motivated, one invests energy, time and effort in order to accomplish or even exceed set goals.

Concerning the impact of demotivation on work performance, all (100%) respondents asserted that the feeling of demotivation had an adverse effect on work performance. This finding is confirmed by the following quotes:

"Umm, generally I tend to develop an indifferent attitude towards my work when I have this feeling of demotivation.. so I wouldn't exactly exert myself."

"I should say it (the feeling of demotivation) has a very negative impact."

"Well, I think I would tend to develop an 'I don't care' attitude towards my work when I am demotivated ... as a result my work performance will suffer."

“When demotivated the natural thing is that I will not do my best... there is a direct relationship between demotivation and poor work performance”

“I think when I am demotivated my work does suffer in that the students I will teach will not get the best out of me. I will be just going through the paces. I will not make the effort to make the lecture interesting.”

These findings are in keeping with this researcher's expectations since they confirm the observations the researcher made during this research (see Annexure C).

The literature also gives credence to the responses presented above. Ströh (2001:59) argues that demotivated workers are often bored, uninvolved and under-utilised. This is bound to contribute to the quality of their performance falling below their real potential. Demotivation may result not only in one investing less energy and commitment to work, but also in one discouraging colleagues from working hard because it is not worth it (Bush and West-Burnham 1994:235; Hofmeyr 1992:26). From this brief discussion it is self-evident that demotivation impacts negatively on work performance.

4.2.3 Motivation and rewards

Rewarding someone means giving him / her something “without obligation and in recognition for good performance” (Mol 1991: 24). Rewards such as merit pay, praise and recognition, performance-based bonus and performance-based salary increment are used in organisations for the purpose of boosting staff motivation in order to enhance performance. This study tries, among other things, to establish whether rewards for achievement were equitably distributed at the college (Annexure A: Question 11).

4.2.3.1 Respondents were asked whether they considered rewards for achievement to be equitably distributed at the college and how this affected their motivation.

All (100%) respondents felt rewards were not always equitably distributed and this depressed their motivation. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“Aah, no... rewards are not equitably distributed... Some people are favoured when it comes to praise and performance-based increments... It’s really demotivating.”

“They are not exactly fairly distributed. Some people who are socially close to the administration are clearly favoured... this kills motivation.”

“Umm, I am not quite sure that they are equitably distributed... There is favouritism which demotivates some of us.”

“No, they are not fairly distributed... It impacts negatively on one’s motivation.”

“There is no fairness... It is demoralising and demotivating when someone is showered with praise for performance you surpassed but were not given any praise.”

These findings are consistent with this researcher’s experience at the college. Management is perceived as favouring some members of staff and this causes demotivation (as confirmed by the responses).

Some of the theories of motivation reviewed in Chapter 2 illuminate the responses presented above. In the context of the Equity Theory (2.4.8), an inequity is perceived when management is viewed as favouring some members of staff when it comes to the allocation / distribution of rewards. On feeling that

an inequity exists, one is demotivated (Bush and West-Burnham 1994:235; Hofmeyr 1992:26). This is in harmony with the responses given above.

In terms of Vroom's Expectancy Theory (2.4.7) the motivation to engage in an activity is a combination of one's expectation that the action will result in a particular outcome and the perceived utility of that outcome in relation to other outcomes. Thus if a member of staff sees that a colleague has been awarded the kind of reward he/she desires as a consequence of a particular performance, he/she may work hard to produce the kind of performance that would attract the desired reward. If he/she produces the required performance and is not rewarded accordingly, he/she will be demotivated. The responses presented above confirm this.

Showing favouritism or discrimination threatens the security and safety needs of employees, according to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (2.4.1) (Nathan 1996:82). When this happens motivation is depressed. In accordance with Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory, poor supervisory practices such as favouritism constitute dissatisfiers that must be removed in order for motivators to effectively come into play.

In brief, some of the theories reviewed in Chapter 2 confirm and illuminate the responses presented in this section.

4.2.4 Motivation and Job Content Factors:

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory claims that motivation is composed of two separate independent factors, namely: motivational factors (which can lead to job satisfaction) and maintenance factors (which must be sufficiently present in order for motivational factors to come into play, and when not sufficiently present, can lead to job dissatisfaction) (Owens 1995:54). In this research the motivational factors are referred to as job content factors (constituting the intrinsic aspect of

the work). These (job content factors) include achievement, recognition, personal growth, responsibility, the work itself and advancement. The higher-order needs of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (the desire for esteem and self-actualisation) closely approximate the job content or motivational factors. The maintenance factors are referred to as job context factors (they relate to the work environment and are also known as hygiene or extrinsic or environmental factors, or dissatisfiers). The job context factors include supervision, interpersonal relationships, physical working conditions, salary, status, policy and administration, fringe benefits and job security (Herzberg et al 1959:113). The lower-order needs of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (generally physiological and safety-oriented needs) closely approximate the job context or maintenance factors as outlined by Herzberg.

Respondents were asked specific questions related to both job content and job context factors. Regarding job content factors they were asked as follows:

4.2.4.1 Respondents were asked whether their work provided opportunities for advancement and how this impacted on their motivation (Annexure A: Question 20)

All (100%) respondents confirmed that their work provided opportunities for advancement and they all concurred that this had a positive impact on their motivation (although two (40%) of them, while conceding the fact that where the opportunities occurred it impacted positively on their motivation, felt such opportunities were not as plentiful as desired). The following quotes confirm these findings:

“Well, there are certainly opportunities for advancement. Since the...promotions are based on performance, I find it quite motivating.”

“Oh yes, the opportunities are there... I am doing the best I can so that I will become Lecturer-In-Charge soon.”

“Opportunities for advancement exist and I think they have a positive motivational influence...more so because they are based on one’s performance.”

“Well, they are there. I think where they exist for one, they motivate one to perform in a way that will attract advancement. But I feel they are limited...”

“Yeah, opportunities for advancement exist but when one becomes a Head of Department or let’s say a Vice Principal, the opportunities will virtually dry up...(before then) one will be motivated to work hard so as to advance to the next rung of the professional ladder.”

The literature confirms and illuminates these findings. Silver (1983:314), Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993:75), and Connacher (1989:9) concur that educational managers must use the real motivation which comes from a satisfying job (See also Daniels, 2000:53-54; Kushel 1994:69). This can be done by, among other things, providing opportunities for advancement that are based on accomplishments as well as providing staff with learning opportunities and experience that may be useful in seeking advancement (Everard and Morris 1996:26).

The findings are also consistent with Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory as well as Porter’s model. At the esteem needs level one is concerned with, among other things, recognition and status acquisition. Thus providing opportunities for advancement and status acquisition or promotion based on accomplishments has a motivational effect. In the context of Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory advancement is regarded as a motivator. It is needful for educational managers to focus on job satisfiers or motivators such as advancement (as opposed to focusing on hygiene factors) in order to meaningfully motivate staff.

To sum up, where opportunities for advancement exist staff are motivated, especially when the advancement is a consequence of high performance. This is

confirmed by the responses presented above as well as the literature and motivation theories referred to in this discussion of the findings.

4.2.4.2 Respondents were asked if their work provided opportunities for personal growth and responsibility and how this impacted on their motivation (Questions 19 and 17 respectively).

All (100%) respondents confirmed that their work provided opportunities for personal growth and responsibility and that this impacted positively on their motivation. The following quotes testify to these findings:

“Opportunities for personal growth and responsibility exist, yes, and this has a positive effect on my motivation. For example, in departments you find that there is a deliberate effort to staff develop members through departmental staff development programmes.”

“Oh yes, opportunities for personal growth and responsibility are there. In various departments, sections and subject areas you find that almost every member is asked to be responsible for something... this positively influences (our) motivation.”

“I would say opportunities for personal growth and responsibility exist. We do hold staff development workshops both at subject level and at college (interdepartmental) level.... Responsibility is delegated to staff who demonstrate potential commensurate with such responsibility. All this has a positive effect on one's motivation.”

“I think delegation of responsibility, which is a characteristic of this college, does provide opportunities for growth and responsibility. This impacts positively on my motivation. Also staff development programmes facilitate one's professional growth.”

“Yeah, the opportunities are there. We are granted study leave, we have college-based staff development programmes... management at all levels try to delegate responsibility whenever this is possible...This of course is really motivating.”

These responses confirmed this researcher's expectations to the extent that he has always been aware of the existence of opportunities for personal growth and responsibility at the college. Locally and nationally based staff development seminars / workshops and the generous granting of study leave to staff for full-time studies have been a feature of this college and this has been found motivating by staff (as confirmed by their responses). Also staff in various subject areas have always been given responsibility for something, for example being asked to co-ordinate a year group, or being asked to be in charge of a sub-discipline (e.g. Psychology of Education under Theory of Education), etc.

The literature on motivation theories reviewed in Chapter 2 confirms and illuminates the responses (which are consistent with Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory discussed under 2.4.3). Commenting on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory at the esteem needs level, Matlawe (1989:13) declares: "Every person wants to experience self-growth and get the opportunity to achieve." He goes on to say that by means of delegation staff experience self-growth and development.

McGregor's Theory Y (2.4.4) holds that most adults prefer responsibility for their work. The theory posits that the ability to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity when trying to resolve organisational problems is a widely distributed talent among the population. Denying staff opportunities to exercise the said abilities inhibits self-growth and depresses motivation. People should have opportunities for growth so as to realise their intellectual potential. This enhances motivation. All this is consistent with the responses presented above. However, caution must be exercised lest subordinates be given too much

responsibility prematurely, for this can be destructive. It may frustrate and demotivate them.

Also illuminating the responses presented above is McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory. According to this theory staff with a strong need for achievement take personal responsibility for resolving problems. However, it is imperative that educational managers try to carefully match an individual's level of need for achievement and his / her role in the organisation. It is in this context that Hofmeyr (1992:19) remarks that if one with a high need for achievement is placed in a position that requires little responsibility or challenge, one may become frustrated and demotivated.

In brief the responses presented above illustrate the fact that a job with opportunities for growth and responsibility has motivational value.

4.2.4.3 Respondents were asked whether their work provided opportunities for achievement and how this impacted on their motivation (Annexure A: Question 15). All (100%) respondents said their work provided opportunities for achievement and that this had a positive effect on their performance. The following quotes attest to these findings:

“Well, I think I am meeting my targets. I mean I am doing my work effectively. I have been getting positive feedback from my supervisor as well as my students. I find this quite motivating.”

“I am generally able to meet my goals... that is the goals that I set for myself and the goals the organisation expects me to meet. This is motivating because one feels one is achieving what one has set out to achieve.”

“Yes, I do achieve goals that I consider important, and quite often I am able to successfully handle complex issues... I mean i can resolve complex issues... I

mean I can resolve complex problems. This greatly motivates me, you know, because I enjoy meeting challenges.”

“Opportunities for achievement are there. When one achieves one’s objectives one is motivated. But sometimes achievement is frustrated by lack of resources, and this can be quite demotivating.”

“Generally the opportunities for achievement exist. Yes, when they do it can be quite motivating. But when you fail to get facilities or resources or administration support to achieve your goals, it can be very frustrating.”

These findings are congruent with the experiences of this researcher at the college he has worked for fourteen years. Frustration and the depression of motivation have set in every now and again when staff sometimes cannot get resources to use to achieve their goals and / or organisational goals considered significant.

The responses are also consistent with Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory reviewed in Chapter 2 which lists achievement as a motivator. Achievement has been confirmed as a motivator by the responses presented above.

At the esteem level of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (reviewed in chapter 2) achievement is mentioned as a significant need, the pursuit of whose fulfilment has great motivational potency. The responses are also consistent with McClelland’s Manifest Needs Theory. In terms of this theory achievement-oriented people delight in personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, perform best when faced by a challenge, possess a strong need for feedback concerning their performance, like to set challenging goals and possess a preoccupation with task and task accomplishment. These characteristics are evident in the responses given above.

To put it briefly, educational managers need to provide staff with opportunities for achievement in order to promote staff's motivation. Staff should participate in setting challenging and realistic / achievable objectives so that they have joint ownership of the objectives. This will motivate them towards the achievement of 'their own' goals / objectives.

4.2.4.4 Respondents were asked whether they got the kind of recognition they thought they deserved for the work they did and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 14).

Three (60%) respondents said they got sufficient recognition for the work they did and this had a positive effect on their motivation. Two (40%) respondents said they did not receive the kind of recognition they thought they deserved. The latter felt this had a negative effect on their motivation. The following quotes testify to these findings:

"Oh definitely I do get enough recognition for the work I do...I regularly get positive feedback from the Head of Department and this is highly motivating."

"Yeah, I get quite a lot of feedback from the Lecturer-In-Charge....and sometimes even the H.O.D...Yeah, this is very motivating because it tells me that my efforts are recognised."

"Well, I would say I am happy with the positive feedback I get from my superiors. When my efforts are thus recognised I am obviously motivated to work even harder."

"A-ah, I don't think administration (management) really knows what's happening on the ground. They seem to be unaware of what individual lecturers achieve... This is quite demotivating."

"Umm, whether you produce high quality work or mediocre stuff... it doesn't make a difference. Nobody seems to notice. It's really demotivating."

These findings are in harmony with what this researcher has observed, namely that some Heads of Subject, Lecturers-In-Charge and Heads of Department do recognise good performance by their subordinates while other do not. Those whose performance was recognised were motivated and those who did not get the recognition they felt they deserved got demotivated (See also Annexure C).

Some of the theories reviewed in Chapter 2 illuminate the responses presented above. In Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory recognition is listed as a strong motivator. In Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory recognition is regarded as an important esteem need which has great motivational potency. Staff need to be valued, and this calls for recognition of good work done (Nathan, 1996:85; Hagemann, 1992:57; Matlawe, 1989:13; Engelking, 1987:4). The absence of positive feedback may demotivate staff. In the context of the positive reinforcement theory (2.4.5 based on Thorndike's law of effect) staff's desire for rewards of positive feedback and recognition will in large measure motivate them to perform to expectation in anticipation of such rewards. Rue and Byars (1992:365) name merit pay, praise and recognition as examples of positive reinforcement. Mosley et al (1993:243) elaborate by bemoaning the fact that many educational managers overlook a free and very effective means of getting employee's attention – praise. It is a fact that most people thrive on attention. They behave the way they do because they desire praise or recognition that confirms that they are doing the right thing the right way (Mosley et al 1993:243). If the consequences of one's actions are positive, one is likely to repeat these actions.

This discussion confirms that recognising good performance is highly motivating to staff and failure to do so demotivates staff.

4.2.4.5 Respondents were asked whether they enjoyed their work as lecturers and, if they did, what made their work enjoyable and what impact this had on their motivation (questions 12 and 13).

Four (80%) respondents who said they enjoyed their work as lecturers mentioned the following as making their work enjoyable: the degree of autonomy the job allowed; the interaction with students the work involved; lecturing itself. They also affirmed that the fact that they found their work enjoyable motivated them. One (20%) respondent who said she did not enjoy her work mentioned the following as making her work unenjoyable: marking the work of a large number of students, and going to rural areas on Teaching Practice supervision. She said these two factors which made her work unenjoyable depressed her motivation.

The following quotes confirm the findings mentioned above:

“Oh yes, I enjoy my work very much. Lecturing is very enjoyable, especially when successful. Also, the work allows a reasonable degree of autonomy. The interaction with students the work involves also makes it enjoyable for this allows for the exchange of views with people from diverse backgrounds. All this is positively motivating.”

“Yeah, the work is quite enjoyable... this obviously is motivating. E-eh, factors that make it enjoyable include lecturing, interaction with students, especially when they are consulting singly or in small numbers. One also learns a lot from these students, you know.”

“I think I enjoy my work... and this motivates me on a day-to-day basis... I would ascribe this to factors like lecturing, interacting and exchanging views with students... and also the kind of autonomy I am allowed.”

“I wouldn't say I really enjoy my work very much, no. I find marking heaps and heaps of students' work rather unenjoyable... Also the trips to rural areas on Teaching Practice Supervision... I don't fancy them at all. These aspects are

demotivating.”

“Well, interacting with students who are enthusiastic to learn during consultation time and lecturing make my work enjoyable. This of course motivates me.”

In terms of Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory the work itself is regarded as a powerful motivator. Aspects of the employees’ job should therefore be manipulated to increase the frequency of enjoyable and satisfying experiences for employees. This increased satisfaction will lead to greater effort (Silver 1983:314). Four (80%) of the respondents have confirmed that some aspects of their job motivated them on account of their being enjoyable and interesting. The respondent (20%) who found some of the aspects of her job unenjoyable / uninteresting and so demotivating needs to have those aspects of her job manipulated so that they become more interesting, challenging and more satisfying.

Two (40%) of the respondents mentioned autonomy as a motivator. This is consistent with Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory (2.4.1), Porter’s model (2.4.2), Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory (2.4.3), and McClelland’s manifest needs theory (2.4.6) among other theories of motivation . Thus it is incumbent upon educational managers to allow staff some degree of autonomy so as to enhance staff motivation.

Four (80%) of the respondents mentioned interaction with students as motivating. This is consistent with Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory at the belongingness needs level (2.4.1) and McClelland’s manifest needs theory (2.4.6) when it comes to the need for affiliation. It is therefore necessary for management to provide sufficient opportunities for staff interaction with students in order to boost staff motivation.

4.2.4.6 Conclusion

The discussion above established that when job content factors (motivational factors) are present, staff are generally motivated and when they are absent staff are generally demotivated.

4.2.5 Motivation and Job Context factors

Job context factors (which must be sufficiently present for motivational or job content factors to come into play) include supervision, interpersonal relationships, physical working conditions, salary, fringe benefits, status, policy and administration and job security.

Respondents were asked specific questions related to job context factors as follows:

4.2.5.1 Respondents were asked to describe the condition of their offices as a facility at the college and how this condition affected their motivation (Question 21).

All (100%) respondents described the offices at the college as poor. Three (60%) of the respondents unreservedly said the condition of the offices had a negative effect on their motivation while two (40%) of the respondents qualified their comments by saying the condition of the offices had little effect on their motivation. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“Poor. They are crowded...people share offices. Some of the time they are not cleaned and it makes one feel one is not regarded highly by administration. This obviously has a negative effect on one's motivation.”

“They are not good... they are crammed and poorly ventilated. Umm.. this doesn't have much effect on my general motivation though.”

“They are very poor. Actually they are storerooms converted into offices! They are poorly ventilated.it’s demotivating.”

“There are a few very good offices for some of the Heads of Department and Lecturers-In-Charge. Most of the offices are poorly ventilated. Mine serves as both office and storeroom.....it depresses my motivation.”

“The offices are poor really... poor ventilation, little space, often dusty... it’s not good at all. But this has little effect on my general work motivation.”

Although two (40%) of the respondents said the poor condition of their offices had little (negative) effect on their motivation, it could be said that they, like the other four (60%), feel that the poor condition of their offices negatively impacts on their work motivation (since none of them said it had no effect at all). It is clear from the responses that the condition of their offices constitutes unpleasant working conditions which management needs to correct in order to allow motivators to effectively come into play.

According to Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory reviewed in Chapter 2, job context (or maintenance or hygiene) factors must be sufficiently present for motivational (job content) factors to take effect. When they are not sufficiently present job dissatisfaction may set in and the quality of work performance will be depressed. The job context factors constitute the minimum acceptable standards under which people are prepared to work (Hofmeyr 1992:22). It would appear that those who said the condition of their offices had a negative impact on their motivation perceived this job context (hygiene) factor as not meeting the minimum acceptable standards under which they were prepared to invest a lot of effort into their work. Those who regarded the problem as having little effect on their general work motivation could have taken other job context (hygiene / maintenance) factors which were right into account so that the impact of this one factor on their motivation is diluted by other job context factors which met the minimum standards under which they were prepared to work.

In the context of the Equity Theory of Motivation (2.3.8) educational managers should remove adverse working conditions which may create perceptions of inequity when staff measure such conditions against the compensation they receive from the employer. Where staff feel inequity exists they are likely to be demotivated (Bush and West-Burnham 1994:2345; Hofmeyr 1992:26). It is important to note that the key factor in the Equity Theory is whether an inequity is perceived and not whether it actually exists. It is also important to point out that the extent to which inequity is experienced is not the same for all (Robbins 1989:166). This is perhaps why the respondents differ on the way the poor condition of their offices impacts on their motivation.

In brief, educational managers should remove adverse working conditions (as perceived by staff) in order to allow motivators to predominate.

4.2.5.2 Respondents were asked whether they viewed lecturing facilities at the college as adequate and how this impacted on their work motivation (Question 22).

All (100%) respondents said lecturing facilities were inadequate and this had a negative impact on their motivation. The following quotes serve to confirm these findings:

“We have problems with such facilities as overhead projectors. These are inadequate. You are beaten to the few OHPs by others after having prepared a lecture where the use of the OHP would be very effective in delivering learning content. ...One loses the motivation to innovate.”

“These are inadequate. We don’t have enough video equipment, overhead projectors / transparencies, flipcharts, etc. This is demotivating because sometimes you can’t get what you need when you teach.”

“...they are really inadequate. We mainly rely on the chalkboard, imagine. It’s quite demotivating. How do you innovate with such limitations?”

“The facilities are inadequate. We share the lecture theatre with the Degree Programme people, for example, and this forces us to use the Dining Hall sometimes...It is very demotivating.”

“We have very little. We share the lecture theatre, overhead projectors / transparencies, etc. with the B.Ed. programme people. This overstretches our facilities. Some of the lecture rooms are too small for the number of students who have to use them. This negatively affects teaching and learning...It’s rather demotivating.”

These findings confirm this researcher’s own experience as lecturer, then Head of Subject and currently Lecturer-In-Charge of Theory of Education at the college. The inadequacy of facilities has always been a source of frustration and often demotivation on the part of many lecturers.

Some of the theories reviewed in Chapter 2 lend credence to these findings. Vroom’s Expectancy Theory (2.4.7) posits that motivation is a force within a person. The force varies according to two factors, namely expectancy and instrumentality. Expectancy is a perceived relationship between action and its direct outcomes. In this context staff work effectively only when they expect their efforts to produce good outcomes. So if staff perceive facilities as lacking in relation to the job to be accomplished they may be demotivated thinking that it may be impossible to accomplish the task.

In Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory (2.4.1) competence is mentioned as an important esteem need. Staff need to experience a sense of competence. Management, it follows, must ensure that resources are adequate for the work staff have to accomplish. If the facilities are inadequate and staff fail to experience a sense of competence, they may be demotivated.

It is clear from the discussion above that some theories of motivation lend credence to the responses presented above.

4.2.5.3 Respondents were asked whether they regarded their salary as fair compensation for the work they did and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 23).

All (100%) respondents said salaries were reasonable although they could be improved. The respondents generally felt that salary had no substantial effect on their motivation. The following quotes illustrate these findings:

“(Smiling) It’s not enough for my needs...But seriously, I think the salary is reasonable. As it is, it does not affect my motivation really.”

“The salary is not enough given the high cost of living in our country. But when one considers that we are among the best paid civil servants, I would say the salary is reasonable...Umm, it has a neutral effect on my motivation.”

“Well, to be fair the salary is okay, I think...it doesn’t seem to be a factor in my motivation.”

“Umm...I think it’s reasonable. We can’t expect to compete with our counterparts in the private sector...I think the salary has no effect on my motivation.”

“I have no problem with the salary I get...I don’t think it has any impact on my motivation that’s worth talking about.”

These findings confirm this researcher’s expectations since this issue has always been commented on in a manner consistent with the findings every time we have had our annual salary increment. The responses are also consistent with some theories reviewed in chapter 2.

The Equity Theory (2.4.8) holds that to retain staff or to keep them happy in an organisation, they need to perceive that the compensation offered is fair and equitable. The important factor to note regarding the Equity Theory is whether an inequity is perceived and not whether it actually exists. In the case of the respondents quoted above, equity is perceived, hence their indication that the salary they received did not adversely affect their motivation.

Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory (2.4.3) holds that if hygiene factors like salary are right motivational factors can come into play. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (2.4.1) also holds that physiological needs (which can be met if the salary is adequate) should be reasonably satisfied so that higher order needs can predominate. Connacher (1989:7) confirms that higher order needs of autonomy and self-actualisation will not motivate teachers / lecturers unless their lower needs are reasonably satisfied.

The responses presented above have been illuminated by such theories as the Equity Theory, The Hierarchy of Needs Theory and the Motivator-Hygiene-Theory.

4.2.5.4 Respondents were asked what fringe benefits they enjoyed and how this impacted on their motivation (Annexure A: Question 24)

All (100%) respondents indicated that the fringe benefits they got were inferior to those enjoyed by their counterparts in the private sector. While appreciating fringe benefits like accommodation and transport allowances, they felt that fringe benefits did not have a significant impact on their motivation. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“You know, it's not like in the private sector...we are provided with houses and rentals, electricity and water are heavily subsidized. But I don't think this affects

my motivation really.”

“The few fringe benefits like accommodation and transport allowances are okay... but I don’t think these have meaningful impact on my motivation. It’s nothing as big as in the private sector.”

“The fringe benefits are poor if you compare them with what private sector employees get...but this has negligible, if any, impact on my motivation.”

“Very humble fringe benefits...It doesn’t affect my motivation, though, because I already know that in the public sector there are no fringe benefits to talk about.”

“The accommodation and housing allowances are quite pleasing - although inferior to those in the private sector - but this doesn’t seem to influence my motivation.”

The responses presented above indicate that fringe benefits, as a hygiene factor, do not cause any concern to the respondents and so do not adversely impact on the staff motivation. This is consistent with Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory (2.4.3) which holds that when hygiene factors are reasonably met, staff are prepared to do a fair day’s work. The respondents seem not to expect more fringe benefits than they are currently getting. This lack of expectation for more means that the fringe benefits do not directly affect staff motivation.

4.2.5.5 Respondents were asked whether they were satisfied with the administrative support they got and how this impacted on their motivation. (Annexure A: Question 25)

Four (80%) of the respondents felt that administrative support was generally inadequate and this was demotivating. Only one (20%) of the respondents was satisfied with the support she got and this, to her, was motivating. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“...we are expected to give administrative staff work to photocopy and they take days to complete the job- it's frustrating and when you raise this with the administration they don't seem to appreciate the problem. It's really demotivating.”

“Umm, not very supportive. Often they procure what we order in insufficient quantities. They don't seem to appreciate the importance of ordering sufficient materials to use in our work. It tends to demotivate us.”

“Administrative support is lacking. Administration hides behind the claim that there isn't enough money to buy some of the things we need in sufficient quantities.... This is quite demotivating.”

“Well, I think they are doing the best they can...I am satisfied that I get as much administrative support as can be extended to me...and that's motivating.”

“Umm...in my view we don't have the kind of administrative support we need, especially when it comes to resources...I find this quite demotivating.”

These responses are in keeping with what this researcher has experienced at the college. Concern has frequently been voiced by staff regarding what they perceived to be lack of administrative support. In accordance with Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory (2.4.3) this lack of administrative support constitutes a dissatisfier which contributes to the depression of staff performance (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1988:144). Such a dissatisfier needs to be removed so that motivators predominate resulting in the enhancement of staff performance. Four (80%) of the respondents indicated that lack of administrative support is largely in the form of inadequate provision of resources. In the context of McGregor's Two-Factor Theory(2.4.4), Connacher (1989:7) comments that educational managers should organize the elements of an educational institution (money, materials, equipment and people) in the interest of educational needs. Management should facilitate for staff to reach their own goals while at the same time fulfilling

organizational objectives. When management is perceived as not being supportive, staff become demotivated (as confirmed by the responses presented above). In the case where the respondent felt she got the support she expected from administration, the respondent confirmed that this motivated her.

In short, the responses presented above confirm that when staff perceive a lack of administrative support, their motivation is liable to be adversely affected. So educational management must be seen to be supportive so as to raise the motivational levels of staff.

4.2.5.6 Respondents were asked to describe management policies at the college and how they affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 26)

All (100%) respondents felt that management policies were not clearly articulated and three (60%) thought the policies were inequitably administered. Four (80%) of the respondents felt this had a demotivating effect on them. The following quotes support these findings:

“These are not clear. You get to know about some of these policies only when there is a crisis...it’s demotivating.”

“Communication on the policies is woefully lacking. To make matters worse, the policies don’t apply equally, there is favouritism- some are informed, others are not. This is demotivating.”

“These need to be clearly stated. To be made aware of a certain policy when things have gone wrong is demoralizing. The policies also need to be applied fairly and consistently. Where this does not happen, it demotivates me.”

“Well, I am not sure whether they are clearly articulated...It doesn’t bother me much, though.”

“(Laughing) College policies? If they exist they are not applied fairly. When some people go out of line administration descends heavily on them but when others do the same, they are mildly reprimanded. This can be demotivating.”

These findings are in harmony with this researcher’s experiences at the college. Communication is poor and favouritism is perceivable when it comes to administering management policies. Some of the dominant motivation theories reviewed in Chapter 2 illuminate the responses presented above.

In the context of Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene-theory (2.4.3), poor policies and poor supervisory practices such as ineffective communication and favouritism can compromise motivation and so need to be corrected in order that motivators take effect (Dunn and Dunn 1977:74)

The Equity Theory (2.4.8) also holds that managerial unfairness or favouritism is inimical to the enhancement of motivation. In terms of the Equity Theory educational managers must remove adverse working conditions such as cited by the respondents, which may create perceptions of inequity. So the two theories (Hezberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory and the Equity Theory) can be seen as collaboratively confirming and illuminating the responses presented above.

4.2.5.7 Respondents were asked to describe the leadership style prevailing at the college and indicate how it impacted on their motivation (Question 27).

All the respondents explicitly said the leadership style was laissez- faire and that it adversely affected their motivation. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“It’s laissez-faire – sometimes people just do what they want. This demoralizes those who do their work properly. Administration needs to improve communication with staff.”

“(Laughing) They mean well with all of us, but I think the leadership style gives

room for anarchy. People come to work and go away any time they like. This is a travesty of professional discipline. I think this can somewhat demotivate those who are disciplined.”

“(Laughing) The leadership style is laissez-faire. It creates problems. That’s why we have so many absentee lecturers... Yeah, this can be demotivating, but I think to a limited extent.”

“The leadership style needs some improvement. It’s laissez-faire but it doesn’t really affect my motivation.”

“Aah, it’s laissez-faire. We need improvement here. This can kill the college if it is not attended to urgently. Some lecturers even ‘forget’ to take their lectures and nothing happens to them. It kind of demotivates those of us who are duty conscious.”

The findings presented above confirm what this researcher has observed over the years. The problem with the laissez-faire style of leadership is that explicit goals are rarely set, problems are solved ad hoc, staff are expected to motivate themselves with little or no feedback on their performance (Van Wyk and Van Der Linde 1997:19). This leadership style is in violation of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs both at the social needs level and the esteem needs level. At the social needs level Mills (1987:39) comments that staff needs someone to listen to their problems, solutions and concerns, someone to care about them as people. The laissez-faire leadership style does not seem to take care of the social needs of staff. At the esteem needs level the laissez-faire leadership style provides very little or no feedback on staff performance. Staff will thus not know whether their efforts are recognised and appreciated. So the laissez-faire leadership style neglects the need for recognition and the need for appreciation, among other needs.

In terms of Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory(2.4.3), the laissez-faire

leadership style constitutes dissatisfiers such as poor, uncoordinated planning, poor policies and poor supervisory practices which are inimical to the boosting of motivation.

In the context of Vroom's Expectancy Theory (2.4.7), Silver (1983:329) comments that educational managers should allocate praise recognition, some privileges, and opportunities for growth (all rewards) as well as criticism, disapproval and tedious tasks (all penalties). This way they can influence staff members' expectancies and their perceived instrumentalities, and thus motivate them to achieve desired outcomes/goals. Under the laissez-faire leadership style all this does not happen (as indicated in preceding paragraphs)- employees have to motivate themselves.

In short, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory and Vroom's Expectancy Theory collaboratively illuminate the responses presented above. The theories confirm that the laissez-faire leadership style generally impacts negatively on staff motivation.

4.2.5.8 Respondents were asked whether they thought the objectives/goals they were expected to fulfil were realistic and whether they participated in the formulation of the objectives. They were also asked to indicate how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Questions 28 and 29).

All respondents (100%) felt that the objectives/goals they were expected to achieve were realistic although sometimes the lack of provision of facilities to achieve some of the objectives created unnecessary problems. The respondents also said they participated in the formulation of the objectives to the extent that they are involved in syllabus review in their subject areas where they confirmed or altered all or some of the objectives/goals set out in syllabus. They also confirmed that when they filled in performance appraisal forms at the beginning of each term they participated in formulating objectives/goals they would hope to

fulfil during the appraisal period.

“The goals are realistic, no problem there... We participate in their formulation during syllabus review as well as when we fill in performance appraisal forms where we have to agree with our immediate supervisor on the objectives to be met... Yeah, all this is motivating, I would say.”

“The objectives are quite realistic, perhaps it’s because we participate in formulating them... It impacts positively on one’s motivation.”

“They are realistic... we contribute towards their formulation... I think this has a motivating effect.”

“They are achievable... and that is encouraging, except when facilities are not made available to competently achieve them... Yes, we participate in formulating the objectives- this makes us committed to the realisation of the objectives.”

“Yeah, we do make an input... that’s why they are achievable. I find it motivating, I should say, to work towards objectives I helped set.”

These findings are in keeping with the experiences of this researcher and some of the dominant motivation theories reviewed in Chapter 2.

MaGregor’s Theory Y holds that among other things, when truly committed to an objective, people will exercise self-control and self-direction. Grant (1990:38) elaborates by saying that performance increases more significantly when employees have participated in formulating the objectives than when objectives have been set and allocated without their participation. They will be more inclined to work for the fulfilment of the objectives on the basis of having been allowed to contribute towards what they are expected to achieve, the level of achievement expected of them, and when achievement is expected (Grant 1990:38). Grant’s comments are in keeping with what staff at the college being investigated said they experienced after having helped set objectives during the completion of

performance appraisal forms at the start of every term.

In terms of Vroom's Expectancy Theory, hard to achieve objectives may result in demotivation and poor performance. If one perceives one's own capabilities as inadequate for the attainment of an objective, the intensity of one's motivation is adversely affected (Silver 1983:323). Staff like those interviewed who help formulate the objectives they have to meet are likely to perceive them as achievable, so they are prepared to invest a lot of time, energy and effort in the realisation of the objectives.

In the context of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, objectives that are difficult to achieve offer very few opportunities for staff to experience feelings of competence. Satisfying the need for competence is motivating to staff. If they do not experience feelings of competence motivation suffers (Daniels, 2000:121; Capozzoli, 1997:16; Gensing, 1991:47).

In short, the respondents have affirmed that helping in the setting of objectives which are attainable has a motivating effect on them. This is supported by some of the theories outlined above (and also reviewed in Chapter 2).

4.2.5.9 Respondents were asked whether they participated in decision-making and what impact this had on their motivation (Annexure A: Question 30).

Three (60%) said they were not as involved as they would like to be and this impacted negatively on their motivation. Two (40%) said they were involved and this motivated them. The following quotes illustrate these findings :

"As Head of Subject I am not involved in decision making to the extent I would like to...It's rather demotivating when they make uninformed decisions affecting my subject area without consulting me."

"It's really demotivating the way decisions are made at this college. There is very

little consultation. It's all imposition."

"Well, there are insufficient opportunities allowed for decision- making...it's quite demotivating."

"I am involved in decision- making and this is quite motivating because it makes me feel valued...and so I become committed to the decisions I help make."

"The procedures regarding decision making try to involve people at various levels such as subject area, section, and department. I find this quite motivating."

These findings are in harmony with what this researcher has always known, namely that at our college some people are involved in decision- making and others are not. Some of the theories reviewed in Chapter 2 illuminate these findings.

In accordance with McClelland's Manifest Needs Theory (2.4.6), staff with a high need for autonomy should have the latitude to make their own decisions unencumbered with excessive rules and procedures. If staff are not able to plan their own work and decide on how to solve their own work problems, it is not likely that they will be motivated (Mol 1991:22). But if they are allowed to plan their own work the best way they know how and to use their judgement to solve problems, they are inclined to be committed to making "their" plans succeed.

The autonomy level in Porter's Model (2.4.2) refers to one's need to participate in making decisions that affect one and also to exercise influence in controlling the work situation. The autonomy level involves the need to participate in setting job-related goals, the need to be able to make decisions and to have the latitude to work independently. If all these needs are met, staff's motivation will be highly enhanced. It would appear the respondents quoted above who thought they sufficiently participated in decision-making believed that they took part in making decisions that affected them and were thus able to exercise influence in

controlling their situation.

The respondents have confirmed that not being afforded opportunities to participate in decision-making impacted negatively on their motivation while taking part in decision-making positively influenced their motivation.

4.2.5.10 Respondents were asked whether they got sufficient feedback from management and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 32).

Three (60%) said they did not get feedback and this demotivated them while two (40%) said they got insufficient feedback, which they found demotivating. On the few occasions they got feedback, they found it motivating. The following quotes illustrate these findings:

“Quite honestly I don’t think they know how we perform. That’s why they don’t say anything about our performance ...It’s demotivating really.”

“The feedback is poor. We get it at the end of the year during external assessment! That’s not good for our motivation.”

“Generally demotivating. They don’t come to lectures to supervise ...so they cannot claim to know how we perform.”

“Well, the few occasions I get feedback from management make me feel very highly motivated. I just wish it happens more often.”

“When there is feedback from management it is highly motivating but the pity is that this doesn’t happen often...and this doesn’t motivate one.”

The findings are consistent with some of the motivation theories reviewed in Chapter 2.

Both Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory affirm that the need for recognition is a great motivator. Recognition can only be effected by means of positive feedback. The Positive Reinforcement Theory holds that (performances) activities that meet with pleasurable consequences have a likelihood to be repeated and those which result in unpleasurable consequences tend not to be repeated. Reinforcement can only be possible through feedback. A lack of feedback is regarded by Hagemann (1992:57) as "the biggest killer of motivation at work." An employee needs to be told whether he/she is achieving what he/she is supposed to achieve. Feedback is, in the words of Daniels (2000:101), "information about performance that allows an individual to adjust his or her performance." Without feedback there is no learning (see also Capozzoli, 1997:17).

In short, the responses presented above and the motivation theories referred to in the discussion above confirm that when feedback is absent motivation is compromised, if not killed altogether, and also that where there is feedback motivation is enhanced.

4.2.5.11 Respondents were asked whether they regarded communication at the college as effective and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 31).

All (100%) respondents felt that communication was poor and this negatively affected their motivation. The following quotes testify to these findings:

"Communication is poor indeed and management needs to improve this aspect. Circulars are sometimes displayed late- the information will be stale...I think it's necessary for administration to make clear their expectations of us so that we work with that knowledge. The situation at the moment is demoralising...quite demotivating."

"Communication...this aspect must be improved upon. We don't get information

timeously and sometimes we get it from students, eg. when administration arbitrarily change the closing date for a term! This can be quite frustrating and demotivating.”

“I wish administration could improve this aspect. We sometimes don’t get important information in time ...well, I would say this adversely affects motivation.”

“There is room for improvement here. At the moment it’s demoralising ...yeah, I think it’s demotivating.”

“Umm, it doesn’t look like administration knows the importance of effective communication. The situation is really bad. It is very frustrating when communication isn’t effective ... it is indeed demotivating.”

These findings confirm this researcher’s experience at the college, namely that communication is generally ineffective and that this often compromises staff’s motivation. (see also Annexure C)

Some of the theories reviewed in Chapter 2 also illuminate these findings. In terms of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory, if communication is ineffective security and safety needs are threatened. To meet these needs Matlawe (1989: 13) exhorts educational managers to communicate, at the outset, their wishes and expectations. What needs to be done should be spelt out precisely and in the simplest form. Management has to be specific in telling staff what is expected of them and how they are expected to behave (Stroh 2001: 67). At the esteem needs level of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, the need for recognition and achievement are great motivators. This is corroborated by Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory which regards recognition and achievement as motivators. Effective communication is necessary to confirm to staff that their good performance is recognised, that they are valued because they are achieving set objectives. Effective communication is also important in indicating to staff what

they are not doing properly and how they could improve their practice. This will enhance staff's chances of fulfilling their achievement needs. Communicating to staff by praising them for a job well done will increase the likelihood of the good performance being repeated (Positive Reinforcement Theory).

In a nutshell, the respondents affirmed that when communication is ineffective motivation is adversely affected. The affirmation has support in some of the motivation theories reviewed in Chapter 2 and referred to in the preceding paragraph.

4.2.5.12 Respondents were asked what view they thought management held of them as professionals and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 6). All (100%) respondents said management had a positive view of them and this positively influenced their motivation. The following quotes illustrate these findings:

"I believe they take me seriously as a professional... as one who attaches significance on his work... Yeah, this positively affects my motivation because they regard me that way so I must live up to their expectation."

"I think they respect me as a professional and value the contribution I make... I would want management to continually have a positive view of me, so this motivates me to perform well."

"Yeah I think they have high regard of me... It motivates me because I want to keep it that way."

"Well, I think that they have a positive image of me. They seem to take me as a committed prof, and that is very motivating."

"Their view of me is positive, I think... Of cause it positively influences my

motivation.”

All (100%) respondents thought management had a positive view of them and that this motivated them because they wanted to continue being valued by management. This is consistent with Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory. At the esteem needs level one needs, among other things, to be appreciated and valued (see earlier discussion under 4.2.4.4 above).

4.2.5.13 Respondents were asked whether they had a positive relationship with their immediate superior and how this impacted on their motivation (Annexure A: Question 7).

All (100%) respondents said they had a positive relationship with their immediate superior and that this impacted positively on their motivation. The following quotes confirm these findings:

“Oh! We are actually friends... I think this positively influences my motivation because I do not want to betray him.”

“Well, let me say we are on first name terms... of course this impacts positively on my motivation. She has so much trust in me I wouldn’t want to disappoint her.”

“We are kind of close. I am sure this has positive effect on my motivation... because I wouldn’t work in a manner that violates his confidence in me.”

“We are quite close... and I think it positively influences my motivation. I wouldn’t want to destroy this friendship by failing to fulfil objectives I am supposed to meet.”

“He is my friend... In fact we were together at University. He has confidence in my capacity for good performance... and I wouldn’t want to betray his confidence in me.”

These responses are illuminated by Grant (1990:80) when he says friendship builds trust and respect. No one likes to disappoint a friend. Grant goes on to say if staff know that the accomplishment of a task is important to the manager who is a friend, they are disposed to value what they achieve more highly. The element of trust is evident in the responses given above. In the context of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (2.4.4) the educational manager should delegate trust appropriately. If he/she fails to extend trust to his staff adequately, apathy, resentment and conditions typical of Theory X are likely to prevail (Connacher 1989:8).

In a nutshell, educational managers should build friendship with subordinates as a way of enhancing their motivation.

4.2.6 Motivation and personal and organisational goals congruence.

Respondents were asked whether their personal goals were congruent with those of the college and how this affected their motivation (Annexure A: Question 8).

Three (60%) of the respondents said their personal goals were congruent with those of the college and this had a positive effect on their motivation. One (20%) respondent said some of his personal goals were congruent with some of the college's goals, and this had "medium" effect on his motivation. One (20%) said to some extent college frustrates his goals and this was demotivating. The following quotes testify to these findings:

"Umm, I would say they are largely congruent with those of the college... My motivation is not adversely affected ... Rather I should say it is motivating to achieve college goals while achieving my own goals."

"College seems to be promoting my own goals, and this is highly motivating ... I think it's because my personal goals coincide with those of the college."

“E-eh, I think to some extent the college frustrates my personal goals, for example telling me that I am too junior to go on study leave! This is demotivating ... it frustrates one’s ambition.”

“There are some which are congruent and others which are not-not sure which to put in the majority... the incongruence demotivates me but the congruence motivates me ... I would say the effect this has is medium.”

“Well, I think basically my goals are congruent with those of the college ... it’s motivating to meet one’s goals while fulfilling organisational goals, I think.”

In the context of McGregor’s Theory (2.4.4) if the needs of staff are taken into account by management, staff will voluntarily integrate their objectives with those of the organisation. When this happens they become committed to the objectives and they will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of such objectives.

In short, the educational manager should arrange and organise methods of operation so that staff can reach their own goals to best effect by, in Connacher’s (1989:8) words “...directing their efforts towards general school (college) objectives.”

4.2.7 Need for educational managers to study theories of motivation.

Respondents were asked whether they thought it essential for educational managers to study theories of motivation and whether they thought educational managers at the college had enough knowledge of theories of motivation (Annexure A: Questions 33 and 34).

4.2.7.1 Firstly, respondents were asked whether they thought it essential for educational managers to study theories of motivation.

All (100%) respondents said it was essential for educational managers to study theories of motivation . Witness the following quotes :

“Yes indeed...because they (theories of motivation) provide guidance as to how to identify factors that motivate individuals and they also lend ideas on how to employ various motivational strategies to cater for the varying needs of individual officers.”

“It is significant for educational managers to study theories of motivation because they would be guided regarding how to motivate staff.”

“Definitely! Educational managers ignorant of theories of motivation are incapacitated when it comes to motivating staff, that’s for sure.”

“I wonder how one would competently motivate staff without having learned about how people are motivated and what motivates them.”

“Clearly it’s necessary for educational managers to study theories of motivation so that they can effectively motivate their subordinates.”

It has emerged from the responses presented above that studying theories of motivation is helpful in making the educational managers understand the needs of man, thereby enhancing their skill to motivate subordinates.

Authorities cited in 2.3.2 confirm the need for educational managers to study theories of motivation. Suffice it to say, in the words of Schofield (1988) in Hofmeyr 1992:41, to create a motivational climate in educational institutions, there is need for a self-motivated educational leader who has, inter alia, an understanding of motivation theory.

4.2.7.2 Respondents were asked whether educational managers at the college

had enough knowledge of theories of motivation (Annexure A: Question 34).

All (100%) said they did not think educational managers at the college had enough knowledge of theories of motivation. The following quotes confirm this finding:

“Certainly they are not sufficiently knowledgeable regarding motivation theories- their behaviour often confirms this!”

“Educational managers here are not sufficiently knowledgeable regarding motivation theories. Their conduct shows that.”

“They would be more effective if they were sufficiently knowledgeable about theories of motivation.”

“I think they need staff development so that they can meaningfully motivate staff.”

“ If they had sufficient knowledge about theories of motivation I think staff here would be very highly motivated.”

The responses presented above confirm the need for educational managers to study theories of motivation. In a way the responses confirm the usefulness of such research as this one.

4.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter findings generated from interviews, observation and field notes were presented and discussed in the context of theories of motivation reviewed in chapter 2. The theories of motivation singly and collaboratively illuminated the findings. To facilitate the presentation and discussion of the findings, main theme/categories emerging from the data gathered were used.

It was established that there were some factors which motivated staff and others which demotivated them. The incidence of motivation and demotivation was such that in their day-to-day work at college, staff were generally just motivated (not highly or very highly motivated, as confirmed by their responses in 4.2.1).

The findings confirmed, among other things, the need for education managers to motivate staff in order to enhance their (staff) performance and the need for education managers to study theories of motivation in order for them to be able for them to competently motivate staff.

In the next chapter conclusions drawn from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the empirical data presented and discussed in this chapter (Chapter 4) are presented. Recommendations based on the reviewed literature and the empirical data are also be made.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter it is confirmed that the research problem has been addressed and the research aim achieved. The major focus is on the conclusions drawn from, and the recommendations based on, the literature reviewed in chapter 2 and the empirical data presented and discussed in chapter 4.

5.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE RESEARCH AIM

The research problem (What role do educational managers play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution?) was addressed. While addressing the research question, the concept motivation was defined with the help of several authorities. In the context of this research motivation was basically defined as making people want to work thereby giving their best performance. The managerial role of educational managers was also clarified and described using a variety of sources. Briefly, it was established that educational managers played the role of inciting staff to perform to the best of their ability in order to meet organisational goals while meeting their own personal goals. This could be done by removing job context factors which depressed motivation and promoting job content factors which enhanced motivation. (The job context and job content factors are referred to in 5.3.4 and 5.3.5 below.) The implications of lecturers' lack of motivation were explored too and it was established that lack of motivation or demotivation impacted adversely on lecturers' work performance by contributing to the quality of their performance falling below their real potential. Strategies that could be put in place to motivate lecturers were also identified in the process of addressing the research problem

(and these are referred to in 5.4 below). In addressing the research problem the aim of the research (To establish what role educational managers can play in the motivation of professional staff in a higher education institution in order to improve students' performance) was achieved (as indicated earlier on in this paragraph).

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions were drawn from the related literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the empirical data presented and discussed in Chapter 4 according to the categories that emerged as the main or repetitive themes. These will be presented as follows:

5.3.1 GENERAL LEVEL OF MOTIVATION

Respondents affirmed that on a scale ranging from motivated, highly motivated to very highly motivated, they were generally just motivated (not highly or very highly) to work in their day-to-day work at college. This confirmed the need for educational managers at the college to competently play their role of raising the motivational levels of staff.

5.3.2 MOTIVATION AND WORK PERFORMANCE

It was established that the feeling of motivation had a positive impact on work performance while the feeling of demotivation had an adverse effect on work performance. So it is incumbent on educational managers to create conditions that boost staff motivation and banish those conditions that depress staff motivation.

5.3.3 MOTIVATION AND REWARDS

This research has confirmed that when rewards related to performance were not equitably distributed, staff motivation was depressed. Consequently, educational leaders must not only fairly allocate rewards but must also be perceived by staff as equitably distributing performance related rewards.

5.3.4 MOTIVATION AND JOB CONTENT FACTORS

Job content factors (motivational factors), it was established in this research, must exist in order for staff to produce their best performance. The job content factors are referred to below.

5.3.4.1 Opportunities for advancement

It was confirmed in this research that the existence of opportunities for advancement had a positive impact on staff motivation, especially when advancement was a consequence of high performance. Thus educational managers must provide staff with opportunities for advancement.

5.3.4.2 Opportunities for personal growth and responsibility

The existence of opportunities for personal growth and responsibility was established as having a positive impact on staff motivation, hence the need for educational managers to facilitate for staff to experience personal growth and responsibility.

5.3.4.3 Opportunities for achievement

This research confirmed that when opportunities for achievement existed staff motivation was boosted. Consequently management should provide resources, among other things, to enable staff to experience a sense of achievement.

5.3.4.4 Recognition for work done

The research has validated the idea that when one's efforts were recognised one's motivation got boosted and when one's efforts went unrecognised one's motivation got depressed. Thus educational managers should recognise the good work done by their subordinates.

5.3.4.5 The work itself

It was established that aspects of the job (such as the degree of autonomy the job allowed, the interaction with students the job involved and lecturing itself) which made the work enjoyable and satisfying motivated staff and that those aspects of the job (such as marking a big load of students' work and going to rural areas to supervise student teachers on Teaching Practice) which made the work unenjoyable depressed staff motivation or demotivated them. Educational managers should therefore manipulate aspects of the job to the extent that they become more interesting, challenging and more satisfying in order to assure greater effort on the part of the staff.

5.3.5 MOTIVATION AND JOB CONTEXT FACTORS

This research has demonstrated that job context factors (hygiene or extrinsic or environmental factors) must be adequately present for motivational factors to take effect- when they are not sufficiently present, job dissatisfaction may set in. The job context factors are referred to below.

5.3.5.1 Physical working conditions

According to this research, poor physical working conditions like the poor quality of offices had a negative effect on the motivations of the staff who perceived such conditions as constituting inequity when measured against the compensation they received from the employer. So the need for educational managers to remove adverse working conditions (as perceived by staff) so that motivators can predominate is self-evident.

5.3.5.2 Inadequate facilities

This research has confirmed that the inadequacy of facilities (such as overhead projectors/transparencies, flip charts and lecture rooms.) impacted negatively on staff motivation hence the need for the provision of adequate facilities.

5.3.5.3 Salary

In accordance with this research, when salary was regarded as fair and equitable it did not directly affect one's motivation. Rather, it (salary) allowed higher order needs (motivators) to predominate. Thus it is incumbent upon management to ensure that staff get a salary they perceive to be fair compensation.

5.2.5.4 Fringe benefits

When fringe benefits staff received did not cause any concern to them, in other words if the fringe benefits were not perceived by staff as constituting an inequity, they did not directly affect staff motivation. But when the hygiene factors like fringe benefits and salary were reasonably met, staff were prepared to do a fair day's work, hence the need for educational managers to ensure such factors are perceivable to staff as constituting fair compensation.

5.3.5.5 Administrative support

When administrative support was regarded as inadequate, staff motivation was depressed- it (lack of administrative staff) could lead to demotivation. So in the context of this research administrative support should be in evidence so that staff motivation is not killed.

5.3.5.6 Management policies

In accordance with this research, when management policies were not clearly articulated and were inequitably administered, staff got demotivated, hence the need for management to clearly articulate policies and to equitably administer them.

5.3.5.7 Leadership style

It was established by this research that when leadership style was laissez-faire some members of staff were demotivated. Management therefore needs to come up with a leadership style or a combination of leadership styles that would meet the needs of staff.

5.3.5.8 The setting of objectives

When staff participated in the formulation of realistic/achievable objectives, they became "joint owners" of the objectives and were thus committed to the fulfilment of such objectives. In keeping with this research, educational managers need to allow for the participation of staff in the setting of realistic goals.

5.3.5.9 Participation in decision-making

In terms of this research, when staff were not involved in decision-making it impacted negatively on their motivation, but when they were involved it motivated them. Thus there is need for educational management to enable staff to participate in making decisions that affect them.

5.3.5.10 Adequacy of feedback from management

When feedback from management was absent or insufficient staff got demotivated, hence the need for educational managers at various levels to provide sufficient and consistent feedback for staff motivation to be enhanced.

5.3.5.11 Effectiveness of communication

This research confirmed that when communication was poor (with staff not being made aware of management expectations or not receiving feedback as to whether they were doing their work properly, or which aspects of their work needed what kind of improvement) staff became demotivated. Educational managers thus need to open channels of communication so that staff motivation is not depressed.

5.3.5.12 Management's view of staff as professionals

In the context of this research, when staff felt that management had a positive view of them as professionals their motivation was positively influenced, hence the significance of management to have a positive view of staff.

5.3.5.13 The relationship between staff and their immediate superiors

When staff had a positive relationship (to the point of being friends!) with their immediate superiors it impacted positively on their motivation. Educational managers should therefore build friendship with subordinates in order to enhance their motivation.

5.3.6 MOTIVATION AND PERSONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL GOALS CONGRUENCE

This research has also established that when personal goals were congruent with those of the college staff motivation was boosted. When there was incongruence between personal goals and organisational goals motivation was depressed.

5.3.7 NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGERS TO STUDY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The research has concluded that educational managers at the college did not have enough knowledge of theories of motivation and that it was necessary for them to study these theories.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the empirical data presented and discussed in chapter 4, educational managers are recommended to do the following:

- Avoid managerial unfairness or favouritism

- Remove adverse working conditions such as dirty, crowded and poorly ventilated offices.
- Assess the skills staff possess so that where necessary staff will be staff developed/trained so as to acquire the requisite skills to achieve goals they are expected to achieve so that they experience feelings of competence.
- Consistently allocate rewards and penalties on the basis of quality teaching/lecturing performance.
- Develop a clear relationship between performance and reward.
- Individualise rewards to match personal goals that are consistent with those of the college, bearing in mind the need to give individuals the rewards they value.
- Subordinate personal power (which can adversely affect the motivation of staff) to institutional power (which can positively affect staff motivation).
- Match the individual's level of achievement need and his/her role in the organisation so that one with a high need of achievement is not put in a position requiring little responsibility or challenge (or vice versa).
- Provide adequate resources to enable staff to accomplish their work thereby experiencing a sense of achievement and competence.
- Provide opportunities for self-growth, achievement, advancement and responsibility by, for example, delegating responsibility and using peers to staff develop others.
- Involve staff in policy formulation so that they identify with the policies.

- Involve staff in decision-making so that they have some control over their work.
- Involve staff in setting realistic/achievable objectives so that they are motivated to fulfil “their” objectives.
- Demonstrate trust for staff so that they feel that they belong and that they have a degree of autonomy.
- Provide adequate and consistent feedback so that staff know that the good work they do is recognised and also so that they become aware of where they have shortcomings which they need to improve on.
- Give staff the latitude to work independently so that they can demonstrate creativity.
- Adopt a lenient and democratic management style which allows ingenuity and resourcefulness to flourish.
- Recognise the good work done by staff.
- Involve staff in job-redesigning meant to make their work meaningful, challenging, enjoyable and significant.
- Develop a system which fosters positive interpersonal feelings where one can give and receive friendship and love.
- Use compatible teams and task groups to enable staff to participate in group activities thereby boosting their motivation as this creates a feeling of belonging.

- Adopt an open-door policy and sound communication skills so that staff feel that they have someone to listen to their problems, solutions and concerns- someone to care about them as individuals.
- Communicate at the onset your wishes and expectations, for example using formulated policies and regulations thereby making their (staff) work environment predictable.
- Establish an effective communication system which allows everybody to communicate freely with everybody else.
- Develop friendship with staff since subordinates are more likely to listen to their superior who is a friend rather than to one who is unfriendly.
- Enhance the self-belief of staff through a facilitative approach which assures staff that they can get whatever help they need.
- Be self-critical in order to dispense with those behaviours that can impact negatively on staff motivation.

5.5 COMMENT ON THE RECOMMENDATIONS

It must be noted that people are motivated by different factors. They have individual differences and perceptions as well as different qualities and aspirations. Thus a given strategy may have a different motivational impact on different people. Therefore educational managers need to give enough thought to the factors that motivate individual members of staff.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In view of the fact that a dissertation of limited scope such as this one cannot address the full range of motivational factors influencing the individual, further research is recommended. The focus of further research could be on establishing which factors have the greatest motivational potency as well as on the factors which cause the greatest demotivation. More colleges could also be investigated in order to get a more comprehensive understanding of motivation as a managerial task in Higher Education institutions.

5.7 CONCLUSION

In the process of addressing the research problem and achieving the research aim (see 5.2), this study has established the need for educational managers to pay attention to the issue of motivation at the college. Such attention should be based on frequent assessment of staff attitudes and disposition. The managers need to be knowledgeable regarding theories of motivation in order for them to be able to competently motivate their subordinates.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J.S. 1965. 'Inequality is social exchange' in Berkowitz, L. (ed).
ADVANCES IN EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY 2. New York:
Academic Press.
- Andrew, L., Parks, D.J., Nelson, L.A. & The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on
Teacher/Faculty Morale. 1985. ADMINISTRATOR'S HANDBOOK:
IMPROVING FACULTY MORALE. Bloomington Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa.
- Ary, D, Jacobs, L.C and Razavieh, A.1996. INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH IN
EDUCATION. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Bartelson, E.D. 1990. AN ANALYSIS OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS'
PERCEPTIONS OF SATISFIERS AFFECTING TEACHER MOTIVATION.
Ann Arber, M1: University Microfilms.
- Beach, D.S. 1980. PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT: THE MANAGEMENT OF
PEOPLE AT WORK. London: Macmillan.
- Beard, P.N.G. 1988. Heads of Departments as Leaders. SAJHE/SATHO. Vol. 2,
No. 2, 1988 pp.48-56.
- Belilos, C. 1997. UNDERSTANDING EMPLOYEE DRIVES AND MOTIVATIONS
– THE FIRST STEP TOWARDS MOTIVATION AT WORK. Internet:
[http://www.
easytraining.com/motivation.htm](http://www.easytraining.com/motivation.htm).
- Bell, L. & Rhodes, C. 1996. THE SKILLS OF PRIMARY SCHOOL
MANAGEMENT. London: Routledge.
- Bess, J.L. 1982. UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION: AMATRIX OF THE ACADEMIC
PROFESSIONS. New York: Human Sciences Press.
- Birch, D. & Veroff, J. 1966. MOTIVATION: A STUDY OF ACTION. Monterey, Ca:
Brooks Cole.

- Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. 1992. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FOR EDUCATION: AN INTRODUCTION TO THEORY AND METHODS. Boston: Allyn and Bacon
- Borg, W.R. & Gall, M.D. 1989. EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH: AN INTRODUCTION. 5TH Edition. New York: Longman.
- Bush, T. & West-Burnham, J. 1994. THE PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT. Harlow: Longman.
- Capozzoli, T.K. 1997. Creating a motivational environment for employees. SUPERVISION. 58(4).
- Connacher, R. 1989. Staff Development and Professional Growth. TEACHERS' JOURNAL 29 (1): 6-12.
- Cresswell, J.W. 1998. QUALITATIVE INQUIRY AND RESEARCH DESIGN: CHOOSING AMONG FIVE TRADITIONS. London: Sage.
- Daniels, A.C. 2000. BRINGING THE BEST OUT OF PEOPLE. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Dean, J. 1995. MANAGING THE PRIMARY SCHOOL. London: Routledge.
- Denny, R. 1993. MOTIVATE TO WIN. London : Kogan Page.
- De Vos, A.S (ed) 1998. RESEARCH AT GRASSROOTS. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- De Witt, J.T. 1997. Personnel management at a Tertiary Educational Institution. TERTIARY EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT (TEROBE-L). Tutorial Letter III/1997.
- Denscombe, M. 1998. THE GOOD RESEARCH GUIDE FOR SMALL SCALE SOCIAL RESEARCH PROJECTS. Buckingham: Open University.
- Duff, J. 1987. FACTORS CAUSING STRESS AMONG JUNIOR PRIMARY ENGLISH SPEAKING SCHOOL TEACHERS DURING YEARS OF THEIR

- CAREERS: A MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE. Unpublished M. Ed. Dissertation.
- Dull, L. W. 1981. SUPERVISION: SCHOOL LEADERSHIP HANDBOOK. Toronto: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
- Dunn, R. & Dunn, K.J. 1977. ADMINISTRATOR'S GUIDE TO NEW PROGRAMS FOR FACULTY MANAGEMENT AND EVALUATION. New York: Parker Publishing Company.
- Eble, K.E. 1978. THE ART OF ADMINISTRATION. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Engelking, J.L. 1987. Attracting and retaining quality teachers through incentives. NASSP BULLETIN. 71 (500), September:1-8.
- Evenden, R. & Anderson, G. 1992. MANAGEMENT SKILLS: MAKING THE MOST OF PEOPLE. Workingham: Addison-Wesley.
- Evenson, R. 1998. Motivating to develop an all-star team. SUPERVISION. 59(10).
- Everard, K.B. & Morris, G. 1996. EFFECTIVE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT. London: Harper & Row.
- Fetterman, D.M. (ed) 1984. ETHNOGRAPHY IN EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Flippo, E. P. 1984. PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Franken, T. 1994. Motivation : changing 'must work' into a 'want to work'. ENTREPRENEUR. 13(3).
- Gannon, M.J. 1977. MANAGEMENT: AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERSPECTIVE. Boston: Little Brown.

- Geloo, Z. 2000. Zambia: Education for All, A Pipe Dream. NISC DISCOVER REPORT. AFRICAN STUDIES – May 2000.
- Gerber, P.D., Nel, P.S. & Van Dyk, P.S. 1987. MANNEKRAGBESTUUR. Johannesburg: Southern.
- Grant, P.C. 1990. THE EFFORT-NET RETURN MODEL OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION. New York: Quorum Books.
- Gray, J.L. & Starke, F.A. 1988. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR, CONEPTS AND APPLICATION. 4th ed. Columbus: Merrill.
- Hagemann, G. 1992. THE MOTIVATIONAL MANUAL. Vermont: Gower.
- Herzberg, F. 1966. MOTIVATION TO WORK. New York: John Wiley.
- Herzberg, F., Maustner, B. & Synderman, B.B. 1959. THE MOTIVATION TO WORK. New York: Wiley.
- Hill, J.B. 1998. Strategies for successful managers. SUPERVISION. 59(6).
- Hoberg, S.M. (ed) 1999. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY. Study Guide 2: MEDEM 2-R. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Hofmeyr, A.C. 1992. THE MOTIVATION OF STAFF IN AN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION. Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation. University of Witwatersrand.
- Hoy, W.K. & Miskel, C.G. 1987. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE. New York: Random House.
- Huizinga, G.H. 1970. MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY IN THE WORK SITUATION. Walters-Noordhof.
- Johannson, H. & Page, G.T. 1990. INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY OF MANAGEMENT. 4th ed. London: Kogan Page.

- Koontz, H., O'Donnell, C. & Wehrich, H. 1986. MANAGEMENT. 8th Edition. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.
- Kushel, G. 1994. REACHING THE PEAK PERFORMANCE ZONE. New York: Amacom.
- Lawley, 1985. 'Tackling Morale'. EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT 13, 3, pp.199-206.
- Lisoski, E. 1999. Five key success factors of outstanding recognition programs. SUPERVISION. 60(9).
- Litwin, G.H. & Stringer, R.A. 1968. MOTIVATION AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE. Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University.
- Manser, P. 2000. When incentives are intrinsic. NUE. Vol 4, No. 2. p.6.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. 1999. DESIGNING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH. 3rd Edition. London: SAGE Publishers.
- Marx, F. W. 1981. BEDRYFSLEIDING. Pretoria: Haum.
- Maslow, A.H. 1954. MOTIVATION AND PERSONALITY. New York: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A. 1979. MOTIVATION AND PERSONALITY. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Matlawe, K. 1989. No, no, no, don't give them stanozolol: motivate them, principal. POPAGANO 10 (1), June:12-14.
- Maykut, P. & Morehouse, R. 1994. BEGINNING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH: A PHILOSOPHIC AND PRACTICAL GUIDE. London: Falmer Press.
- McIlroy, K. 1997. Motivating your staff : it's simply difficult. MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING. 75(4).

- McMillan, J.H. 1992. EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. FUNDAMENTALS FOR THE CONSUMER. New York: Harper Collins.
- Meggison, L.C. 1977. PERSONNEL AND HUMAN RESOURCES ADMINISTRATION. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Meggison, L.C. 1981. PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT: A HUMAN RESOURCES APPROACH. Homewood, Illinois: Irwin.
- Mellet, S.M. 1995. PSYCHOLOGY OF ANDRAGOGICS (STUDY GUIDE FOR PSY AND-H). Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Milas, G.H. 1995. How to develop a meaningful employee recognition program. QUALITY PROGRESS. 28(5).
- Mills, H. 1987. Motivating your staff to excellence: some considerations. NASSP BULLETIN 71 (503), December: 37-40.
- Miskel, C.G. 1982. Motivation in educational organizations. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION QUARTERLY 18 (3), Summer: 65-88.
- Mitchell, D.E. & Peters, M.J. 1988. A stronger profession through appropriate teacher incentives. EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP. 46 (3). November: 74-77.
- Mitchell, D.E., Ortis, F.I. & Mitchell, T.K. 1987. WORK ORIENTATION AND JOB PERFORMANCE. Albany: State University of New York Pres.
- Mol, A. 1991. Motivating subordinates. I.P.M. JOURNAL. 9(7).
- More, H.W. & Wegener, W.F. 1990. POLICE SUPERVISION: CINCINNATI. Ohio: Anderson.
- Mosley, D.C., Meggison, L.C. & Pietri, P.H. 1993. SUPERVISION MANAGEMENT: THE ART OF EMPOWERING AND DEVELOPING PEOPLE. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western.

- Mouton, J. 1996. UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL RESEARCH. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Nathan, M. 1996. THE HEADTEACHER'S SURVIVAL GUIDE. London: Philadelphia.
- Owens, R.G. 1995. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR IN EDUCATION. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Parachin, V.M. 1999. Ten essential leadership skills. SUPERVISION. 60(2).
- Patton, M.Q. 1990. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH AND EVALUATION METHODS. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Ramphela, M.M. 2000. CO-OPERATIVE SCHOOL GOVERNANCE IN RESPECT OF PROFESSIONAL STAFF IN THE GROBLERSDAL SCHOOL DISTRICT. Unpublished Med. Dissertation. Rand Afrikaans University.
- Robbins, S.P. 1989. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR. 4th Edition. San Diego: Prentice-Hall.
- Robbins, S.P. 1995. SUPERVISION TODAY. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Roger, J.M. & Feldman, R.S. 1984. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: APPLICATIONS AND THEORY. New York: McMillan.
- Rubin, H.J and Rubin, I.S. 1995. QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWING: THE ART OF HEARING DATA. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Rue, L.W. & Byars, L.L. 1992. MANAGEMENT SKILLS AND APPLICATION. 6th Edition. Homewood, Illinois: Irwin.
- Sanzotta, D. 1977. MOTIVATION THEORIES AND APPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS. New York: Amacom.
- Schaeffer, S.D. 1977. THE MOTIVATION PROCESS. Cambridge, Mass: Winthrop.

- Schofield, S.E. 1988. STAFF MOTIVATION : THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S ROLE AND TASK. Unpublished M.Ed. dissertation : Rand Afrikaans University.
- Schumacher, S. & McMillan, J.H. 1993. RESEARCH IN EDUCATION : A CONCEPTUAL INTRODUCTION. New York : Harper Collins.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. & Starratt, R.J. 1988. SUPERVISION: HUMAN PERSPECTIVES. 4th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. & Starratt, R.J. 1993. SUPERVISION: A REDEFINITION. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Silver, P. 1983. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON PRACTICE AND RESEARCH. New York: Harper & Row.
- Smith, R. 1992. Effective Motivation. BUSINESS EDUCATION TODAY. pp.8-9.
- Steers, R.M. & Porter, L.W. 1991. MOTIVATION AND WORK BEHAVIOUR. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Steyn, G.M. 1996. PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT. Study Manual 2: MANAGING THE QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Ströh, E.C. 2001. Personnel Motivation: Strategies to stimulate employees to increase performance. POLITEIA. Vol. 20 No. 2.
- Tuckmann, J. 1994. CONDUCTING EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. Forworth: Harcourt Brace College.
- Umstot, D.D. 1984. UNDERSTANDING ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR: CONCEPTS AND APPLICATIONS. 2nd Edition. New York: West.

- Van Wyk, C. & Van Der Linde, C.H. 1997. PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT, Bed module. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Van Zyl, A.J. 1989. MOTIVATION AS A PRIMARY MANAGERIAL TASK IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL IN SOWETO. Unpublished MED dissertation. Rand Afrikaans University.
- Vorkell, E.L. and Asher J.W. 1995. EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. New Jersey: Prentice – Hall.
- Wahba, M.A. & Bridwell, L.G. 1983. Maslow Reconsidered. A Review of Research on the Need Hierarchy Theory. In Steers, R.M. & Porter, L.W. 1983. MOTIVATION AND WORK BEHAVIOUR. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Weaver, C.N. 1976. 'What workers want from their jobs'. PERSONNEL, May-June, 1976:49.
- Wlodkowski, R.J. 1985. ENHANCING ADULT MOTIVATION TO LEARN. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wright, W.A. & O'Neil, M.C. 1994. Perspectives on Improving Teaching in Canadian Universities. THE CANADIAN JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION. Vol. XXIV-3, 1994.
- Yin, R.K. 1994. CASE STUDY RESEARCH: DESIGN AND METHODS: APPLIED SOCIAL RESEARCH METHODS SERIES vol. 5 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

ANNEXURE A

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Can you describe how motivated you generally feel in your day-to-day work at college?
2. What factors would you say make you feel as motivated as you have just described?
3. What impact would you say this feeling of motivation has on your work performance?
4. What factors would you say demotivate you?
5. What impact would you say this feeling of demotivation has on your work performance?
6. What view do you think management holds of you as a professional and how does this impact on your motivation?
7. Do you have a positive relationship with your immediate superior? Explain and indicate how the relationship impacts on your motivation?
8. Are your personal goals congruent with those of the college? If so, or if not so, how does this congruence or incongruence affect your motivation?
9. To what extent would you say achievement (work performance) is rewarded at the college? How does this affect your motivation?
10. In your work do you generally perceive effort as producing achievement? How does this impact on your motivation?
11. Do you consider rewards for achievement equitably distributed at the college? How does this influence your motivation?
12. Do you enjoy your work as a lecturer, if so, or if not so, what makes your work enjoyable or unenjoyable?
13. How does this affect your motivation?
14. Do you get the kind of recognition you think you deserve for the work you do? How does this affect your motivation?
15. Does your work provide opportunities for achievement?

16. How does the presence (or absence) of opportunities for achievement in your work impact on your motivation?
17. Does management delegate responsibility to you to your satisfaction? How does this affect your motivation?
18. Does your work provide you with opportunities for leadership and the exercise of authority? How does this impact on your motivation?
19. Does your work provide opportunities for personal growth? How does this impact on your motivation?
20. Does your work provide opportunities for advancement? How does this influence your motivation?
21. How would you describe the condition of your office as a facility at the college? How does this condition impact on your motivation?
22. Do you view lecturing facilities at the college as adequate? How does the adequacy (or inadequacy) of lecturing facilities impact on your motivation?
23. Do you regard your salary as fair compensation for the work you do? How does this affect your motivation?
24. What fringe benefits do you enjoy? How does the presence or absence of fringe benefits impact on your motivation?
25. Are you satisfied with the administrative support you get? How does this affect your motivation?
26. How would you characterise management policies at the college? How do they influence your motivation? Are they administered equitably? How does this impact on your motivation?
27. Can you describe the leadership style prevailing at the college? What impact does the management style have on your motivation?
28. Do you think the objectives/goals you are expected to meet are realistic/achievable? How does this impact on your motivation?
29. Do you participate in formulating objectives that you are expected to fulfil? How does this affect your motivation?

30. Do you participate in decision-making? How does this impact on your motivation?
31. Would you regard communication as effective at the college? How does this affect your motivation?
32. In your view, do you get sufficient feedback from management? How does this situation (sufficiency or insufficiency of feedback) impact on your motivation?
33. Do you think it is essential for educational managers to study theories of motivation? Why?
34. Would you say educational managers at the college have enough knowledge of theories of motivation?

ANNEXURE B

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION

- Q. Can you describe how motivated you generally feel in your day-to-day work at college?
- A. I would say I am e-eh highly motivated because it appears the administration recognises my presence and contribution towards the success of the college.
- Q. Using a scale ranging from motivated, highly motivated, to very highly motivated, how would you describe your level of motivation?
- A. I would say I am generally motivated, not highly motivated.
- Q. What factors would you say make you feel as motivated/demotivated as you have just described?
- A. If I am able to carry out my work as I think I should, meet deadlines, get what I should get from the authorities... also if my students show appreciation for my efforts and management appreciates and approves my efforts... I think these are the factors that would motivate me.
- Q. Could you please clarify what you mean when you say you will be motivated if you "get what I should get from the authorities"?
- A. I mean e-eh if they communicate to me regarding what they expect of me, for example deadlines, matters concerning policies... and the authorities must acknowledge my success so that I feel encouraged to maintain high standards or even surpass those standards.
- Q. What impact would you say this feeling of motivation has on your work performance?

A. It has very high positive impact on my work performance. As I have just mentioned, it helps me to try to keep high standards or even to exceed them.

Q. What factors would you say demotivate you?

A. Generally demotivation usually comes as a result of administration failing to recognise... maybe my contributions or if they (mgt.) take some decisions without maybe consulting me as Head of Subject. This won't show that they respect me enough. Also lack of facilities to use is demotivating.

Q. What impact would you say this feeling of demotivation has on your work performance?

A. Generally I tend to develop an indifferent attitude towards my work when I have this feeling of demotivation. Being ignored or overlooked really hurts one's feelings. So I wouldn't exactly exert myself,

Q. Some theorists hold that people are motivated to meet particular needs. Let us look at some of these needs and establish how they motivate you in your work situation. Let us start with physiological needs.

A. Well, I am not sure what you are talking about here.

Q. We are referring to basic physiological necessities such as food, shelter, warmth, clothing -the needs that can be met if the salary is inadequate.

A. Yeah, the college has provided me with a decent house. I think it is imperative that one gets a salary that is, I mean that enables one to buy whatever one needs without really straining. These things of course include such things as clothes, decent food etc.

Q. So in your situation are your psychological needs reasonably met?

A. Yeah... I would say so.

Q. What impact has this on your work motivation?

A. A negligible, if any, impact, I would say.

Q. If the said needs were not satisfied how would your motivation be affected?

A. I think I will be demotivated because my focus will be on trying to satisfy these needs.

Q. Now let us turn to security and safety needs.

A. I wouldn't operate well if my security was not guaranteed. My thoughts will be preoccupied with what I will do or what I will be tomorrow.

Q. Would you say your security was guaranteed and if so or if not so how does this affect your motivation?

A. Generally my security is assured... so my motivation is not affected in this regard.

Q. Does management sometimes take arbitrary decisions and/actions, if so or if not so how does this affect your motivation?

A. Yeah, they sometimes do so, but not often. When this happens I get quite demoralised and demotivated.

Q. Does management sometimes engage in uncertainty- provoking behaviour regarding continued employment? If so how does it affect your motivation?

A. I have no problem here. My employment is guaranteed.

Q. Does management sometimes engage in behaviour that shows favouritism or discrimination, if so how does this affect your motivation?

A. Yeah, sometimes they display favouritism towards certain members of staff thereby discriminating against the rest of us. It adversely affects my motivation, but not to a great extent, perhaps because it does not happen often.

Q. Let us now turn to belongingness needs.

A. Those are quite important because for one to enjoy one's work one has to belong to a group. Once in a while e-eh one would like to discuss with colleagues concerning professional issues and academic issues, even social issues. You know, you need to be assured not only by management, but also by your peers that you are doing well in your work... something like that. If you feel you belong then you will be motivated to work as a team player.

Q. Can we now focus on esteem needs?

A. E-eh, I think right at the beginning of this interview I have said admin recognises me as an assert and this gives me a lot of motivation to work. I feel I am wanted, have something to contribute, students have something to learn from me. I also feel I have something to give to my colleagues.

Q. What makes you feel you have something to contribute to your colleagues and that students have something to learn from you?

A. Well, my students respect me and they seem to approve my way of doing things, lecturing and the like. They make me feel like they appreciate my efforts. As for my colleagues, they also respect me and speak positively about how I run the subject area... you know, they acknowledge my achievements... and all this is motivating, don't you think so?

Q. Certainly I do. Would you then say you have a positive self-image?

- A. Most definitely! I feel I highly motivated because I have high esteem of myself, and that encourages me to work hard.
- Q. Right. Now let us turn to self-actualisation needs. Do you think you are working at full potential?
- A. Well... I don't think I have reached that level but I feel I am getting there. I mean nothing is stopping me from moving towards working at full potential. So I would say my self-actualisation needs are being met.
- Q. Do you have the feeling that you are being successful at work and that you are achieving goals viewed as significant?
- A. Oh yes, I do. When what you do is appreciated by others you feel that it is significant or of some value.
- Q. What effect does this have on your motivation?
- A. It is highly motivating indeed. What can I say? I think it motivates one to work harder and harder... to produce better and better work. Yeah, I think so.
- Q. Okay. Shall we now focus on growth needs?
- A. In terms of promotion, I think these are basically frustrated. I have been promoted to subject head after four years. Now to get promoted to the next step... Lecturer-In-Charge, well, it will happen when the chap occupying that position is promoted to Head of Department (and there are only three H. O. D. posts!) or is transferred. But in terms of self-development I think the part-time studies I am doing help me to realise my growth needs.
- Q. When your growth needs are met, what effect would it have on your motivation?
- A. I think it will greatly motivate me because stagnation demoralises one.

- Q. Thank you, we can now turn to achievement needs.
- A. Well I think I am meeting my targets. I mean I am doing work effectively. I have been finding positive feedback from my superior as well as my students.
- Q. Do you have opportunities to set goals which you think are important to achieve?
- A. Oh, yes!
- Q. When you achieve these goals how is your motivation influenced?
- A. It is indeed highly motivating because it makes me feel competent and it impels me to set more challenging goals.
- Q. Lastly let us talk about power needs.
- A. A ah, having been a lecturer, senior lecturer, then principal lecturer, having been recognised by being given this post of Head of Subject, I think my power needs have been met.
- Q. Can you further explain in what other ways these power needs have been met?
- A. I mean e-e-h, I am in charge of members in my section- I exercise power over them and since that power was accorded me on account of my being recognised as competent... I think it boosts one's morale... it is quite motivating. But don't get me wrong here. I am not saying I enjoy dominating others for the sake of it, no. I enjoy being in a powerful position where I can guide people towards resolving problems confronting our college. I will be involved in making decisions that will ensure the successful realisation of the college's goals.
- Q. To what extent do you feel the college promotes or frustrates the fulfilment of these needs?

A. Generally I would like to think that the college presently does not really motivate lecturers to do better... I mean administration does not actively promote the fulfilment of staff needs.

Q. In your view what should administration do to promote the fulfilment of staff needs?

A. They should take staff development seriously- mount workshops/seminars, send staff for further education where this is necessary. They should also support lecturers involved in co-curriculum activities so that they can work in the knowledge that what they are doing is appreciated.

Q. As Head of Section, how do you motivate your subordinates?

A. Well, I involve them in decision-making processes. I also give them responsibility, for example one member is in charge of first year students, another is in charge of second year students, yet another is in charge of third year students. The rest are in charge of literature, grammar, and poetry respectively. So everyone has some "post" of responsibility. I also involve them as much as possible in setting goals for our subject area and I think this gives everyone joint ownership of the goals.

Q. What view do you think management/administration holds of you as a professional?

A. A-a-a, I want think that they have a positive image of myself. I want to think that they consider me as maybe, a committed professional. I feel that they realise my contribution as a professional.

- Q. What impact has this had on your motivation?
- A. It has really made me push harder because I feel they recognise my contribution towards the development of the college- so, I am really highly motivated.
- Q. I see. Would you say that your personal goals are congruent with those of the college?
- A. Umm, I would say they are largely congruent with those of the college.
- Q. Would you care to mention those of your goals which are incongruent with those of the college?
- A. Aah, well... I think nothing important really. Can't think of any (smile). There should be negligible incongruence here.
- Q. What effect does the degree of congruence have on your motivation?
- A. My motivation is not adversely affected because my personal goals are largely congruent with those of the college. Rather I should say it is motivating to achieve college goals while achieving my own goals.
- Q. To what extent and in what ways do you think that the college promotes or frustrates the achievement of your own goals?
- A. I want to think that the college is generally very supportive in trying to meet my own personal goals because they (administration) have allowed me to go on the study leave twice in about three and a half years.
- Q. How does this affect your motivation?
- A. It is very highly motivating.

Q. To what extent would you say your work performance is rewarded at the college?

A. I want to think that the college recognises my performance because they have actually promoted me to this position I have. I think the promotion is based on performance ... and I find this highly motivating. Getting praise from management is also motivating. Also getting positive feedback from students is very rewarding and again this boosts one's motivation.

Q. In your view, are rewards equitably distributed at the college?

A. Not exactly equitably distributed... some people seem to be favoured but it is not very serious.

Q. Can you explain what effect this has on your motivation?

A. It has some effect on my motivation, negligible though because the problem is not a very serious one. If it was serious I think it could seriously undermine my motivation.

Q. How important to you is the pursuit of excellence in your practice?

A. Very important. Everyday I feel there is a very high level I must attain. I therefore harness my resources to achieve excellence.

Q. To what extent does your desire for excellence motivate you?

A. It's very highly motivating.

Q. How important to you is status aspiration?

A. Quite important.

Q. How does it affect your motivation?

A. It's quite motivating.

- Q. How important to you is mastery in your practice?
- A. It is very important indeed. If you don't have it you will not have much to offer.
- Q. To what extent does your desire for mastery motivate you?
- A. It motivates me greatly- I have to read and up-date my notes, etc.
- Q. May I now ask you to look at the following factors surrounding the job. For each factor please indicate whether it very highly motivating, highly motivating, motivating, neutral, demotivating or very demotivating:
- a) The lecturing itself.
Very highly motivating especially when successful.
 - b) Individual interaction with students.
Numbers compromise this type of interaction- but where it occurs it is very highly motivating.
 - c) Marking students' work.
Very highly motivating if it confirms successful teaching. When performance is low it can be quite demotivating.
 - d) Interaction with colleagues.
Very highly motivating because you learn something from others.
 - e) Degree of autonomy.
Very highly motivating.
 - f) Degree of the quality of feedback from students.
Positive feedback is very highly motivating.
 - g) Degree of quality of feedback from management.
Like with feedback from students, very highly motivating
- Q. How would you describe facilities such as offices at the college ?

A. I have a good office- a few people whom are in the leadership positions have good offices, as you know. Some of my colleagues have crammed offices, not very well ventilated... they share these. So the situation is not very good.

Q. How does this affect their motivation?

A. It does have some negative effect. Quite a number of lecturers in my section complain quite bitterly about it. I think they would be more motivated if this problem was sorted out. But I don't think it adversely affects their motivation very much.

Q. How about lecturing facilities?

A. We have a problem with such facilities as overhead projectors. These are inadequate. You may be beaten to the few projectors by others after having prepared a lecture where the use of the projector would be very effective in delivery learning content. It kills innovation, you know. One loses the motivation to innovate.

Q. How much administrative support do you get?

A. Not very much - we are expected to give administrative staff/messengers, office orderlies etc. work to photocopy and they take days to complete the job- its frustrating and management doesn't seem to appreciate this! It is really demotivating. Sometimes they don't procure what we order in sufficient quantities and they give flimsy reasons.

Q. How would you characterise management policies at the college?

A. Uum, these are not very clear. You get to know about some of these policies only when there is a crisis.

Q. How does this affect your motivation?

A. When that happens, I mean getting to know about some policies after crisis, its demotivating... but only to a limited extent.

Q. What's your comment on management style at the college?

A. It's laissez-faire- sometimes people just do what they want. This demoralises those who do their work properly. Admin needs to improve communication with staff.

Q. What impact does this have on your motivation?

A. It's really not motivating. Some lecturers are absent when they are supposed to be lecturing and it's demotivating when you have to 'rescue' the situation.

Q. To what extent would you say you are involved in decision-making?

A. As Head of Subject I am not involved in decision-making to the extent I would like to.

Q. How does this impact on your motivation?

A. It's quite demotivating. But I should say there are areas where I am involved in decision-making. You know when you are a party to a decision being made you tend to work hard to ensure the success of the decision.

Q. You have already indicated that communication is poor and management needs to improve this aspect- do you have any further comment on this issue (communication)?

A. Yeah, it is poor indeed. Circulars are sometimes displayed late- the information will be stale. Sometimes there is back-biting when admin comment on my performance to someone else and not to me. I think it's necessary for admin to make clear their expectations of us.

- Q. How does this affect your motivation?
A. It is demotivating... quite demotivating.
- Q. Does management support innovation?
A. Verbally yes, but in practical terms no. They do not readily make funds available for the purchase of videotapes or transparencies, etc. This thwarts innovation.
- Q. What impact does this have on your motivation?
A. It adversely affects my motivation to innovate. I can't use some methods I believe can effectively help me deliver the content.
- Q. What will be your comment on the salary you earn?
A. (Smiling). It's not sufficient for my needs. A person of my position needs to buy a good car, decent furniture, decent accommodation-eeh-I should be able to send my children to prestigious schools.
- Q. How does your present salary affect your motivation?
A. Aa-aah it does not affect my motivation much. But I think if the salary was adequate it would give a boost to my motivation.
- Q. What fringe benefits do you enjoy?
A. Not much really. You know its not like in the private sector. (Sighing) We are provided with houses and rentals, electricity and water are heavily subsidized.
- Q. Does this motivate you?
A. Aah not really. Well, in the public sector we are used to the fact that we do not get fringe benefits so they are not a factor in terms of motivation.

- Q. How would your work performance be affected if the factors which you find demotivating were removed?
- A. Of course if they are removed I will be very highly motivated, I will give of my best and inevitably my work performance will be enhanced.
- Q. How could the factors that you find motivating be enhanced?
- A. E-eh... more teaching/learning recourses should be provided, we must be more meaningfully involved in decision-making, admin must improve communication and I think merit should always be recognised. This will enhance motivation.
- Q. How would such enhancement impact on your work performance?
- A. It would have a very high positive impact on our work performance.
- Q. What factors would make you leave the college?
- A. When I am frustrated-When my efforts are not recognised. Also insecurity, poor communication, oppressive tendencies on the part of admin...Yeah, these will make me leave college.
- Q. What factors would make you stay at the college?
- A. Recognition, a supportive leadership-yeah, that's it.
- Q. If you were the principal of the college how would improve the motivation of your subordinates?
- A. I would open up communication channels, exercise democratic leadership where officers are involved in decision-making... I would recognise merit, treat staff equitably and give as much support to my subordinates as possible.

Q. Do you think it is essential/necessary for educational managers to study theories of motivation?

A. Yes indeed... because they provide guidance as to how to identify factors that motivate individuals and they also lend ideas on how to employ various motivational strategies to cater for the varying needs of individual officers.

Q. Do you think educational managers at the college have enough knowledge of the theories of motivation?

A. Certainly they are not sufficiently knowledgeable regarding motivation theories-their behaviour confirms this!

ANNEXURE C

EXTRACTS FROM FIELD NOTES

A. INFORMAL/UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Date: 3 February 2000

Venue: Staff Common Room

Lecturer 1: This place is damn boring. If I get the opportunity I think I will go elsewhere!

Researcher: Why, Simba?

Lecturer 1: It's quite frustrating here. Nobody seems to care about what is happening.

Researcher: Meaning what?

Lecturer 1: I mean...if you ask for very inexpensive equipment to use in your work, your request is invariably turned down... you do fantastic work and nobody is impressed – it's frustrating.

Lecturer 2: Simba is right, you know. Just look around you... people here are generally not motivated to work. They seem to be just going through the paces...

B. INFORMAL UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Date: 6 February 2000

Venue: College Tuckshop

Lecturer 1: Simba seems to be serious about leaving this place. At first I thought he was joking... His motivation has really hit rock bottom!

Researcher: What seems to be the matter really?

Lecturer 2: Isn't it obvious? People are generally demotivated.

Researcher: But seriously, how would you characterise your own motivation?

Lecturer 2: Aah, well... my motivation isn't all that great. I think I am just sufficiently motivated to struggle on.

Lecturer 1: He is right. Most of us are barely motivated...

C. UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Date: 2 July 2001

Venue: Staff Common Room

Researcher: You guys always complain that the administration is not doing anything to boost your motivation. What really do you want admin. to do?

Lecturer 1: I will be motivated if management provides resources so that I can achieve my objectives...so that students appreciate my efforts. E-eh, also especially when administration recognise my achievements and potential.

Lecturer 2: Yeah, and also if management clearly articulate their expectations of me and recognise my accomplishments...

Researcher: But guys, what is it that really depresses your motivation?

Lecturer 1: Lack of support from administration, umm... lack of communication and lack of resources – that's it, these are the demotivating factors.

Lecturer 2: Also when management shows favouritism...Some students have a rotten attitude towards their work – that's demotivating. I should point out that if my achievements or efforts are not recognised by management, I feel really demotivated!

Lecturer 1: Yeah, and also if they (management) take some decisions that I am supposed to be involved in without consulting me...

Researcher: But this does not really affect one's work performance.

Lecturer 1: Ah, it does! If I am motivated, I give my best, but when demotivated, I do the barest minimum.

Lecturer 2: Isn't it obvious that when one is motivated one puts a lot of effort in one's work? But you can't expect me to do outstanding work when I am demotivated...

D. OVERHEARD IN THE STAFF COMMON ROOM ON 7 JULY 2001

Lecturer 1: Isn't it terrible?

Lecturer 2: What?

Lecturer 1: Huh...students telling us the new closing date! Why should students know first? Are we not supposed to communicate such things to them?

Lecturer 2: (Laughing resignedly) That's how things are done here. Communication zero! It really kills enthusiasm for work.