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**JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ACADEMIC STAFF AT
COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE FREE STATE**

by

GETRUDE MATSITSO BOHLOKO

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SUPERVISOR: PROF. R. R. BRAZELLE

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I dedicate this dissertation to

My children Relebohile, Morakane and Khotso, who have served as a source of motivation and comfort throughout the course of my studies. I hope that my efforts will encourage them to do their best in their studies and life in general.

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Chapter 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The new constitution of South Africa makes tertiary education a national competence that all colleges offering higher education programmes, including colleges of education, have to be incorporated into the higher education sector (Department of Education, 1998:i). Based on that, the Green Paper on higher education attempts to expand and transform the system of higher education within the reality of limited resources. According to this paper, the need to transform higher education in this country stems from factors of two origins (National Department of Education, 1996:10). Firstly, the historical legacy of inequity and inefficiency which inhibits its ability to meet the moral, social and economic demands of the new South Africa, and secondly, a context of unprecedented national and global opportunities and challenges. The transformation of higher education requires reorientation and innovation of these factors (National Department of Education, 1996:10).

In preparation of the transformation, the report of the Research Institute for Education Planning (RIEP) at the University of the Orange Free State (Strauss & Van der Linde, 1998:22) outlines the following recommendations on the colleges of education in the Free State province:

1. The number of educators trained in the province must be decreased.
2. It is necessary to scale down on the training capacity of the province.
3. Educator to student ratio needs to be increased to at least 1:18.

4. The transformation of colleges of education should go hand in hand with the transformation of the programme (curriculum) for teacher training.
5. The possibility of incorporating some colleges (in Thaba Nchu and Bloemfontein areas) into one or more of the universities and/or technikon has to be investigated.
6. The reorganisation of the remaining colleges (in Phuthaditjaba area) into one Free State College of Education.

There is therefore no doubt that the present situation regarding the colleges of education in this province calls for a change. Apparently, a lot of money is spent to produce teachers not needed in the schools.

“That the largest portion of the educational budget is spent on salaries further necessitates an in-depth look at the number of educators actually needed in schools in years to come, taking into account the present urgent need for the training of teachers in specialised areas” (Strauss & Van der Linde, 1998:20).

While bodies such as RIEP were targeted to investigate the background report, identifying the implications and outlining implementation strategies that would facilitate the incorporation process, the academic staff at these colleges have little clarity as to their fate. This creates feelings of uncertainty and insecurity, considering that people have needs which they fulfil by virtue of being employed. Consequently the level of their performance, interest and commitment may drop, as may the achievement of educational goals. When changing the system, educational leaders should be concerned about the aspects which can affect the job satisfaction of the staff.

A teacher training college has to produce good teachers, well equipped to educate the children of the community it serves. The quality of the product of any organisation, education in this study, determines the quality of the service offered by the organisation. The needs of the community which is served by an institution, exert pressure on the institution and type of student it produces. Student achievement should therefore be a concern to educators. According to Hage in Marra (1978:6) educator job satisfaction and student production are legitimate school goals. Educator job satisfaction is based on the needs fulfilment and professional and personal growth

of the teaching staff. Student production is based on providing for students' needs, growth and development.

Marra (1978:6) suggests that the two goals are inseparable and interdependent, the success of the latter depending on the former. Conversely, counter-productive behaviour of educators can undoubtedly affect the level of student achievement negatively. The present period of uncertainty at colleges of education requires the particular attention of educational leaders. Moreover, the quality of teachers produced by these institutions is a concern of the time.

From the above it is clear that job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State has not received significant attention while the incorporation of these colleges into the higher education system is being investigated and strategised. Yet, motivation to achieve high performance levels in any job requires satisfaction with the job (Mullins, 1989:20).

1.2 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The scientific field of study of this research is Educational Management, a sub-discipline of Education comprising those regulative tasks or actions which allow formative education to take place (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:43-53). The management tasks include planning, organising, guiding and control. These are executed by a person in a position of authority in the various management areas. One such area is personnel management, which deals with the physical and psychological needs of the staff members with a view to achieving the goals of the institution. Satisfaction of staff needs ensures job satisfaction and the well-being of the individual staff members. Also, it motivates them to have a positive attitude towards learning and educational activities. Van der Westhuizen (1991:183) regards motivation as a supportive action (sub-task) of guiding staff to carry out specific tasks in the teaching-learning process. Although many of the management tasks and areas will receive attention, the main focus of this study will be on job satisfaction, which is closely linked to the motivation of staff as a sub-section of the staff management area.

At present, three types of institutions in the Free State province train teachers. These are the universities: Vista, Uni-Qwa and the University of the Orange Free State; the Free State Technikon and the colleges of education. This study focuses on the colleges of education, namely Bonamelo, Tshiya, Lere-la-Tshepe and Sefikeng in Qwaqwa; Kagisanong and Bloemfontein College in Bloemfontein, Thaba-Nchu College at Thaba-Nchu and Mphohadi at Kroonstad. This study involves all academic staff at the colleges. It attempts to analyse the current state of job satisfaction among the academic staff with the aim of establishing the culture of teaching and learning at these colleges.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The era in which we live, brings endless change. As the needs of man change, so do the education needs. Consequently, man continually changes, arranges and adapts his social structures and surroundings (Niemann, 1997:24). The school is one such structure that was designed to meet man's need for education. Educational systems change to cope with technology, new systems, methods and techniques, economic and political changes. This stresses the need for true educators; those fully prepared and equipped with knowledge, skills and values to meet the demands and challenges of the time.

Since the beginning of democratisation in South Africa in 1994, a range of changes has taken place in the education system. The incorporation of colleges of education into the higher education sector is one such change in process. An unanswered question is: What is the net impact of these changes on the level of job satisfaction of the staff?

In every organisation professional satisfaction co-determines the individual's effectiveness and efficiency. The academic staff at the colleges of education is no exception. High job satisfaction of teachers is closely connected to their efficacy as educators (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:295). Therefore, the organisational climate

should inspire and motivate the staff to perform at the top of their capabilities in order to achieve educational goals.

In administering the process of education, educators must be concerned with those factors that may motivate students to learn. These may affect students directly or indirectly as long as they may produce satisfaction and success. Students have to participate in the education process of which they are both beneficiaries and products. This indicates the significance of a satisfied staff member and a motivated student.

The quality of the working life is directly proportional to the ability to overcome obstacles to effective performance. To clarify the significance of the role job satisfaction plays in the current situation at colleges of education in the Free State, the following questions may be put forward:

1. What does job satisfaction entail?
2. What is the current level of job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State?
3. What recommendations can be given to improve the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff at these colleges?

1.4 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study is aimed at analysing the level of job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State with the aim of improving the current level.

This overall aim gives rise to the following specific objectives:

1. To give a theoretical background of what job satisfaction entails, establish indicators of job satisfaction in a formal organisation and determine the consequences of job satisfaction.
2. To establish the present state of job satisfaction among academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State.

3. To provide recommendations for improving the current level of job satisfaction among staff to increase performance at these colleges.

1.5 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

To achieve these objectives, the following research methods were used:

1.5.1 Literature study

1.5.1.1 Primary sources

A selection of relevant primary sources was studied. These included educational bills, acts and original departmental publications.

1.5.1.2 Secondary sources

Relevant secondary sources were studied in order to obtain sufficient knowledge of job satisfaction indicators in a formal organisation. Most of the information, especially research findings, were on primary and secondary schools. Very little could be found on the job satisfaction of staff at tertiary institutions such as colleges of education. However, colleges of education are formal organisations like schools, only at a higher level of vertical academic advancement. Therefore, the secondary sources on schools have been used and have provided sufficient information for the basis of this study.

1.5.2 Questionnaire

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967:110) was used as the main data-collecting instrument. This questionnaire consists of 100 questions identifying 20 job satisfaction indicators in clusters of five questions per indicator. Each indicator refers to a factor that influences an employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work environment. It was distributed to the eight colleges of education in the Free State Province. This involved 385 academic

staff members. Of the 385 questionnaires distributed, 182 were recovered and the responses of 170 could be used.

1.6 OUTLAY OF THE RESEARCH

This study is divided into five chapters:

Chapter 1 highlights the problem and the objectives and gives an overview of the study.

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review on job satisfaction, mainly in educational organisations with reference to teacher motivation, job satisfaction indicators, role clarity and leadership behaviour.

Chapter 3 focuses on the consequences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for an educational institution like a college of education.

Chapter 4 focuses on the current level of job satisfaction of academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State, based on the information obtained through the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Chapter 5 provides recommendations for improving the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State and the culture of teaching and learning to increase performance.

1.7 CONCLUSION

The education system of South Africa is at present undergoing a process of transformation, from the previous system, which did not meet the needs of most people, to the present unitary one. For this system to meet the demands of all South Africans, it should be in the hands of good educators at all levels. The quality of teachers produced by the colleges of education is directly proportional to the quality of the academic staff at the colleges. The latter also plays an important role in

determining the culture of teaching and learning at both primary and secondary school levels; thus, it is of great importance that the staff should be satisfied with their job. The present situation, its consequences and how it may be improved, is the main concern of the research.

Chapter 2

JOB SATISFACTION: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is the approaches to job satisfaction, with the aim of identifying those factors which influence and/or act as indicators of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the implications of these job satisfaction indicators for the academic staff of educational institutions such as colleges of education are considered in order to obtain adequate knowledge of aspects that affect the level of job satisfaction either negatively or positively. This knowledge can equip educators with ways of improving satisfaction and reducing dissatisfaction at work. It is therefore imperative to start by defining the concept of job satisfaction.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction involves the assessment of both the people doing the job and the job itself. This assessment identifies areas of action or improvement in the job so that it will be more satisfying for the people doing it. According to Cope (1979:57) the assessment may include other appropriate remedies taken to ensure a "fit" between the individual and his/her job and organisation.

Mumford (1991:12) argues that a more realistic approach to job satisfaction may be to look at the individual's needs in the work and the extent to which these needs are being met, but also to examine the pressures and constraints, internal and external to the organisation, which influence the demands it makes on its employees and hinder

its ability to provide maximum job satisfaction. Mumford's approach (1991:12) considers job satisfaction in two ways:

1. In terms of the fit between what an organisation requires of its employees and what employees are seeking from it.
2. In terms of the fit between what employees are seeking and what they are receiving.

A good fit on 1 and 2 leads to what Mumford (1991:13) calls a 'mutually beneficial' relationship and 'job satisfaction' respectively. The concept of fit concerns the following:

- Organisation job requirements vs. personal job requirements;
- Organisation interest vs. self-interest;
- Uniformity vs. individuality;
- Performance vs. personal quality;
- Work specificity vs. work flexibility.

In this study, attention is given to what the employee is seeking and what he/she is receiving. This requires sufficient knowledge of what job satisfaction entails.

2.2.1 Defining job satisfaction

Various authors have come up with a wide range of definitions. The definitions considered can be divided into general and job specific, education in this case.

2.2.1.1 General definitions

Mortimer (1979:2), following Locke, defines job satisfaction as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. This refers to the evaluation of the job as a whole, arguing that 'facet-specific' satisfactions such as satisfaction with financial rewards, resources to get the job done, interest, challenge,

autonomy, relations with co-workers, and comfort factors such as physical surroundings, hours and travel time, are only part of a bigger concept.

With a similar view, Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:159) define job satisfaction as an effective or emotional response toward various facets of an individual's job. Mumford (1991:11), agreeing with Vroom, defines job satisfaction as an individual liking more aspects of his work than he/she dislikes.

Rue and Byars (1989:381) define job satisfaction as an individual's general attitude to his or her job. This includes one's attitude towards workgroup, working conditions, attitude towards company, monetary benefits and attitude towards supervision. Job satisfaction may be positive or negative, depending on the individual's mental self, concerning the components of job satisfaction (Rue & Byars, 1989:381). Therefore, job satisfaction is an attitude that results from other aspects and factors of the job.

Similarly, Mullins (1989:335) refers to job satisfaction as an attitude that could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. According to this definition, job satisfaction is an internal state likely to result from motivation.

To Kahn (1977:73) job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. Kahn (1977:73) believes that job satisfaction results when there is a fit between job characteristics and the wants of the employee. In this view, job satisfaction expresses the congruence between the employee's expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides.

From the above it is clear that job satisfaction is the positive emotional state and attitude associated with personal feelings about job aspects, likely to result from motivation. To be more specific, it is necessary to define job satisfaction in the teaching profession.

2.2.1.2 Defining job satisfaction in the teaching profession

The study of satisfaction in the context of one's profession is an area of broad and varied theoretical frameworks. According to Menlo and Poppleton (1990:174) satisfaction in the teaching profession determines the enjoyment of teaching as an occupation, how teaching measures up to initial expectations, retrospective likelihood of entering teaching again and responsibility (the involvement in it, and its importance for the teacher's job satisfaction).

By educators' satisfaction with their job, Wiśniewski (1990:299) refers to those attitudes and ways of behaving within their work environment. This may include resolving of conflict-bearing situations and acceptance of the demands of their jobs and current educational functions. As a consequence, educators may fulfil the tasks imposed upon them in such a way that the behaviour of others (e.g. their pupils, their colleagues, their superiors and the parents) towards them warrants permanent, or at least periodically recurring, satisfaction with the role which they play.

Furthermore, Tice (1981:6) describes educator job satisfaction as the attitude that they assume towards their job task, determined by interaction with others and the degree of success on completion of a specific responsibility.

Marra (1978:6) refers to teacher job satisfaction as a teacher's feelings about his relationship with students and teaching itself. Applied to the colleges of education, this means that lecturers with high satisfaction love to lecture, feel competent in their job, enjoy their students and believe in the future of lecturing as an occupation. March and Simon (Avi-Itzhak, 1988:355) also emphasise this by referring to job satisfaction as the willingness of the worker to stay within the organisation despite inducements to leave.

Similarly, Smith (Rohman, 1985:10) suggests that job satisfaction comprises a feeling or affective response to facets of the work situation. These feelings are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return and what is experienced in relation to alternatives in a given situation.

From the definitions above, it can be concluded that educators' attitude and behaviours, feelings and perception about institutional climate and leadership behaviours, determine their level of job satisfaction. It is also apparent that job satisfaction and motivation are interdependent.

The interdependence of job satisfaction and motivation is further highlighted by the approaches to job satisfaction and other factors that influence the level of job satisfaction.

2.3 APPROACHES TO JOB SATISFACTION

The literature on job satisfaction provides various theoretical approaches. Job satisfaction is mainly addressed through theories of motivation. The central focus of many of these theories is human needs and how they can be satisfied in the workplace. Working can bring about satisfaction if it helps towards the fulfilment of these needs. On the other hand, failure to do so can cause dissatisfaction and a great deal of unhappiness. To understand job satisfaction, it is therefore necessary that the concept of motivation be understood first.

2.3.1 Motivation and job satisfaction

Livy (1988:413) refers to motivation as the basis of all human activity, a force which compels human beings to behave in a variety of ways. According to Livy (1988:413) "the activity which results from a motivated state is fuelled by a drive to satisfy a certain 'need'. The basic drive and the strength of various needs at different points in time determine the motivational force. The perceived value and expectation of rewards to be received act as satisfying agents". In agreement, Campbell in Hoy and Miskel (1987:176) adds that motivation involves the direction of behaviour, the strength of response and the persistence of the behaviour. According to Hoy and Miskel (1987:176) concepts such as drive, need, incentive, reward, reinforcement, goal setting and expectancy are included in the word "motivation".

Motivation and job satisfaction are not synonymous. Byars and Rue (1994:323) refer to motivation as the drive to perform while job satisfaction reflects the employees' attitude or happiness within the job situation. The organisational reward system can affect both: job satisfaction by making employees comfortable with the job because of the rewards it offers, and motivation primarily through the perceived value of the rewards and the contingency on performance (Byars & Rue, 1994:323).

When dealing with mature professionals who have developed a set of work standards connected with the challenging objective demands, Kellogg (1979:109) suggests that most of their sense of reward is internal. If they feel that the task could not have been done by almost anyone and they feel that the conditions imposed on them were necessary, their satisfaction reward has a motivational impact. Unfortunately, the reverse is true when they feel that the schedule is arbitrary or the work is sloppy. Thus the manager has to make clear the value and need for the task during the planning phase. Kellogg (1979:109) further suggests that internal satisfaction with accomplishment is necessary but short-lived, therefore it should be supplemented by external reward and recognition. The expectations in this regard have to be discussed and followed to the letter. This includes, for example, appraisal sessions, salary review and awards. Furthermore, Kellogg (1979:110) also suggests unexpected praise, compliments or honour that fits an accomplishment.

Mol (Van Dyk, 1996:319) and Hackman, Oldham, Janson and Purdy (1990:405) suggest that real dedication and commitment to a task can only come when the task is enjoyable for the individual concerned. Arguing that when a person carries out a task for the sake of what he/she gets from it, he/she is not motivated but moved. However, employees have to be moved with good pay and incentives, as well as motivated through satisfaction of the human needs.

Hoy and Miskel (1987:74), using the Getzels and Guba's social system model, define satisfaction with the job as a prior condition in motivating an individual toward and/or participating in the realisation of organisational objectives. Administrators, those in education included, require sufficient knowledge of human behaviour so as to understand why others behave in a way that they do. A good understanding of

motivation is necessary for explaining people's behaviour and knowing more or less what behaviour to expect from others, in response to aspects of the job.

Besides, dedication and a professionally motivated staff of educators are one important factor of success in education (Tice, 1981:2). According to Tice (1981:2), without happy and satisfied educators, the educational process is likely to lag or even become inoperable. For teachers to be satisfied, Pastor and Erlandson (1982:181) suggest that areas of motivation should be identified by determining teachers' needs and their relationship with job satisfaction.

Van Dyk (1996:320) suggests that people have different behaviour patterns and reasons for what they do or do not do. They may show the same behaviour but for different reasons. Generally, all human behaviour is motivated. It is directed by human needs, for which a person develops an urge to satisfy. The person thus uses energy and time to satisfy the need. Therefore, human behaviour is directed towards whatever will satisfy a need. According to Van Dyk (1996:321), the process of human motivation goes in steps as follows: The need, the urge to satisfy the need, release of energy, behaviour and the goal (performance).

From the above it is clear that workers are motivated through satisfaction of their needs as humans. However, they also have to be moved with good pay and benefits from the job.

For the purpose of this study, a few examples of motivation theories are used to give an overview of the concept of job satisfaction. Although there is some controversy about job satisfaction, Cope (1979:58) argues for individual job satisfaction to address changes in the organisation, jobs and varied individual needs. Using Cameron's generally accepted approach, Cope (1979:58) categorises job satisfaction theories into three broad groups, namely discrepancy theories, equity theories and expectancy theories. These theories provide a useful survey of research work done on job satisfaction.

2.3.2 The discrepancy approach

Discrepancy theories generally outline the pattern of individual needs or wants and examine the discrepancy between what is wanted and what is obtained from or through the job. They propose that job satisfaction results from the extent to which an employee receives what he expected from a job. According to Kreitner & Kinicki (1995:161) satisfaction is a result of the “net expectations”, that is, the difference between what an employee expects from the job and what he/she actually gets. They suggest that employees will be satisfied when they attain outcomes above and beyond their expectations. On the other hand, dissatisfaction results when expectations are greater than what is received.

Discrepancy is defined as the difference between two versions of an affair (Hornby, 1989:342), referring to the difference between what is expected and what is actually received from the job in this context. Thus, the greater the discrepancy, the lower the level of satisfaction and vice versa.

The individual needs and wants of people have been successfully illustrated through the content and reinforcement theories of motivation. These theories focus on the fulfilment of the needs outlined. They hold that the extent to which job characteristics allow an employee to fulfil his needs, determines his/her level of job satisfaction.

2.3.2.1 Content theories

These theories focus on the internal needs and factors that influence human behaviour and what humans do to satisfy them (Van Dyk, 1996:323). The theories of Maslow, Herzberg and McLelland are discussed below as they provide valuable insights on job satisfaction.

(a) Maslow's need hierarchy theory

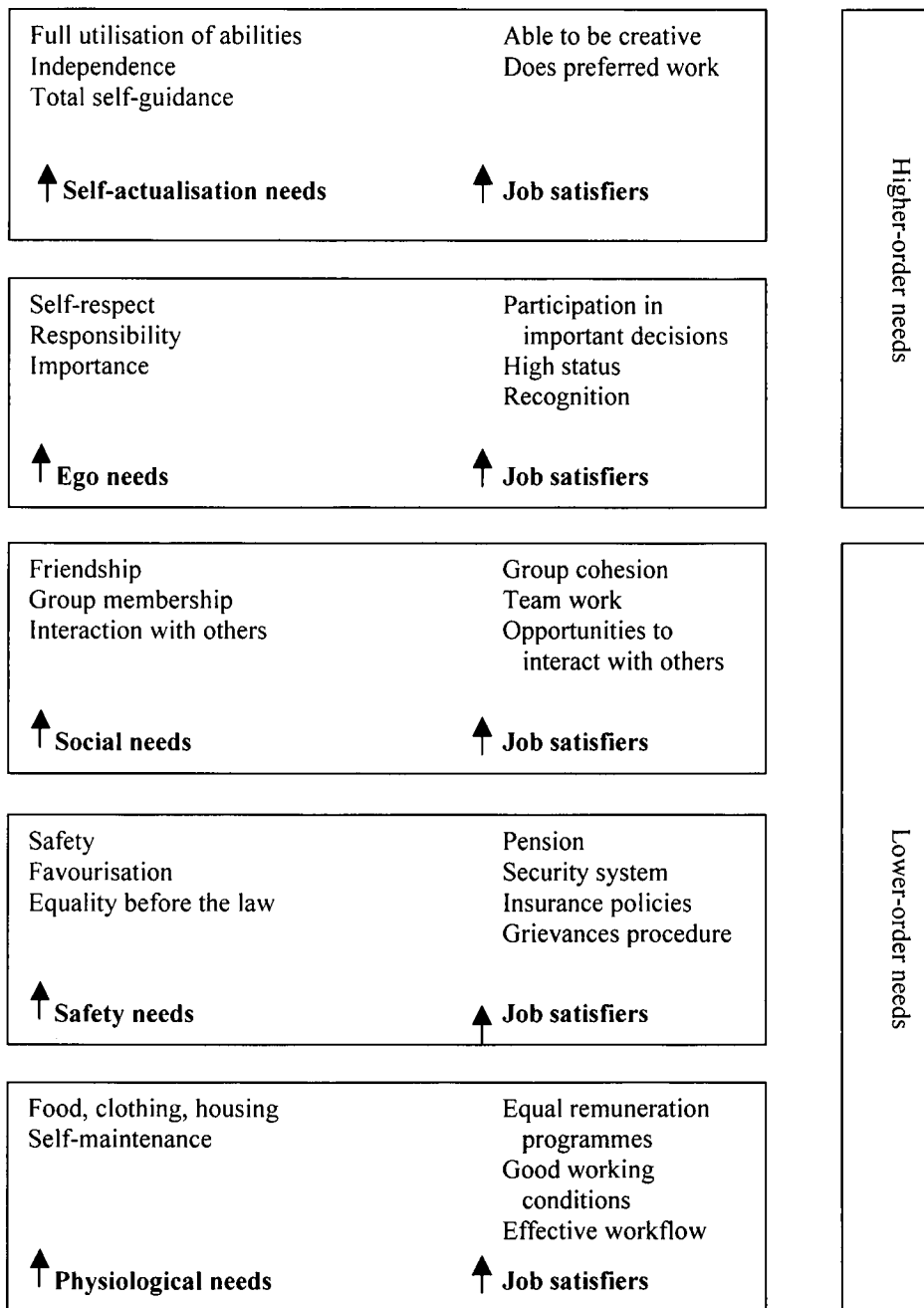
Maslow studied human behaviour and developed a pattern of the needs of man at certain times in his life. Some needs dominate at certain times, yet they were dormant at other times. According to Van Dyk (1996:323) Maslow's theory has a twofold basis:

- People are continuously wanting beings. As soon as lower-order needs are satisfied, they are replaced by needs of the next level up. A satisfied need becomes dormant and cannot act as a motivator of behaviour.
- People's needs are arranged in order of importance for human survival. Lower-order needs must be satisfied before higher-order needs.

Maslow divided the needs into five categories: physiological needs, safety or security needs, the belongingness and love needs (affection needs), esteem needs and the need for self-fulfilment. Van Dyk (1996:326) illustrates the practical application of Maslow's needs hierarchy through figure 2.1 on the next page.

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, only when the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, can higher-order needs be in demand. Van Dyk (1996:326) identifies the job satisfiers at each level of this hierarchy, for example, Maslow suggests that food, clothing, housing and self-maintenance are the physiological needs; and these can be satisfied in the work-place through equal remuneration programmes, good working conditions and effective workflow.

Figure 2.1: Practical application of Maslow's needs hierarchy



Source: Van Dyk (1996:326), adapted from Skinner and Ivancevich

Hoy and Miskel (1987:61) refer to needs as the internal forces that determine the direction and goals of behaviour. Individuals' needs and desires make them behave differently in similar situations; lecturers for example, react differently to changes in their jobs. According to Hoy and Miskel (1987:61) the needs affect the way one

perceives the work environment with regard to fulfilling the motivational needs up the hierarchy suggested by Maslow.

The importance of these needs to an individual is determined by the extent to which the needs are satisfied or can be readily satisfied. Van Dyk (1996:324-5) finds the theory to have the following implications:

Firstly, **implications for individual performance**. Management uses different strategies to motivate people. Usually good pay, service benefits and job security are the employee's efforts to satisfy the needs on the physiological and safety levels. Once satisfied, these no longer act as motivators. Therefore, the work and its environment may be designed to increase interaction between employees. The social needs will be satisfied but these can have a negative impact on the work output. The esteem and self-actualisation needs provide the best opportunity for employee motivation. This refers to the type of work done and its meaningfulness, challenge and interest to the employee. They can improve individual performance.

Secondly, **the control function**. People need to control their environment in order to manipulate it to meet their needs. However, if the environment controls people, inability to satisfy the prevailing needs can result in undesirable behaviour such as aggression, frustration and resignation. These behaviours are non-productive and unhealthy for the psychological well-being of humans. In this case, the work becomes a source of need satisfaction. Motivators thus become less prominent. The organisation requires a great deal of effort to ensure continued employee performance: mechanisms that become superfluous where people are motivated by challenging, interesting and meaningful work.

When the basic needs in people are satisfied and when they strive for satisfaction of higher needs, any hindrance in the attainment of such goals could constitute a grave cause of unhappiness and thus dissatisfaction. Ferber and Miller in Frase and Sorenson (1992:41) agreed that a great deal of job dissatisfaction could result when the affiliation needs of educators are not met.

The theory is useful since it places emphasis on the presence of needs at various levels which call for satisfaction in man, and the conditions under which these needs could be satisfied. In the teaching profession, a position offering a new challenge and an opportunity for personal growth tends to motivate teachers to spend more time and effort planning and preparing for classes (Tarrant, 1991:34). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:130) use Maslow's theory to address teachers' needs, motivation and job satisfaction. Based on Porter's revised presentation of Maslow's theory, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971: 135) divide human needs into two categories:

1. Lower-order needs: security, social and esteem to some extent.
2. Higher-order needs: esteem, autonomy and self-actualisation.

They refer to the lower-order needs as fundamental needs that must be supplied to teachers to function adequately as persons. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:136) warn the school to expect little return for these needs since teachers can demand their fulfilment by virtue of their membership in the school. Therefore, satisfaction of these needs cannot act as motivators to teachers. On the other hand, non-fulfilment of these needs may lead to unhappiness and therefore job dissatisfaction.

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971: 136) fulfilment of higher-order needs can be exchanged for the service teachers give to the school. Evidently, satisfaction of higher-order needs is rightfully earned through performance. Therefore, fulfilment of these needs leads to motivation, a feeling of happiness and job satisfaction. Maslow (1992:201) points out that basic needs are often largely unconscious although with suitable techniques and with sophisticated people, they may become conscious.

To conclude, satisfaction of lower-order needs offers inadequate personal and professional growth opportunities for which professionally oriented teachers strive. The reverse is also true if higher-order needs are satisfied.

(b) Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg and his associates made a study of the sources of people's satisfaction and dissatisfaction experienced in and around their jobs, based on Maslow's needs hierarchy theory. They divided the needs into two groups: motivators and hygiene factors, thus the Two-Factor Theory. Their pilot studies were done in industry and middle management level personnel. In interviews, employees had to describe times when they felt satisfied at work and also times when they experienced dissatisfaction at work. Herzberg found that (Van Dyk, 1996:327):

- Factors that make people happy and satisfied in their jobs differ from factors that make people unhappy with their jobs. In most cases, these feelings originate from the task itself, the nature and content of the work done. The factors include opportunities for advancement and for growth in knowledge and capabilities in the job, achievement of workers and recognition for achievement, increased responsibilities and the work itself: how interesting, challenging and meaningful it is. These factors tend to motivate employees to improve their performance and thus result in job satisfaction. However, the absence of these factors does not necessarily result in dissatisfaction, but leads to the absence of satisfaction (Van Dyk, 1996:327). These are termed motivators and they correspond to Maslow's higher-order needs, namely ego needs and self-actualisation.

- Feelings of unhappiness which cause dissatisfaction are products of factors related to the surroundings of the job such as administration and policies, interpersonal relations including supervision, wages, salaries and benefits, security and working conditions. These maintenance factors are called hygiene factors since they prevent trouble rather than eliminate it.

The study reflects a certain level of hygiene factors that is acceptable to employees. Below this optimum level, employees show dissatisfaction but this does not ensure satisfaction even when it is above the acceptable level. Rather, a positive job attitude originates from the factors that promote self-fulfilment and self-actualisation. These are Herzberg's motivators that encourage individuals to reach their aspirations (Tice,

1981:15). According to Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1996:328) and Herzberg (1992:122), although hygiene factors do not provide motivation for improved performance, employers must pay attention to them because they can cause job dissatisfaction.

In the absence of the hygiene factors, motivation is affected and workers tend to reduce their productivity. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:144) Herzberg argues that the opposite of “job satisfaction” would not be “job dissatisfaction” but rather “no satisfaction”. Similarly, the opposite of “job dissatisfaction” is “no job dissatisfaction” and not “job satisfaction”. Herzberg is convinced that the solution to motivation problems lies in the task itself by making the job interesting, meaningful and challenging. Figure 2.2 summarises the satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors of Herzberg’s hypothesis (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971:145).

Figure 2.2: The satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors

Satisfiers (Found in the work itself)	Dissatisfiers (Found in the environment of the work)
Achievement Recognition Work itself Responsibility Advancement	Salary Possibility of growth Interpersonal relations (subordinates) Interpersonal relations (supervisors) Interpersonal relations (peers) Supervision-technical Company policy and administration Working conditions Personal life Status Job security

Source: Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:145)

Apparently, both motivators and hygiene factors are necessary to meet the needs of workers. Motivator factors are intrinsic to the work while the hygiene factors are extrinsic. Pay can motivate employees to greater effort and productivity in the job. Job satisfaction of the workers, however, requires both types of factors to be present in the job situation. Furthermore, Hill (1994:223) suggests that “satisfaction and dissatisfaction are best conceived not as opposite ends of a single continuum but as

(c) McLelland's theory of self-realisation

This theory (Van Dyk, 1996:330-1) is based on the assumption that "there is a relation between the achievement motivation aroused in individuals, entrepreneurship and economic growth of a particular cultural group". Any culture or community plays a definitive role in its people's achievement motivation. According to this theory a person has the potential energy to behave in a variety of ways. The behaviour depends on the person's varied motives and opportunities offered by the situation. The need to achieve goals differs in people, and so does the effort applied to overcome difficulties towards achieving their goals.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:201), Sergovanni and Starratt's perspective on McClelland's theory is that "man prefers pleasant experiences and tries to avoid unpleasant ones". They suggest that pleasant experiences provide further motivation while errors create a feeling of failure and are counter-productive. Therefore, the achievement of objectives and the realisation of ideals can act as motivators for further achievement.

On the other hand, different work situations provide different achievement opportunities and people have different motives towards achievement. Thus their need to achieve also varies. Reddin (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:201) asserts that an individual with a high need of achievement "is motivated rather by his feeling of self-realisation than by money". For such people the opportunity for self-realisation is more important than rewards. Therefore, satisfaction with the job implies the provision of a full possibility of self-realisation.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:202) McClelland's theory distinguishes between people of three need types, namely, the need for self-realisation, the need for power (authority) and the need for interpersonal relationships (need of affiliation). The motive behind efforts made towards achievement is based on the particular need. Similarly, Wanous and Lawler's theoretical framework, the Discrepancy Model (Menlo & Poppleton, 1990:175), holds that the "fit" between the perceived reality and the worker's goals determines the level of satisfaction. This suggests that satisfaction

is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wishes from a job and that which one perceives the job as offering.

Alongside a person's needs exist his/her values. Satisfaction with the job can result from one's perception that the job allows for fulfilment of his important work values. However, even those needs, which may not be of important value to the employee, should be fulfilled. "Gains in satisfaction can be obtained by providing workers with outcomes of lesser value" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995:161).

From the theories above it is evident that the discrepancy approach involves identifying those variables that are likely to influence the workers' satisfaction with their jobs. The level of job satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the nature of the job allows the fulfilment of the individual worker's needs.

2.3.3 Equity approach

Equity theories focus on how an individual is treated at work. Satisfaction is determined by one's perception of the relation between work input and outcome. To give an overview of the equity approach, Adam and Bersheid and Walster's theories are discussed.

2.3.3.1 Adams's Equity Theory

Adams's theory (Van Dyk, 1996:333) is based on the assumption that "motivation is influenced by the degree of equity an employee experiences in the work situation". The theory compares what an employee receives on the basis of the quality and quantity of work done. If an employee feels that his pay is less than that of his colleagues who do the same work, he will be dissatisfied and will attempt to reduce the inequity. Van Dyk (1996:334) outlines the following aspects of the theory:

- **Input-outcome factors:** Inputs refer to everything regarded as an investment to work and worthy of some yield by the employee. These include experience, education, training, skills and effort. Outcomes refer to anything the employee

regards as a yield from work. These may be positive or negative. Van Dyk (1996: 335) suggests “salary, intrinsic job satisfaction, satisfactory supervision, seniority benefits and status in the organisation as positive outcomes. Negative outcomes include poor working conditions, monotony, lack of security and other hygiene factors”.

- **Inequity comparison process:** To determine the degree of inequity, the employee’s outcomes (remuneration) are related to his inputs (effort) and compared with that of a comparable employee. The comparison may reflect:
 1. *Equity* - that the relation between the employee’s inputs and outcomes is equal to that of the comparable employee.
 2. *Underpayment* - that the employee’s input-outcome ratio is smaller than that of the comparable employee.
 3. *Overpayment* - that the employee’s input-outcome ratio is greater than that of the comparable employee.

Equity may satisfy the employee depending on his present position and where he would have been in his previous or other organisations. Underpayment and overpayment reflect inequity. This can give rise to feelings of disequilibrium and arouse dissatisfaction and unhappiness. The perception of inequity creates tension among employees. The degree of inequity is indicative of the degree of the tension. This affects motivation in that the tension motivates employees to reduce it by striving towards equity measures. Van Dyk (1996:336) has reported that employees reduce inequity by one or more of the following

- Changing their inputs or outcomes to increase or decrease the outcome-input ratio in relation to that of the comparable employee;
- Distorting their inputs and outcomes subjectively by allocating changed weights to both inputs and outcomes;
- Withdrawing or transferring from the organisation;
- Reacting to the comparable employee by distorting his inputs or outcomes;
- Changing the object of comparison to have a more balanced comparison.

2.3.3.2 Bersheid and Walster's Equity Theory

The equity theory of Bersheid and Walster indicates that people are self-interested and go along with the rules of society to get what they want. "Persons view themselves and others in terms of a balance or equity-type relationship" (Tice, 1981:20). The individual seeks ways of restoring equity as soon as an imbalance is perceived. In the work-place the relationships and situations affect the way individuals feel about their jobs.

According to Tarrant (1991:32) rewards may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Teachers are mostly motivated by the intrinsic rewards of having reached their students while they complain about conditions interfering with achieving those intrinsic rewards. Tarrant's study (1991:32) with the resource teachers in Quebec added other intrinsic motivators such as working with interesting colleagues in a supportive atmosphere within the school and a strong sense of ownership in the improvement of special education. Services across the board of specific goals are reached. Extrinsic motivators such as pay are undeniably motivating but not indefinitely.

Equity theories are important but have two important drawbacks. The comparison of the employees' ratio of inputs and outputs is not practically easy and they ignore individual differences in the comparisons. The expectancy approaches next discussed are more realistic in addressing the individuality problem.

2.3.4 The expectancy approach

The approach focuses on how human behaviour originates and is directed, and the relationship between variables constituting motivation (Van Dyk, 1996:331). Sell & Shipley (1979:59) describe expectancy theories as giving a good explanation of observed human behaviour and predicting the most probable behaviours, although they fail to explain why certain behaviours should occur. Three theories have been considered to survey these approaches, namely that of Vroom, Gergen and Wolf.

2.3.4.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's expectancy theory "views an individual as making choices with some outcomes beyond his control" (Tice, 1981:17). This theory explains the tendency of people to expect certain outcomes, preferably those beneficial to them. Uncertainties force them to choose between alternatives. As a result, their behaviours are affected by preferences among these outcomes, and the degree of probability the outcomes are believed to have. Therefore, individuals participate in activities that determine their level of motivation to correlate their specific successful efforts with the desired outcomes. Satisfaction is based on a number of variables, yet some may satisfy a particular individual but not the other. In agreement, Hoy and Miskel (1987: 192) believe that this approach

"...captures the essence of why individuals expend different levels of energy in their jobs. Stated simply, the force of a person to perform depends on the answers to a series of questions that all people ask themselves on a daily basis: Is a reward being offered that I value? If I make the effort, will I be able to improve my performance? If my performance improves, will I actually be rewarded for it?"

Johnson (1986:56) adds that Vroom's theory holds that people can be expected to act in anticipation of achieving favourable outcomes (rewards), while avoiding penalties. Also, a person who desires an outcome thought to be attainable tends to shape his/her behaviour to increase the likelihood of achieving the reward.

According to Van Dyk (1996:331), Vroom's theory is based on two assumptions, namely that

- individuals have expectations about outcomes that may manifest themselves as a result of what they do, and
- individuals have different preferences for different outcomes.

This suggests that individuals will be motivated to work well if they have a perception that their efforts will result in successful performance; and that this will result in

desirable outcomes. Vroom divided these desirable outcomes into two categories very similar to those proposed by Herzberg:

- **Intrinsic outcomes** - directly related to the task, how interesting, challenging and meaningful the work is.
- **Extrinsic outcomes** - related to the environment of the job area, the working conditions, salary and benefits.

The following are variables of Vroom's theory (Van Dyk, 1996:331-2):

Expectancy (E): The expectation that the outcome can be realised influences the effort a person makes towards achieving a specific performance goal, first-level outcome. That is, if the expectancy is positive and high, every effort will be made to achieve the goal. But if the expectancy is that the performance is impossible or improbable, no effort or little will be made. Expectancy is referred to as the conviction that a particular effort or action will result in a particular outcome. The expectancy is based on one's perception of the situation.

Instrumentality (I): Reaching the first-level outcome may be instrumental in reaching a second-level outcome or reward. Instrumentality is the degree of conviction that the first-level outcome, achieving a specific performance goal, will lead to attaining the second-level outcome (reward).

Valence (V): Satisfaction rather than the immediate satisfaction it brings follows a positive outcome. This is referred to as valence. The importance of second-level outcomes is determined by the degree to which the outcomes satisfy the individual's needs.

According to Vroom's theory motivation is a process affected by the variables valence, instrumentality and expectancy, VIE in short. Motivation or effort to perform a task can be calculated from the VIE. Thus, management, including educational management, can use the theory to improve performance and productivity by

motivating employees. Therefore, improving or introducing a compensation system and promotion (reward) are directly linked to the effort made to achieve the goal (performance). To improve variage, managers should take into account individual preferences concerning aspects such as salary, promotion and recognition, with the effort to satisfy these preferences.

2.3.4.2 Gergen's exchange theory

The basis of this theory is very similar to that of Vroom. The interaction of individuals at work, in terms of the individual's contribution and rewards in relation to other individuals, is the main focus of Gergen's exchange theory.

“If a person perceives his relationship with others as having more or equal rewards to his contributions to the relationship, then he is satisfied and will likely continue the relationship until his contributions are viewed as being too great for the return (reward) he is receiving. The rewards are not all-monetary payoffs but may be also social prestige, status, and achievement and recognition” (Tice, 1981:19).

This is true for individuals with peers and employees at the workplace. To attain satisfaction, the individual's contribution is expected to be equal or less than the rewards he receives. Dissatisfaction is very likely to result from the reverse. Furthermore, dissatisfaction or low satisfaction could result from not having enough balance in exchange with peers on the job. This could lead to frustration and low performance through minimal efforts (Tice, 1981:19).

On the basis of Vroom and Gergen's theories, workers' perception of equity in relation to their peers, management and monetary rewards tend to improve satisfaction with the job. Dissatisfaction is likely where individuals perceive their job and work environment to contribute to the imbalance. Also, a feeling among workers of being exploited affects cooperation with management and other workers, leading to a negative attitude towards the job itself. Monaghan (1989:A14) identified large classes, heavy workloads and little recognition as causes of the feeling of exploitation among teachers.

2.3.4.3 Wolf's need gratification theory

According to the Need Gratification Theory of Wolf (Tice, 1981:18), salary can act as a motivator, especially when one has a high expectancy that one's job related behaviour could increase one's salary. Most motivation theorists and researchers, however, argue for performance related rewards over material related rewards. Goodland in Johnson (1986:58), for example, has found that, although money can be a reason teachers give for entering the profession, it ranks second after inefficacy as a reason for leaving the profession.

Others, such as Sieber in Johnson (1986:56), suggests that some sources of gratification are self-contained (intrinsic motivators), while others (extrinsic motivators such as money) are resources that can be used to purchase gratification elsewhere. With the same line of reasoning, Johnson (1986:58) documented that some educators claim that intrinsic rewards of teaching can be compromised when money is introduced as an additional or alternative incentive.

The former group believes the most powerful teacher's attribute is an intrinsic motivator, determining the teacher's sense of efficacy. They focus on a solution to the problem for which a reward is given. But, intrinsically motivated teachers use more information to solve the problem carefully, logically and coherently. Spuck in Johnson (1986:59) found that material rewards induce teachers to join the system and remain in it, while intrinsic rewards are related to job performance, reduced absenteeism, improved interpersonal relations and in particular effective teacher classroom behaviour.

The need gratification theory is in agreement with Vroom's hypothesis and in contrast to Herzberg, who suggests that salary is a hygiene factor. It suggests that teachers are primarily motivated by intrinsic motivators. Also, that money does matter to them, especially when it falls short of personal needs and personal satisfaction.

From the above it is apparent that the expectancy approach is based on the job outcomes, taking into account individual differences. An individual's outcome

expectations are greatly influenced by the individual's preferences. For example, a feeling of achievement motivates mainly intrinsically motivated individuals, while material rewards motivate individuals having extrinsic preference.

2.3.5 Synthesising motivational theory and job satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed, as part of the Work Adjustment Project, by the University of Minnesota (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967:v). It is a standardised instrument used worldwide in surveying job satisfaction among various occupational groups, including teachers (Sashkin, 1996:8). It is highly respected on grounds of validity, reliability, content, language level and norm availability (Feldman & Arnold, 1983:212-213).

The long form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire uses 100 questions to identify 20 job satisfaction indicators in clusters of five questions per indicator. The 20 indicators of job satisfaction used by the questionnaire are the following (Weis *et al.*, 1967:1-2):

1. **Ability utilisation:** The chance to do something that makes use of one's abilities.
2. **Achievement:** The feeling of accomplishment one gets from the job.
3. **Activity:** Being able to keep busy all the time.
4. **Advancement:** The chance for advancement in this job.
5. **Authority:** The chance to tell other people what to do.
6. **Colleagues:** The way one's co-workers get along with each other.
7. **Compensation:** A person's pay and the amount of work he/she does.
8. **Creativity:** The chance to try one's own methods of doing the job.
9. **Departmental policies and practices:** The way departmental policies are put into practice.
10. **Independence:** The chance to work alone on the job.
11. **Moral values:** Being able to do things that don't go against one's conscience.
12. **Recognition:** The praise one gets for doing a good job.
13. **Responsibility:** The freedom to use one's own judgement.
14. **Security:** The way one's job provides for steady employment.

15. **Social services:** The chance to do things for other people.
16. **Social status:** The chance to be “somebody” in the community.
17. **Supervision – human relations:** The way one’s supervisor handles his/her staff.
18. **Supervision – technical:** The competence of one’s supervisor in making decisions.
19. **Variety:** The chance to do different things from time to time.
20. **Working conditions:** The physical working conditions.

If the indicators above are related to the factors that influence job satisfaction or dissatisfaction as discussed in each of the preceding motivational theories, the results can be summarised as shown in figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: Job satisfaction indicators and the theories of motivation

Job satisfaction indicators	Maslow	Herzberg	McClelland	Adams	Bersheid & Waster	Vroom	Gergen	Wolf
Ability utilisation	X	X		X		X		X
Achievement	X	X	X				X	X
Activity	X	X				X	X	X
Advancement	X	X	X					X
Authority		X	X		X			
Colleagues	X	X	X	X	X		X	
Compensation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Creativity	X	X						X
Departmental policies and practices		X			X			
Independence	X	X						
Moral value	X	X	X					
Recognition	X	X					X	X
Responsibility	X	X						X
Security	X	X		X				
Social service		X			X			
Social status		X		X			X	
Supervision-human relations		X		X	X			
Supervision-technical		X		X	X			
Variety		X						
Working conditions		X		X	X			

From figure 2.4 it is clear that Herzberg's theory forms the basis of the questionnaire. The factors of the other theories, however, also correlate with the indicators of job satisfaction in the questionnaire. Therefore these indicators can be used as predictors of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in an organisation such as a college of education.

2.4 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

2.4.1 Managerial implications of the theories of motivation

All these theories attempt to answer the question that most managers ask themselves, "How can I motivate my people?" This question is of great importance and has been answered in many ways. However, Terpstra (1981:67) suggests that managers should borrow only the best from each theory. According to Terpstra (1981:67) each theory has some degree of validity and utility to the practising manager, and this is what should be extracted. Pearson (1991:176) suggests that managers should borrow the part with a practical application and testable explanations.

For example, the value of Maslow's theory (see 2.3.2.1 (a)) lies in its emphasis on motivating employees by appealing to their individual needs. That is, the manager has to identify and gauge employees' most important needs and utilise them by linking their satisfaction to effort or performance. When a need is identified, for example, recognition, opportunities for satisfying that need should be provided and made contingent on increased effort or performance. Another value of this theory is its focus on the recognition and identification of individual needs for the purpose of motivating behaviour.

Terpstra (1981:68) finds Herzberg's theory useful to draw the manager's attention to enriching jobs by making the work meaningful and interesting and by providing more opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth on the job. However, the nature of the employees and their needs have to be considered since some employees simply do not respond or enjoy enriched jobs. Furthermore, Haimann and Scott (1974: 358) suggest that even though management may strive for organisational "hygiene" through promoting equitable wage

administration programmes, enlightening supervision and good working conditions, a strong motivational climate could still be a problem since such efforts only minimise dissatisfiers without maximising satisfiers. Because satisfiers and dissatisfiers relate to separate and different aspects of the employment situation, motivation does not improve.

According to Haimann and Scott (1974:358), management has to develop two strategies, one directed at hygiene factors to avoid unpleasantness and the other at motivation factors to ensure personal growth through the fulfilment of satisfying conditions. They further point out that these managerial efforts can be quite complex due to human diversity to which the environment of an organisation should be responsive. Haimann and Scott (1974: 358) suggest that the following can guarantee the success of management:

- Management should foster decentralisation to allow lower managerial levels to work out the climate best adapted to the satisfaction sought by the employees supervised.
- Managers should increase their awareness of their subordinates' needs and the kind of satisfaction they require.
- Responsiveness to human satisfactions should not be interpreted as 'soft management', since it only reflects a philosophy designed to facilitate organisational adaptability and to accommodate a wide variety of changing human requirements.

Vroom's theory, according to Terpstra (1981:69), suggests that to motivate employees with the aim of increasing effort, the manager can focus on any of the three components of this theory at a time. For example, for the motivational level deemed inadequate, the manager needs to focus on each of the components to locate the cause(s). The effort-performance expectancy component may cause problems if the employee is not convinced that effort is related to performance. Then the manager has to develop more relevant performance criteria or convince the employee as to how his/her effort is related to performance.

The motivational deficit may involve the performance-outcome expectancy component. Terpstra (1981:70) suggests that the manager has to aim at improving the perceived link between performance and outcomes (rewards). Tying outcomes more directly to performance through the use of incentive plans, commissions, merit raises or merit-based promotions could do this. On the other hand, if the valence component is the source of the motivational deficit, the manager has to identify employees' relevant values and outcomes as well as their acceptable forms. Then, these outcomes are more likely to motivate effort from employees.

The expectancy theory recognises that individuals come to work with different needs to satisfy and will be motivated to greater effort if and only if employers provide the rewards they seek. These are the needs that management has to identify and fulfil. Equity theories recognise that individuals expect to be rewarded fairly. Greenberg and Baron (1995:140) suggest that underpayment should be avoided since it is an obvious source of dissatisfaction. On the other hand, they discourage overpayment, arguing that the increases in performance shown in response to overpayment inequity tend to be only temporary. With time these employees believe they deserve the high pay and bring their work level down to normal. Besides, overpaying some employees means underpaying others and this can be dissatisfying. All in all, Greenberg and Baron (1995:140) suggest that managers should strive to treat employees equitably, and be open and honest about outcomes and inputs. These have to be presented thoroughly and in a socially sensitive manner.

Torrington and Chapman (1979:100) warn researchers about the managerial assumptions about what motivates employees and the nature of the people involved, which usually influences the management of personnel in organisations. According to Torrington and Chapman (1979:100) these assumptions can represent a self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, a manager may assume that an employee is lazy and uninterested in work. Therefore he/she decides to have close control and supervision, which may be the cause of the behaviour. When the behaviour deteriorates as a result thereof, the managers tend to confirm their original assumptions which does not necessarily make them right. They further suggest that managers should explicitly

recognise their own theories and assumptions by questioning their validity, relevance and influence upon their own behaviour and the behaviour of others.

From the above, it is clear that satisfaction of human needs and how they can best be satisfied should be the manager's concern. Moreover, that the job has to be rewarding to satisfy employees indicates the importance of every organisation's reward system.

2.4.2 Managerial implications of reward systems and administration

McKenna and Beech (1995:147) postulate that motivation and rewards are connected since rewards are awarded to motivate employees to commit themselves to perform to satisfactory levels in the workplace. Therefore, those who design the reward systems have to understand the theories of motivation because these theories delve into psychological explanations of what really motivate people in formal organisations. Thierry in McKenna and Beech (1995:147) argue that pay has both psychological and social significance because it sends a lot of messages to the employee apart from its status as the most desired material reward. Thierry in McKenna and Beech (1995:147) suggest that pay performs the following role:

- It satisfies personal needs by providing an escape from insecurity, creating a feeling of competence and opening up opportunities for self-fulfilment.
- It provides feedback on how well one is doing and acts as an indicator of that person's relative position in the organisation.
- It is a reward for success in controlling others where the individual has a supervisory or managerial position.
- It conveys a capital to spend in that pay reflects one's purchasing power in the customer market.

In agreement, Hersey and Blanchard (1982:31) argue that Maslow's physiological needs are usually associated with money since having shelter, food or clothing requires money. People need money to buy that which satisfies their physiological needs, but not money itself. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982:31) money can

play a role in the satisfaction of needs at every level. For example, one's need for achievement, status or recognition can be fulfilled by driving an expensive car.

Besides monetary reward in the form of pay or awards, Greenberg and Baron (1995:132) point out that some organisations offer financial assistance to employees regarding sending their children to college or university. This provides financial security, a key aspect of job security. According to Greenberg and Baron (1995:132), other organisations satisfy their employees' social needs by celebrating a day at work with their families or including social activities in their cultures.

Furthermore, Byars and Rue (1994:323) distinguish between compensation and pay. According to them, compensation refers to extrinsic rewards that employees receive as a result of their work, while pay is just an example of the extrinsic rewards employees receive in exchange for their work. Byars and Rue (1994:324) view compensation as the basic salary and overtime pay, while pay includes incentives such as bonuses, commission, and benefits such as paid vacation, health insurance and retirement pension.

In addition to this, Cowling (1990:132) adds that pay is essential for the motivation of employees (hygiene factor). But since health requires much more than hygiene, high levels of motivation require a sense of achievement, recognition and responsibility. Pay schemes should attempt to match rewards to performance to avoid dissatisfaction of employees. With reference to the teaching profession, Johnson (1986:73) suggests that the reward system should attempt to attract teachers, retain them and improve their practice. While arguing that the best teachers stay in teaching because of the intrinsic rewards, Johnson (1986:73) further suggests that they may be forced to leave because of poor salaries or working conditions.

Cowling (1990:129) indicates that in every organisation, managers have both extrinsic rewards, pay being the most important, and intrinsic rewards such as recognition and status, available to them. According to Cowling (1990:129), pay represents both a cost and an investment to the organisation. The organisation invests in paying salaries because it is money paid in pursuit of productivity. For every organisation, the prime

objective of the pay policy is to ensure that the money devoted to pay is invested wisely. Reyes (1990:333) agrees that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards should be used to satisfy the needs which employees bring to the work situation.

The main objective of reward management as further suggested by Cowling (1990:129) is to motivate and retain a productive workforce. The pay policy should be aimed to attract and retain employees, and to encourage effort and cooperation, as well as a willingness to learn new skills and to adapt to change. The reward system that can successfully retain employees, according to Lawler III (1977:169) and Cummings and Worley (1993:407), is one that rewards enough to feel satisfied, as well as rewarding employees at a level above the reward levels in other organisations of its type.

Whatever the pay policy, researchers agree that it has to be administered in a manner perceived as equitable and fair by employees (see 2.3.3).

Byars and Rue (1994:319) highlights the importance of anything that employees perceive as a meaningful reward by suggesting that employers should view whatever employees perceive as of value to them. According to Byars and Rue (1994:319) and Beer and Walton (1991:209), rewards are related to performance. That is, if performance guarantees a reward, employees will be motivated to perform to the best of their abilities and they will be satisfied with performing the rewarding duties. It is worth noting that a desired reward is a need. Therefore, satisfaction of this need is actually meeting the expectation and this leads to greater effort to achieve to the level that will be best rewarded.

Byars and Rue (1994:321) also point out that besides the direct impact of extrinsic rewards, they can also affect intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction, for example, an increase of 10% across the board does not give any feeling of accomplishment. However, pay raise related to performance is more likely to give a feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction.

In conclusion, it should be a concern to management as to how equitable and fair the pay programme as well as its administration is.

2.5 OTHER FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is also influenced by a number of other factors. Mumfort (1991:12) warns researchers to avoid generalising since organisational and individual needs differ, and to avoid concentrating on any one factor's influence on job satisfaction. A few of these factors are the following:

- Locus of control;
- Role tensions;
- Leadership.

2.5.1 Locus of control

Although educators worldwide take different approaches to improve education at all system levels, their ultimate aim is to promote more effective training institutions. This refers to positive job attitudes of staff members to increase performance of both educators and students. Understanding educators' job attitude and behaviours therefore seems to be a necessary condition for any improvement effort (Cheng, 1994:180). With regard to control, Cheng (1994:180) has found that:

“Teachers with a belief in internal control tend to have more positive job attitude in terms of organisational commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, role clarity, and feeling of job challenge ...and internal work motivation. They also tend to have more positive perceptions of the school organisation in terms of the principal's leadership, organisational structure, teachers' social norms, and organisational culture and effectiveness.”

Therefore, according to Cheng (1994:186), locus of control seems to be a powerful indicator of teachers' job attitude and feelings and perceptions about organisational characteristics, and consequently of their level of job satisfaction.

2.5.2 Role tensions

A synthesis of research findings regarding job satisfaction performed by Thompson, McNamara and Hoyle (1997:27) suggests that the strongest predictors of job satisfaction in educational settings are role tensions, namely, role ambiguity and role conflict. These point to professional role as an apparent covariate in the relationships between overall job satisfaction and both role ambiguity and role conflict. Bacharach and Bamberger (1990:321) agree that role conflict and role ambiguity are significantly and inversely associated with job satisfaction but directly related to job dissatisfaction and eventually job stress. In fact, Conley, Bacharach and Bauer (1989:69) suggest that professionals tend to willingly accept bureaucratisation to the degree that it clarifies their role in the organisation.

Role ambiguity and role conflict are a possible source of stress at work (Newell, 1995:40). Byrne (1994:668) found that teacher burnout is significantly related to organisational variables of role conflict, work overload, classroom climate, and decision-making and the personality variables of self-esteem. These relationships were critical determinants of particular aspects of burnout for teachers regardless of the level taught although the locus of control was also important.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:90) refers to a role as what a person does in a certain position, usually defined by expectations or ideas, and distinctive personal characteristics of an individual. Tice (1981:22) proposes that mastery, clarity and appropriateness of one's role could enhance personal satisfaction with the role. Personal satisfaction is an intrinsic motivator, leading to more involvement and commitment.

Turner (Tice, 1981:21) developed the Role Theory, indicating a need for role clarity. This suggests that new roles tend to be in conflict with previous roles. Therefore, the level of clarity of the new role ensures that this is not confused with the previous ones. According to Tice (1981:21) fulfilling the role requirements could increase both motivation and job satisfaction. Thus, the role must be described accurately and completely to present a good overall picture regarding one's duties and

responsibilities. These include the behaviour of a person as determined by interpersonal relationships and events within an organisation, such as the school.

Using the Getzel and Guba model, Hoy and Miskel (1987:60) found that some roles might not be prescribed since they are associated with a wide range of role expectations. Applied to a college, for example, this range of freedom allows lecturers with different personalities to perform the same role without tension or conflict. Every lecturer has the right to plan learning experiences for students and the duty to present them in a manner effective and comfortable to him/her. The individual is performing the role as long as he behaves in a manner consistent with the institutional demands of the position.

According to Mullins (1991:338), role conflict can result in role stress. A certain amount of stress has been proved to be psychologically beneficial as it can improve performance. But high amounts of stress can be harmful, causing tension, frustration and dissatisfaction. People are more likely to be satisfied with a work environment less likely to bring stress-related illnesses.

Newell (1995:40) agrees that role conflict can be a source of dissatisfaction at work, based on the numerous roles that an individual normally plays simultaneously. These roles are associated with a number of expectations defining how the individual should behave in each. The attempts to conform to these expectations and the sanctions which can be applied if the individual steps outside the expectations, put enormous pressures on the individual in trying to behave as expected. These pressures are common in the work-place and can cause stress. According to Newell (1995:45), an ambiguous role can be stressful and also be a source of dissatisfaction at work. In this study, job stress is considered as a negative consequence of job dissatisfaction, which will be dealt with in the next chapter.

Much as the fulfilment of bureaucratic expectations and the workers' needs and motives can guarantee satisfaction, role conflict complicates communication and interpersonal relationships, hindering the effectiveness of working together. Satisfaction with the lecturer's job, therefore, requires efforts from educational leaders

to reduce role conflict and role stress as a result thereof. To ensure the satisfaction of educators with their roles, the leader should aim at supporting them as they perform their tasks.

2.5.3 Leadership

Leadership is defined by Ivancevich, Donnelly and Gibson (1983:283) as the process of creating a work environment, by the leader, in which people can do their work best. This includes the leader getting people to do their work willingly, convincing them to do it even when they do not feel like doing it at all. According to Ivancevich *et al.* (1983:284), the leader has to exercise influence through communication to specify the task-related activities of the individuals or groups. These are the activities required to achieve effective performance for which employees are rewarded. Johnson and Holdaway (1991:66) refer to effective leaders as those who are successful in behaving in an exemplary manner, communicating with their subordinates, making timely, appropriate and acceptable decisions, and establishing a suitable work atmosphere.

Likert in Rohman (1985:19) has found that the employee's job satisfaction depends upon the relationship between the employee's perception of the supervisor's leadership behaviour and the expectations, values, and skills of the employee. In whatever leaders do, directly or indirectly, they influence the satisfaction of their subordinates (Strauss 1977:299). The direct influence lies in their daily interactions while the indirect one lies in the management activities that design systems for the organisation. In addition, Litt and Turk (1985:178) suggest that the role teachers perceive for themselves as well as the school climate, particularly their relationship with administrators, is extremely important in predicting their job stress.

Tarrant (1991:33) suggests that the quality of education should be determined by the success of educational leaders, arguing that these leaders have a significant role in the overall educators' morale and effectiveness, as well as in student success. On the other hand, research findings indicate that the leader's success can be attributed to the characteristics of the situation in which he/she acts (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:273).

Educational leaders have a challenging managerial role. They manage work performed by specialists whose individual knowledge in their respective fields surpasses that of the manager. With regard to colleges of education for example, the rectors manage lecturers who are experts in the subjects they teach, but they have to be able to judge whether they did or did not achieve their goals. Kellogg (1979:100) and Nel (1996:505) suggest that the managers have to lay groundwork for sound motivation toward organisational goals by involving the staff in planning and formulating the organisational goals. Moreover, they have to offer support to their subordinates since this can be a key feature in the elimination of dissatisfaction and stress (Fimian, Pierson & McHardy, 1986:757).

Although many educational theorists advocate a democratic leadership style that encourages staff involvement in decision-making (Marra, 1978:1), some research findings do not point to a single leadership style as the best. Instead, "what traits under what situation are important to leader effectiveness" is the question (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:274). They found that most research literature involves the contingency approach. This approach highlights the importance of specifying the conditions or situational variables that influence the relationship between the leader's behaviour and his/her performance.

According to Hoy and Miskel (1987:274), "under one set of circumstances, one type of leader is effective, and under another set of circumstances, a different type of leader is effective". Thus, leadership involves both leader behaviour and the conditions of the organisation.

One general theoretical basis for a research approach in investigating leader behaviour was initiated by Evans, namely the path-goal theory. House's path-goal theory (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:292) explains how leaders influence the perceptions of their subordinates about personal goals, work goals and the path to goal attainment. Rohman (1985:31) regards the path-goal theory as the extension of the valence expectancy theory of Lewin and Vroom. The path-goal theory focuses on how the leader's behaviour affects path-goal expectations and job satisfaction of employees.

Yet the valence expectancy theory focuses on the motivational basis of action (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:292).

House and Mitchell (1990:483) suggest that a person “is satisfied with his job if he thinks that it leads to things that are highly valued, and he works hard if he believes that effort will lead to things that are highly valued”. According to House and Mitchell (1990:483), this theory can be used to

- predict why leaders behave the way they do, and
- understand how leader behaviour influences subordinate motivation.

For this study, the latter is important. House and Mitchell (1990:484) found that researchers with this approach focus on:

- How a leader affects subordinates’ expectations that effort will lead to effective performance and valued rewards;
- How these expectations affect motivation to work hard and perform well.

According to Tosi (1990:484) and Rohman (1985:32) Evans suggests that in order to succeed, leaders should create conditions that link their performance path and the personal goals. He further suggests that the leader make the rewards available, and that the rewards be contingent on the subordinate’s accomplishment of specific goals (performance).

In agreement, Whaley (1994:47) has found that educators are satisfied when their leaders put high priorities on rewards for job performance. These must be communicated to the staff. Successful educators take pride in the values and beliefs of their school and are committed to making them a success through their teaching.

The path-goal theory emphasises clarity of the subordinates’ behaviour that leads to the goal accomplishment and a valued reward, thus clearing the subordinates’ path or expected behaviour. In addition, the leader’s support to subordinates as they perform the task, increases the rewards and motivation of subordinates (Tosi, 1990:484).

Workers in a given work area tend to have certain goals in common that they wish to achieve. This is suggested by the path-goal theory. According to this theory, goals that workers are trying to achieve, reflect the workers' needs. For example, "if individuals perceive high productivity as a path to their goal, they will tend to be high producers" (Tice, 1981:23). In turn, satisfaction of these individuals with their jobs will be guaranteed by high production.

Evans (Tosi, 1990:484) found a positive relation between the performance of subordinates and the view of their leader as being supportive (considerate of their needs) and the degree to which they provide clear directions and guidance. Ivancevich *et al.* (1983:284) add that leaders have to adopt styles that reflect their ideas and perspectives on the importance of tasks and the people they work with.

House's path-goal theory outlines the effects of leader behaviour on the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates, their acceptance of the leader and their expectations that their effort towards effective performance is the path to valued rewards. Hoy and Miskel (1987:292) agree when they say "leaders are effective when they enhance the acceptance, satisfaction and motivation of their subordinates." The four types of leadership style suggested by House and Mitchell (Tosi, 1990:490-492) are:

- *Directive leadership* – Where role demands are ambiguous, this leadership correlates with satisfaction and expectations of subordinates. The leader provides the necessary guidance. Conversely, directive leadership can hinder progress where subordinates are familiar with the task demands, by giving direction through rules and principles.
- *Supportive leadership* – Subordinates working on stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying tasks, need support from their leaders. It can be satisfying to see that the leader show concern and is friendly to them.
- *Achievement-oriented leadership* - Provides satisfaction to subordinates with ambiguous and non-repetitive tasks. These subordinates always have challenging goals. The achievement-oriented leader assures the subordinates that efforts for effective performance will be rewarded.

- *Participative leadership* – Creates a participative climate, good for decision-making as it 1) clarifies the path and goals, 2) allows subordinates to decide on goals that they want, 3) increases subordinates' control over what happens to them on the job and 4) lets subordinates determine pressure toward high performance themselves. This style is good when subordinates prefer autonomy, self-control and are low authoritarians.

So far, the significance of appropriate leadership behaviours is evident. The amount of influence that the specific leader behaviour has in motivating subordinates can be predicted from his/her leadership style. The success of the management activities of an educational leader - planning, organising, guiding and controlling - is dependent on the degree to which the leader can trigger the power of motivation in the educators towards achieving the set goals (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:296).

The effectiveness and efficiency of leadership depend on a number of factors. These include creating an organisational climate conducive to teaching and learning, quality communication and a positive attitude towards work.

2.5.3.1 Organisational climate

Organisational climate refers to teachers' perception of the general work environment of the institution and is influenced by the institutional structure, the personalities of the participants and the organisational leadership (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:309). It makes one institution different from another. "If teacher performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers' sense of professionalism and decrease their job dissatisfaction" adds Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:37). Lissmann and Gigerich (1990:279) further suggest that working conditions be related to various cultural settings since educators attach different values to working conditions and to the social context of the job.

Educational leaders are probably the most important in creating a favourable organisational climate, which in turn predicts other behavioural and attitudinal variables of the staff, such as job satisfaction, motivation and morale, teacher

performance and student achievement (Ntsaluba, 1991:38). Neumann, Reichel and Saad (1988:82) and Ball and Stenlund (1990:322) found a strong relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction, work attitude and attitude towards collective bargaining.

The quality of human activity in an organisation is greatly determined by the spirit (milieu, culture, atmosphere, ethos or climate) which influences these activities and which differs from one school to another (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:630). It is when the organisational climate is favourable that educative teaching and learning can take place, through the enthusiasm of all people in the institution. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:631) all these people feel that the organisational climate influences their behaviour and in turn determines the value of the organisation. A climate that is positively perceived by the people involved in a particular organisation, is a source of satisfaction and a positive attitude towards work. The college is no exception; the college climate may have a positive or negative influence on the personnel involved in the teaching-learning process: lecturers, students and the community.

The mutual relationship between students and lecturers arouses enthusiasm and brings changes through new possibilities in an organisation. Therefore, educational leaders should create an effective educational climate, influencing people towards achieving educational goals. Fox (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:633) suggests the following aims for creating a positive climate:

- Work satisfaction;
- Maximum productivity;
- Co-ordination of tasks for a team effort;
- Recognition of the principle of human dignity.

2.5.3.2 Communication

Bowditch and Buono (1990:106) define communication as the exchange of information between the sender and the receiver and the perception of meaning between the individuals involved. According to Bowditch and Buono (1990:106)

communication is one of the fundamental processes of almost all activity in organisations. In any organisation incoming information is communicated to the leader, who has to communicate it to his/her subordinates. How well and how effectively the leader can do this, should be a concern of every top management (Leslie, 1989:21).

To McKenna and Beech (1995:177), communication is a process at the disposal of the organisation to keep management and employees informed about a variety of relevant matters. For example, the leader has to communicate the mission statement and the objectives of the organisation, as well as what is expected of them in terms of performance and how a change in strategic direction of the organisation is likely to affect them. Employees, on the other hand, should have the opportunity to communicate their reaction to proposals and put forward counter-proposals.

McKenna and Beech (1995:177) state:

“Good communication, as the lifeblood of the organisation, helps to promote the involvement of employees in decision-making processes, and in doing so, can enhance the individuals’ identification with the organisation, which in turn can lead to improved performance.”

With regard to the teaching profession, Frase and Sorenson’s (1992:42) study revealed that in addition to their difficulties regarding unsatisfied needs, teachers are generally dissatisfied by the absence of feedback, autonomy and task-related interactions.

Ross (1981:168) points out that “productivity suffers where poor communication exists”, suggesting the following as the main reasons for improving communication between supervisor and subordinate:

- Communication takes 75 percent of an average manager’s time; thus improving the process will improve the effectiveness and utilisation of time.
- The manager gets production results through communication; therefore the process seeks constant improvement.

The quality of the communication process relates to the overall educator job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1987:405). Leaders should communicate the scope of the job clearly to employees as well as how their contributions are related to the organisational goals (Hoy & Miskel, 1987: 405).

Whaley (1994:47) found a strong relationship between the leaders' communication effectiveness and the satisfaction of the staff, particularly in areas of feedback, reward and support. According to Whaley (1994:49) effective communication is the main component of leadership, especially in problem situations. Ineffective communication can be problematic. Bass (1990:458) finds it a problem when supervisors say and believe they give feedback and information to their subordinates who feel that they do not receive it.

Leading or guiding is a managerial task aimed at ensuring that the work is done well. To fulfil this task, Van der Westhuizen (1991:183) suggests that the leader should give direction to his/her followers towards achieving the set goals and should be able to build relationships. Consequently, motivation and communication play an important part in leading. The leader has to consider his followers' feelings and direct them to efficiency through communicating ways of carrying out their specific tasks.

2.5.3.3 Attitude towards work

Wi'sniewski (1990:299) approaches job satisfaction as a hypothetical syndrome of attitudes with some degree of typological notion, namely that one may be satisfied with some aspects of the job but not with others. Wi'sniewski (1990:300) suggests analysing the teacher's attitude towards various aspects of the teacher's role in relation to their high satisfaction as one way of determining the strength of the links. Furthermore, that teachers showing highest and lowest job satisfaction should be compared and further analysed as a basis for improving the situation.

To educational leaders, Wiśniewski (1990:303) proposed the following factors as determinants of job satisfaction:

- Work conditions;
- Teacher participation in formulating didactics and educational policy of the school;
- Educational equipment;
- The atmosphere created by the principal;
- The frequency with which professional literature is consulted;
- Pay;
- Administrative work done by teachers;
- Teacher's knowledge of subject matter;
- Feeling of getting support when it is needed.

From the above, it is clear that understanding the attitudes of workers towards aspects of their job is necessary since it can determine those aspects of the job that have to be addressed as well as ways of addressing them.

2.5.4 Some evidence of identified indicators of job satisfaction in the teaching profession

In the 1980s Japan went through its "third educational reform". The National Council on this reform advocated improvement in the quality of teachers through in-service training. It was during this time that Ninomiya and Okato (1990:249) analysed teacher job satisfaction in Japan. They found that teachers who are satisfied with the job feel that "teaching measures up to the sort of work" they wanted when they entered the profession. Teachers who are not satisfied tend to have "over-expectations" about the profession, which is idealised without adequate or actual knowledge of working conditions and other aspects of the profession.

The satisfied teachers were the males and the mid-career teachers, while young teachers had difficulty adapting to their working environment. Some were those teachers who find success at work very important and those whose salaries were

100% of the total household annual income. For the critical analysis of satisfied teachers in Japan, Ninomiya and Okato (1990:249) itemised the following as very important for job satisfaction as indicated by those teachers who are satisfied:

“...pleasant physical surroundings at work, freedom to decide how teachers do their work, enough materials and equipment for the work, good pay, reasonable class size, the support and cooperation of colleagues (working conditions), sharing in the guidance system, being involved in counseling individual students, and understanding the running of clubs, sport, drama, trips, etc (roles and responsibilities), giving prompt attention when issues of student behaviour arise, developing warm, personal relationships with students (classroom practices).”

They attributed job dissatisfaction to:

Lack of professional skills and competence: Young teachers, especially those in their twenties, are more likely to be dissatisfied with the job. They find the profession different from what they expected; skills and competencies acquired at teacher-training stage are not always sufficiently utilised in practical teaching; they experienced difficulty in student-guidance and encounter problems in school management; they do not have enough time for preparation of instruction; and principals encounter leadership problems, especially those not professionally trained, but selected among the senior experienced teachers.

Japanese teachers at risk: Teachers' feelings of difficulty in their job result in stress, changing the individual's behaviour and/or resulting in illness. Mental disturbances have been documented. Some teachers are at greater risk of these psychological problems than others due to working environments and are calling for administrators' concern.

Expansion of role and responsibilities: Teachers' roles and responsibilities keep them so busy that the ability to give quality instruction and guidance is reduced. Changes in the social and business lives of this decade forced the family responsibilities onto the schools. These include discipline and providing various opportunities for children.

Female teachers: Females tend to hold to their stereotyped roles at home even when they work outside home. They have to be good teachers at school and good wives and mothers at home. Role conflict may lead to dissatisfaction with the teaching job.

The Japanese style in teacher-student relationships: A warm and personal relationship between teacher and student is very important in Japan but its development tends to be difficult for most teachers. The warm relationship still has to be strictly in accordance with the traditional Confucianism, keeping some distance between teacher and student. Nonetheless, a more democratic style of relationship seems to be developing.

A non-challenging attitude: Dissatisfaction among teachers is possibly the result of teachers being unchallenged, uncritical and uninnovative. This could be due to teachers who are reluctant to try challenging practices, thus following the same direction as everyone else.

Educational leaders should be concerned with attracting and retaining the best educators. The aspect of the job which influences educators' job satisfaction and motivation, may be of best interest to their leaders in particular.

Frase and Sorenson (1992:39) relate motivation and satisfaction to participatory management. They suggest that leaders must

- ensure that they spend time with their staff formally and informally, so that feedback given may be accurate,
- promote interaction so as to share responsibilities for decision-making since isolation is seen as a job dissatisfier for most employees. The leader must allow freedom to develop collegial relationships while they share the responsibility for decision-making, and
- identify educators' high growth needs and provide them with task-related, person-oriented or collegial opportunities. The growth needs include the desire for professional growth and achievement to meet the affiliation needs of educators.

In South Africa, Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:38) designed their research to understand and describe the extent to which the sample of teachers used experienced job satisfaction from their own framework of reference. They sampled the schools on the basis of their accessibility and the willingness of the teachers to be used in the study. Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:39) used three data collection strategies, namely observation, individual interviews and group focus interviews. Observation was aimed at obtaining the general feel of the school climate and teaching practices. Individual interviews were used to elicit data from the principal of the schools used in the study. The focus group interviews with the participating teachers were found to be especially well suited to exploring the attitudes and experiences of the informants. The data collected was then analysed by identifying, coding and categorising the primary patterns in the data.

Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:39) attribute job dissatisfaction to the following factors:

Physical working conditions: The schools varied but generally there were no suitable playing areas for the children, broken fences, not sufficient classrooms to accommodate both the necessary furniture and the pupils per class. In some cases there were no clerical staff-room and no telephone. None of these schools had a library, and toilet facilities and facilities for learners to wash their hands were not adequate. Teachers did not have a proper staff-room where they could relax and have tea or prepare their lessons.

Support by education authorities: Principals indicated problems they had with the education department especially not informing them about changes taking place in education.

Job security and teachers' salaries: Teachers referred to the poor salaries they got as the source of dissatisfaction and a factor driving teachers out of the teaching profession. Teachers also feel insecure in their job because of the government's policy of right-sizing primary schools to the teacher: pupil ratio of 1:40. It is true that this is meant to solve problems in schools where classes are overcrowded. For these schools, job insecurity was attributed to the fact that a significant number of teachers were not

permanent, thus they could be forced to go while the permanent teachers from other schools could be transferred to take up their posts. Lack of job security was blamed for the lack of commitment on the part of teachers.

Interpersonal relations: In interviews, teachers complained about poor home-school relationships. This results in parents refusing to assist learners at home or teachers having trouble contacting parents when they experience problems at school. Some parents are not willing to assist teachers and are rude when approached while others work long hours and therefore do not have the necessary time. Their grandparents, who are not helpful either, take care of some children. Negative interpersonal relations with colleagues were blamed on lack of staff-rooms, reducing chances for interaction. Instead, teachers tend to form cliques along trade unions and political lines. Teacher-learner relationships, on the other hand, are not satisfactory. There seem to be no clear boundaries between the two groups, which often lowers teacher morale.

Appreciation/Recognition: Teachers feel that the communities they serve, do not appreciate what they do and therefore do not afford them much respect. Some teachers believe that this is due to the low salaries they earn, while others believe that primary teachers are not respected because their qualifications are not as good as those of the secondary school teachers, most of whom have university qualifications. This attitude is said to apply even to learners, who tend not to respect teachers teaching lower classes. However, some teachers feel that teachers are to blame for the lack of respect they get because of their tendency to go on strike or neglect learners to further their own studies.

School culture: A culture of learning is lacking in township schools. Some teachers were dissatisfied with the apathy of learners in their classes, the source of which was not clear; whether teaching methods were at fault or whether the problem lay with the learners themselves, was not clear. Lack of a learning culture is related to a lack of discipline especially since the prohibition of corporal punishment.

Environmental factors: Poor socio-economic factors brought about by poverty, poor backgrounds and family problems have negative implications for teachers. These home circumstances also influence the extent to which learners can do their homework. Violence in townships results in learners being aggressive. Regardless of the teachers' efforts to train learners in conflict resolution strategies, the culture of violence has a huge and negative impact on education.

Nature of work and workload: Teachers are expected to fulfil a wide range of responsibilities and eventually the load becomes too much. Parents, on the other hand, are not prepared to assist teachers in their educational task. Some teachers feel that their training did not prepare them adequately for the educational practice. They feel that the training is different from reality and that they lack skills such as management, which they feel they need. In-service training has been discontinued, yet teachers express a need to be equipped in this manner. They feel there is a lack of support services in the form of specialists to help them cope with the various problems they encounter in schools. At some schools teachers have to cope with children with special needs and behavioural problems without any expert assistance.

Physical and emotional effect on teachers: Most teachers reported a feeling of despondency and an inability to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching. Moreover, they were afraid of losing their jobs or being relocated. This feeling of uncertainty regarding their future in education was one of the main sources of dissatisfaction. Teachers who reported more job dissatisfaction tended to be less committed to their work. They also suffered from various physical ailments and complained about migraine headaches, heart complaints and ulcers.

From the above it is clear that the level of job satisfaction of teachers in South Africa requires attention. A great deal has to be done to improve the conditions under which teachers work, but funds are required and this is the reason for delay. However, it is necessary that the government should consider non-monetary and low-cost incentives to ensure quality and job satisfaction. Moreover, educational leaders should be sensitive to the impact of their leadership style on the level of job satisfaction of teachers.

2.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is clear that there are reasons for all human behaviour and that no two persons are alike. Each behaviour is directed towards satisfying a need. To satisfy their needs, humans are stimulated to work. The urge to satisfy these needs motivates people to release the energy necessary for work. Moreover, conditions prevailing in the work area should also be motivating and favourable. It is therefore imperative that people enjoy their work and perceive it as adequately rewarding.

Job satisfaction is influenced by many factors, which differ from one organisation to another. In every organisation, identifying these factors, be they satisfiers or dissatisfiers, is important in developing strategies to improve the positive factors while reducing negative ones. In the next chapter, the relationship between job satisfaction and these factors is investigated. It is the strength of these relationships that determines the significance of their effects on the overall employee satisfaction.

Chapter 3

THE CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the relationship between job satisfaction and some job behaviours with the aim of determining the effects of job satisfaction since these behaviours have serious consequences for the overall effectiveness of the organisation and its ability to survive. The relationship between job satisfaction and the behaviour has to be strong enough to have a significant impact on the organisation. This is aimed at answering questions pertaining to the extent to which job satisfaction is related to these behaviours. Various research studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and other organisational variables (Borg & Riding, 1991:263; Bacharach & Bamberger, 1990:317). It is impossible to discuss all these findings, therefore a few related to the teaching profession are considered.

3.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION AND SOME ORGANISATIONAL VARIABLES

3.2.1 Job satisfaction and withdrawal from work

One apparently self-evident result of dissatisfaction is the likelihood of increasing withdrawal of individuals from the work situation. The withdrawal from work remains a costly problem which jeopardises the quality of education of any country.

This behaviour can be in the form of absenteeism or employee turnover, but both invite attention or possibly remedial action.

3.2.1.1 Job satisfaction and absenteeism

Gruneberg (1979:109) defines absenteeism as temporary withdrawal of workers from work for a short period of time. Absenteeism is costly to the organisation and should be reduced. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:161), increasing job satisfaction is often recommended as one way that can reduce absenteeism, provided the two can be proved to correlate. Attempts to prove that absenteeism and job satisfaction are related, are not quite convincing. However, Scott and Wimbuch's study (1991:506) revealed that absenteeism among teachers was significantly related to distance from work, gender, job involvement and job satisfaction.

According to Gruneberg (1979:109) some researchers find absenteeism as an alternative when getting an alternative job is not a realistic possibility. Others describe absenteeism as a sign that the individual is likely to leave the organisation in the near future. Many researchers could not find a significant relationship between absenteeism and job satisfaction. Metzner and Mann (Gruneberg, 1979:111) for example, suggest that many factors other than job satisfaction influence absenteeism. These factors include gender. The responsibilities of female teachers at work and at home make them more susceptible to absenteeism. The findings of some of these researchers include the following:

Khaleque (Sell & Shipley, 1979:100) could not find a significant difference in the incidence of absenteeism between satisfied and dissatisfied workers. Evidence only pointed at greater absenteeism of low performance workers. Kahn and Wherry (1985:113) suggest that dissatisfied employees do not plan to be absent but respond more readily to the opportunities to do so than their satisfied colleagues. Feldman and Arnold (1983:203) add that the dissatisfied employee is more likely to take days off due to illness or personal business for no reason but to be away from the frustrating job. They further suggest that employees with high levels of job satisfaction exert the high effort necessary to get to work against all odds, for example, transport and

inclement weather. On the other hand, employees with lowest job satisfaction are less likely to apply any effort; any reason enough not to be penalised for being absent would be an opportunity to be away from work.

Ilegen and Hollenbach (Gruneberg, 1979:112) find it unlikely that a high degree of satisfaction with pay, security and company policy can lead to regular attendance in organisations with generous sick-leave schemes. Instead, they find it more likely that companies which allow more frequent absence, can produce greater satisfaction. They then suggest that instead of focusing on the relationship between absenteeism and job satisfaction, researchers should focus on whether job satisfaction correlates with the attainment of valued rewards for attendance behaviour.

In agreement, Baum (1981:199) points out that rewards can be used to improve and reduce absenteeism. He suggests a control policy based on positive reinforcements to improve attendance and sanctions based on a motivational pattern of legal compliance to reduce absence. However, the reinforcers and other incentives used should have proof of positive response from workers to prove that they can be used to make employees attend more regularly. Baum (1981:199) bases his argument on the assumption that those employees "with highest probability of responding to positive reinforcement would not be adversely affected by the presence of sanctions that apply to the chronic employee".

In conclusion, although the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism is not direct, one can argue that job satisfaction indicators, such as pay and job security, can be improved and/or be used as rewards for attendance behaviour, while sanctions, such as no work no pay, can reduce absenteeism.

3.2.1.2 Job satisfaction and employee turnover

Employee turnover refers to the permanent withdrawal of an individual from work or transferring with the result that the individual has to be replaced. Some authors refer to employee turnover as career intention. For instance, Borg and Riding (1991:265) refer to turnover as career intention, defined within the teaching profession as the

teacher's intention to leave teaching. This brings about costly disruptions to the organisation's normal operations, moral problems among those who remain and increase cost, time and energy involved in selecting and training replacements (Gruneberg & Osborne, 1981:177; Feldman & Arnold, 1983:203). It is therefore imperative to reduce it.

Besides the general, economic and personal factors, increasing employee job satisfaction is one way that has been found to reduce turnover significantly (Keitner & Kinicki, 1995:162). In fact, Lawler III (Hackman & Suttle, 1977:169) points out that managing employee turnover means managing satisfaction at work, which depends on the effectiveness in relating rewards to performance. Gruneberg and Osborne (1981:177) and Feldman and Arnold (1983:204) suggest that turnover is directly related to the availability of job opportunities elsewhere, but a number of factors such as job satisfaction are within the control of the organisation.

Mobley (1982:125) advocates the understanding of the following aspects of job satisfaction before its relationship with turnover:

- Sensitivity to individual differences in work values;
- The emphasis of job satisfaction on employee perceptions;
- The fact that job satisfaction is controlled by a set of important values perceived as being attained on the job instead of just one;
- Job satisfaction is a present-oriented evaluation of the job with no expectations of what the organisation may offer in future.

However, convincing evidence documents a positive relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Hulin (Gruneberg, 1979:113) proved the positive relationship by comparing employees who left a company and those who stayed on a number of dimensions. These included their scores on a job satisfaction scale administered before some left. Employees who left, had substantially lower levels of job satisfaction than those who stayed.

Through self-report investigations, young and less experienced teachers felt that they were very likely to leave the profession within the first five years (Borg & Riding, 1991:265). Travers's study (Borg & Riding, 1991:265) confirmed this with older and more experienced teachers who reported their active consideration to leave the teaching profession in their first five years of teaching, yet they were now less likely to leave. In agreement, Kahn (1977:77) suggests that older employees are probably more satisfied because of their increasing adaptation to the job on the basis of experience. The younger ones have high expectations of promotion and other job conditions that are practically not easy to get, so they tend to be dissatisfied.

On the other hand, Livy (1988:431), Gruneberg (1979:114) and Tice (1981:49) agree that employee satisfaction with the following factors has a consistent and inverse relationship with employee turnover: overall satisfaction, promotion prospects, pay levels, supervisory relations, work group size, job content, autonomy and responsibility. Gruneberg (1979:114) adds that job satisfaction is mainly related to individual factors such as vocational interests. Evidence indicates that "those who regard their jobs as being in line with vocational interests are less likely to leave than others" (Gruneberg, 1979:115). These may or may not be related to perceived job satisfaction.

However, Porter and Steers (Gruneberg, 1979:115 and Gruneberg and Orbone, 1981:177) argue that the absence or presence of any factor is not directly related to turnover, but the extent to which expectations concerning these factors are met on the job is important. Failure of the organisation to meet employees' expectations leads to dissatisfaction. To Mobley (1982:102), turnover is one behavioural reaction to dissatisfaction.

Gruneberg and Orbone (1981:178) suggest that other factors related to turnover include the degree to which supervision is considerate, equitable, giving recognition and feedback; unit size; peer relationships and job content such as task repetitiveness, lack of challenge in the job, lack of autonomy and lack of role clarity. All these factors influence job satisfaction of employees. The extent to which employees' expectations concerning each factor are fulfilled, will determine their level of

satisfaction with the job regarding that factor. Ilgen and Seely (1981:181) suggest that recruiters should provide adequate information on what the new employee can expect from the job he/she is recruited for. They base their argument on the fact that, should the employee decide to take the post, his/her expectations will be within the picture initially presented by the recruiter.

Gruneberg (1979:115) and Mitchell and Larson (1987:142) further argue that there are other factors, not necessarily connected with the job, that force individuals to continue with the job they may not be satisfied with. Also, individuals may change or leave the job they are satisfied with for personal reasons. For instance, Thomas (Tice, 1981:50) found that the main reason for turnover of female teachers was marriage, pregnancy and the husband's transfer, whereas the converse is true in the older age groups.

From the above it is apparent that turnover is not always directly related to job satisfaction, but the fulfilment of expectations is more likely to bring satisfaction and reduce turnover as a result. For example, turnover can be reduced by increasing job satisfaction related variables such as pay. On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that personal reasons might promote turnover regardless of the high level of job satisfaction.

3.2.2 Job satisfaction and career commitment

Career commitment is defined as the teacher's intention to take up teaching as a career if they were to start their careers again (Borg & Riding, 1991:265). Career intention and career commitment are distinct in that a teacher may decide to leave teaching (career intention or turnover) for alternatives within the profession, which may indicate a commitment to the career. Hill (1994:230) adds that those teachers who have achieved relative career success (older teachers and teachers in senior posts) are more likely to remain in present posts until they retire. Moreover, older teachers would find it difficult so late in their lives to equal the benefits of their present job in another line of work. According to Hill (1994:230), less successful and younger

teachers who feel wrongly placed in the teaching profession, can leave their jobs for other alternatives, reflecting less commitment to the teaching career.

The level of job satisfaction leads to either greater or lesser commitment to the job, which affects effort to do the work and eventually performance (Kahn & Wherry, 1985:111).

Borg and Riding (1991:279) found a significant relationship between more stress and lower job satisfaction and career commitment. Furthermore, male teachers compared with their female colleagues become less committed to the career with age while females become increasingly career committed. They suggest that, for male teachers, this could be attributed to growing frustration with poor promotion prospects, poor salary and lack of benefits commensurate with their qualifications and experience. For female teachers, on the other hand, it was not readily apparent why career commitment increased except that there are fewer females in the older age groups. Therefore, the remaining few could be the most committed or those having other factors that force them to remain in teaching irrespective of available alternatives.

Farber (1984:327) found a significant relationship between career commitment and dissatisfaction with stressful working conditions, arguing that teachers feel they would not choose this career if they had to do it again because they were not adequately prepared for the stresses in teaching. According to Farber (1984:328), teachers also feel that society is not making things easier by increasing its expectations from them, while the educational leaders and administrators are not doing much to improve the quality of teachers' jobs.

On the other hand, Farrugia (1986:221) suggests that the general view of teacher commitment is that people are attracted to the profession by purely extrinsic factors such as long holidays, good working conditions and job security in the midst of white collar unemployment, and not by intrinsic pedagogical commitment. The working conditions "allow ample time for cultural and leisure activities, as well as opportunities to acquire extra income from after school work" (Farrugia, 1986:221).

From the above it is clear that job dissatisfaction is related to professional commitment. Thus, dealing with the dissatisfying aspects of the job could increase educators' commitment, a condition necessary for improving the culture of teaching and learning in any country's education system.

3.2.3 Job satisfaction and union activity

Feldman and Arnold (1983:204) suggest that there is strong evidence that job dissatisfaction is a major cause of unionisation, into which employees initiate interest based on dissatisfaction with working conditions and a perceived lack of influence to change those conditions. According to Feldman and Arnold (1983:203), the employer violates the employees' expectations by not keeping wages up with inflation, by arbitrary and capricious discipline, or by not removing safety hazards. The employer further violates the employees' expectations by failing to respond to their complaints, denying the legitimacy of the employees' attempt to exert influence to change the working conditions.

Feldman and Arnold (1983:204) further suggest that the employees join the unions as an attempt to find a body with enough power to deal with the employer in solving their work problems. Otherwise, satisfied employees do not feel the need for unions. With the same view, Hartley and Stephenson (1992:171) suggest that union joining is high in the following situations:

- Where employees believe that the union will be instrumental in helping them to obtain outcomes they desire;
- Where employees believe that they were less likely to influence changing their working conditions through channels such as talking to their superiors, through high performance or networking;
- Where employees direct their dissatisfaction to unions rather than, say, turnover or absenteeism;
- Where joining is related to the provision of protection against diversity such as unfair treatment or accusations of misconduct. In addition, for conflict insurance

from unions by providing material and legal assistance in the event of individual grievances and problems.

In all these situations, one can conclude that the employer has violated the employees' expectations to the level that the latter do not trust the former, and as a result join the union for the times of need should they experience the worst. Furthermore, "there is a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and pro-union voting" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995:163). They further support the correlation between job dissatisfaction and unionisation, arguing that dissatisfied employees file for their grievances or strike through unions because they cannot change their dissatisfying conditions on their own.

However, Milkovich and Boudreau (1994:20) suggest that the unions promote harmonious relationships between organisational management and employees by attending to sources of dissatisfaction which employees have failed to change themselves.

In conclusion, industrial action can be avoided by providing employees with the opportunity to influence change of the dissatisfying aspects of their job. Also, management should try not to violate employees' expectations and trust.

3.2.4 Job satisfaction and counter-productive behaviour of employees

Counter-productive behaviour involves actual sabotage as well as causing trouble, doing work badly on purpose and theft (Gruneberg, 1979:118). This is normally the alternative employees choose when they perceive constructive behaviour as benefiting the organisation at their expense. For example, Ivancevich *et al.* (1983:349) suggest that individuals who are blocked in attempts to satisfy their needs, may exhibit defensive behaviour instead of constructive behaviour. Their defensive behaviour is an attempt to cope with the frustration as a result of having difficulties in adapting to the responsibilities of work and social relationships.

According to Ivancevich *et al.* (1983:349), these individuals need to be motivated to bear their responsibilities constructively by attending to their frustrations in an attempt to reduce or eradicate them. In addition, Kahn and Wherry (1985:114) argue that employees may steal as a result of being frustrated by the impersonal treatment they receive from their organisation, justifying it as their way of getting revenge.

Mangoine and Quinn (Gruneberg, 1979:118) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and counter-productive behaviour of different kinds. Gruneberg (1979:120) regards the propensity to strike as an aspect of counter-productive behaviour. He argues that although the employees may be generally satisfied with their job, a strike might be induced by dissatisfaction about one aspect such as pay. Bacharach and Bamberger (1990:322) refer to striking or slowing down as a more radical manner of voicing dissatisfaction. They suggest that any form of collective action can be reduced by attending to employees' concerns in time.

In conclusion, there is a need to motivate employees towards constructive behaviour and discourage counter-productive behaviour. Management can only do this by fulfilling the employees' needs, treating them humanly and showing respect, thus contributing to raising their job satisfaction.

3.2.5 Job satisfaction and the individual

Considering the amount of time working people spend at work, it is significant to look into the effects of job satisfaction on the personal well-being of workers. A person's physical and mental health mainly influence aspects of the individual's life. Feldman and Arnold (1983:205) argue that physical and mental health are not "job behaviours" *per se*, but the impact of job dissatisfaction on the employee is important for two reasons:

- The managers have to know the impact the job has on the employees for humanistic reasons;
- Loss of work time costs organisations substantial amounts of money.

Borg and Riding (1991:263) suggest that teacher stress has implications that go beyond the concern for the educator's well-being due to the diverse effects that may be caused by prolonged stress on their mental and physical health. According to Borg and Riding (1991:263), it is only reasonable to expect teacher stress to interfere with teacher performance and consequently with the whole education process.

Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990:285) suggest that educators are ever trying to cope with rapid changes in their jobs, brought about by efforts to adapt to technology and the advancements of the day. These changes place heavy demands on them, both in the intellectual and social sphere. Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990:285) argue that it is only through the knowledge of teachers' professional inner being that the educational policy and leaders can effectively nurture teachers' professional well-being, and consequently improve their teaching. They suggest that the inner world of teachers is constituted by a number of factors, including job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Applied to a college, knowledge of staff job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is necessary for nurturing their well-being in an attempt to improve their performance and productivity.

Casabrese (Borg & Riding, 1991:263) argue that lower levels of teacher stress are related to improved effectiveness and higher attainment of scores. This, according to Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (Borg & Riding, 1991:263), suggest that when teachers experience stress, are dissatisfied with their jobs, are intent on leaving teaching and are frequently absent from work, their performance is bound to suffer significantly. Their series of surveys of teacher stress rated being a teacher as being very stressful or extremely stressful, later confirmed by Borg and Riding, Broiles and Laughlin (Borg & Riding, 1991:264) to name a few. Boyle, Borg, Falzon and Baglioni (1995:62) suggest that good relationships with one's colleagues is beneficial when the teacher is experiencing stress from other sources.

The relationship between self-reported teacher stress and job satisfaction remains a controversial issue. For instance, Borg and Riding (1991:275) found a negative and significant correlation, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (Borg & Riding, 1991:277) reported a

negative relationship in some cases and a positive one in others, Otto, Laghlin and Litt and Turk (Borg & Riding, 1991:266) reported an inverse relationship.

In contraposition to that, Borg and Riding (1991:277) found that male teachers above the age of 31 years reported greater stress. Although the reason was not readily apparent, they suggest that males reflect the willingness of the male teachers to admit and report stress or they could be less tolerant of more stress factors in their work environment or working conditions.

From the above, it is evident that stress is a problem among educators. Whether directly or indirectly related to job satisfaction, one can argue that reducing stress in the workplace can reduce job dissatisfaction. Therefore, instead of workers concentrating on dissatisfying factors as sources of their unhappiness, they can concentrate on those factors that make them happy and thus satisfied with their jobs.

3.2.5.1 Job satisfaction and physical health

Research seems to agree that job dissatisfaction, especially the extreme form, causes stress. Feldman and Arnold (1983:205) link job dissatisfaction with physical symptoms such as fatigue, shortness of breath, headaches, sweating, loss of appetite, indigestion and nausea. They also link serious levels of job dissatisfaction with illnesses such as ulcers, arthritis, high blood pressure, alcohol and drug abuse, strokes and heart attacks. Job dissatisfaction is the cause of these in that people tend to resort to drinking, smoking and using sedatives to reduce the job induced tensions. Also, tension and stress from job dissatisfaction cause physiological reactions, such high blood pressure, which can lead to more serious illnesses.

In the teaching profession, Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990:288) suggest that stress is caused by working conditions such as heavy workload, restrictive school climate, unfavourable working conditions and heavy role demands. However, stress does not only result from frustrating working conditions, lack of facilities and poor feedback, but mainly from the individual's perception about each work aspect. Moreover, these aspects are independent of one another, for example, a stressful

workload does not necessarily imply that the school climate is stressful. Also, the same conditions may be stressful to one individual but not to another.

However, Gruneberg (1979:121) argues that individuals are stressed in their jobs and lives because of reasons that have nothing to do with job satisfaction. That the source of stress is normally unclear, could be a shortcoming of stress investigations. Despite this limitation, there is enough evidence of the relationship between job dissatisfaction and physical illness. For instance, Rissler (Sell & Shipley, 1979:113) suggests that there should be a balance between work and leisure time, especially in countries with a high percentage of females in the work force, and with an active debate on work roles and family roles for both males and females.

According to Rissler (Sell & Shipley, 1979:113), unwanted overtime is an important contributor to dissatisfaction with work demands and workers' ill-health. Overtime work reduces leisure time. Moreover, the reduced leisure time cannot be used effectively due to physiological activation and increased strain and tiredness as a result of overtime work. Dissatisfaction with the job is likely to be a consequence of the reported strain, tiredness, irritation and bad mood during overtime due to overload. Considering the roles of women at work and at home, it is not unreasonable to expect a significant sex difference, females reporting higher stress levels than their male colleagues (Borg & Riding, 1991:264).

It is clear that dissatisfaction with some factors including those arising from the job can cause stress, which in turn can result in bad health. From the above, one may argue that absenteeism can be a long-term result of dissatisfaction. Should Herzberg's hygiene factors (see 2.3.2.1 (b)) lack in the job situation, dissatisfaction may lead to tension and stress, then poor health and later absenteeism.

3.2.5.2 Job satisfaction and mental illness

Feldman and Arnold (1983:205) refer to a mentally healthy person as one who feels that he/she leads a rewarding life and has a good self-concept. Job dissatisfaction has been related to mental illness. Kornhauser (Gruneberg, 1979:122) for example, noted

that “gratifications and deprivations experienced in work and expressed in job dissatisfaction are important determinants of workers’ mental health”. Feldman and Arnold (1983:206) have related job dissatisfaction to anger over unimportant matters, feelings of persecution, apathy, forgetfulness and an inability to concentrate and make decisions. Much as a lack of job satisfaction is not necessarily job dissatisfaction, they argue that the absence of job satisfaction can lead to anxiety, worry, tension, impaired interpersonal relations and irritability. These can ultimately be the sources of dissatisfaction.

However, the relationship is generally of a low order since some people pretend to be job satisfied when they are actually not and cover up for mental problems because of fears concerning what others might think (Gruneberg, 1979:123). According to him, extreme cases of dissatisfaction are rare since people tend to avoid these by either moving to alternative jobs that are more in line with their needs, or seek their satisfaction from aspects of their jobs other than work itself.

From the above, it is clear that mental illness derived from job dissatisfaction require further investigation. Nonetheless, Gruneberg (1979:125) suggests that managers should not ignore the possible effects of this relationship on the feelings of self-esteem, self-confidence and life satisfaction in general. The existing evidence suggests that job dissatisfaction has substantial negative consequences for both the physical and the mental health of employees.

3.2.6 Job satisfaction and burnout

Farber (1984:325) defines burnout as a function of feeling inconsequential, that is, feeling that “no matter how hard one works, the payoffs in terms of accomplishment, recognition or appreciation are not there. As result of these working conditions, one’s idealism, energy, purpose and concern progressively decline, leading to attitudinal, physical and emotional exhaustion”. Burnout is commonly reported in the teaching profession. Schamer and Jackson (1996:28) postulate that burnt-out teachers lose their idealism, sense of purpose and enthusiasm; they lack personal accomplishment and eventually become physically and psychologically ill.

According to Schamer and Jackson (1996:29), job satisfaction seems a key aspect of burnout, especially among people like teachers who work in stressful circumstances, see few rewards, seldom feel fulfilment and whose needs are not being met. They argue that burnout is not stress but an inability to adapt, especially in new teachers. As a result, Schamer and Jackson (1996:29) further suggest that teachers need to be recognised and supported; and that low-level satisfactions like salary and benefits are not adequate; a sense of satisfaction from self-actualisation, intrinsic factors and authenticity is required. In addition, Farber (1984:325) states that when a teacher's need for self-actualisation and self-esteem is not fulfilled, the probability for teacher burnout becomes higher. Otherwise, it is normal for some teachers to develop new interests while others unconsciously cease to work constructively. In this way even their students are likely to be burnt out, thus jeopardising the process of learning and teaching even more (Beck & Gargiulo, 1983:170).

From the above it is clear that educational leaders can motivate educators toward the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process by preventing burnout. Fulfilling their higher-order needs, self-actualisation and self-esteem can do this.

3.2.7 Job satisfaction and occupational level

Studies of occupational groups have shown a significant and consistent relationship between job satisfaction and occupational level (Kahn, 1977:77). The higher the occupational level, the higher the job satisfaction and career commitment and the lower the career intentions (employee turnover). According to Kahn and Wherry (1985:115), these individuals "are better paid and have better working conditions, and their jobs make fuller use of their abilities; therefore they have good reason to be more satisfied". Job dissatisfaction is therefore a rare problem for them.

3.2.8 Job satisfaction and life satisfaction

Dissatisfaction as a result of life experiences is another complex aspect of job satisfaction. That individuals are job dissatisfied may be due to their background and life experiences but not the job or any job aspect. Interpreting job satisfaction in terms

of the general emotional tone of employees, Kahn (1977:74), Gruneberg (1979:125), and Kahn and Wherry (1985:110) postulate that it is a natural tendency of individuals to compare job satisfaction and life satisfaction. It follows that the two are closely related in that if employees are highly satisfied with their home and community life, but thinks the job is only average or at least not as satisfying as their life, then job satisfaction will be low. The reverse is also true when satisfaction with life is lower than satisfaction with the job.

The relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is best explained through the compensation and spillover theories (Gruneberg, 1979:125 and Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999:38). According to the compensation theory, individuals compensate for low job satisfaction by trying to achieve high in life situations. They tend to compensate for dissatisfaction at work by deriving greater satisfaction from other aspects of life. The spillover theory, on the other hand, argues that unhappiness at work is likely to affect one's whole life. In addition, Kornhauser (Gruneberg, 1979:125) found that people who are unhappy with their jobs, tend to be unhappy with life in general. Not much research work has been done on the causal aspect of this relationship.

Iris and Barrett (Gruneberg, 1979:126) propose that people are not satisfied with their lives as a result of the job-produced dissatisfaction extending beyond the work situation only, but the reverse is also true. Also, that when life satisfaction is low, people tend to regard dissatisfaction aspects of their job as important. They then suggest reducing the dissatisfying aspect of the job as likely to defend this individual's self-esteem.

According to Kahn (1977:74), some organisations survey both job satisfaction and life satisfaction in order to specifically relate their employees' general emotional tone to job satisfaction. A questionnaire with selected job satisfaction variables is another way of interpreting job satisfaction with specific aspects of the job. Answers above average serve as indicators of satisfaction while those below average help diagnose the problem areas (Kahn, 1977:75).

In conclusion, evidence exists to suggest that job satisfaction can be related to the individual's physical and mental health as well as satisfaction with life itself. These relationships depend on personality factors, the job and personal circumstances. Therefore, generalising should be avoided when explaining the relationship and dealing with its outcomes.

3.2.9 Job satisfaction and productivity

Rush (1975:12) defines productivity as a measure of the efficient (maximum or at least optimum) use of human and material resources. With regard to education, besides the material resources in our educational institutions, educators should be used efficiently to maximise production, namely student achievement. For this to happen, it should be borne in mind that an individual seeks and needs meaningful work through which his/her expectations can be fulfilled.

Rush (1975:10) suggests designing the job for motivation to meaningful work. According to him, "psychological health is greatly dependent upon man's involving himself in creative and rewarding work". That is, a person expends energy and puts in effort to express his drive for self-expression. Thus, if he finds good performance as a way to satisfy his needs, work becomes an opportunity for creative expression. Otherwise, the creative drive not found at work will be directed elsewhere. Therefore, it is apparent that work should be satisfying for one to fully engage him/herself in improving performance.

Gruneberg (1979:105) regards productivity as one of the main reasons for studying job satisfaction. That is, whether workers are satisfied or not with their work has consequences for their productivity. The consequences may be positive or negative, but are important in maintaining a smooth running of the organisation. Positive consequences should be maintained and improved while dealing with the determinants or developing remedial strategies should reduce negative ones. Moreover, even in those organisations with "a solid fix on aspects of the job situation an individual finds satisfying, there remains a problem of relating satisfaction to productivity" (Reeser & Loper, 1978:304).

The relationship between the parameters of job satisfaction and productivity is very important based on the usual tendency to wrongly assume that high job satisfaction leads to high production. The literature in this field indicates that this relationship is still far from clear (Mitchell & Larson, 1987:143; Gruneberg, 1979:105). Mortimer (1979:1) attributes the controversy regarding the effects of job satisfaction on productivity to

- situational constraints on the extent to which job satisfaction can be reflected on the type of materials and interdependencies with other workers as likely limitations on productivity, and
- low productivity norms in the work group and workers' skill levels that are likely to impede increases in performance.

According to Mortimer (1979:1), the two can affect productivity even when workers' job satisfaction and involvement are high. Kahn (1977:75) adds that a satisfied individual can be a high producer, low producer or only average.

However, other reviews indicate that a significant relationship does exist. Khaleque (Gruneberg, 1979:99) provides evidence of a significant positive correlation between performance and job satisfaction in a repetitive job. This indicates that workers get a sense of accomplishment in performing simple tasks. Furthermore, this study also proves the importance of supervision and co-workers to overall satisfaction with the job. With reference to the Hawthorne studies, Gruneberg (1979:105) agrees that friendly supervision (as an indicator of job satisfaction) and productivity are related. From this study, a positive correlation between friendly supervision and increased productivity was documented. But one can argue that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity does exist but it is not direct, supervision becoming an intervening variable in this case.

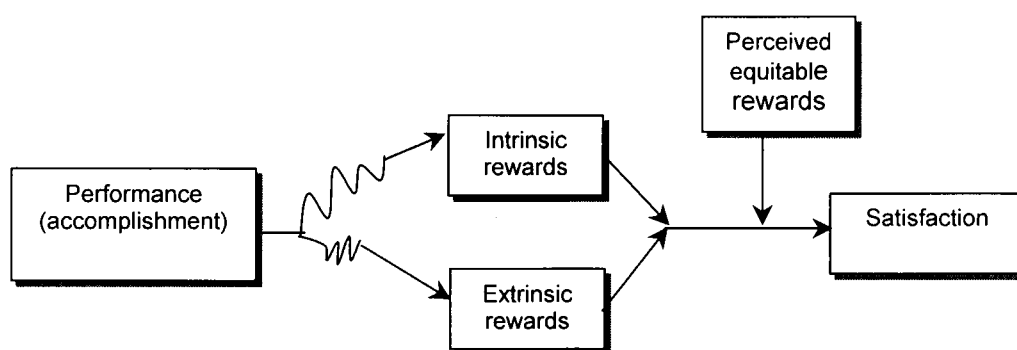
Lawler and Porter (Gruneberg, 1979:106), however, put forward two arguments for the failure to find a relationship between job satisfaction and productivity:

First, based on Herzberg's view that satisfaction may lead to productivity but wrong satisfaction measures are often used. Herzberg points out that motivators give rise to satisfaction and are key instruments to increase performance. However, if satisfaction measures include hygiene factors, then the relationship will be low.

Secondly, they suggest that instead of high satisfaction leading to higher productivity, higher productivity leads to reward, which may or may not lead to increased satisfaction. Lawler and Porter (Gruneberg, 1979:106) and Kahn (1977:75) argue that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance or productivity is significant when people perceive their efforts to increase productivity as equitably rewarding. Unfortunately, this is not the case with most organisations. Many people receive rewards that have nothing to do with their performance or the input towards the productivity of the organisation (Mitchell & Larson, 1987:143). In the case of the academic staff at the colleges, for example, the rewards are never related to their production, namely student achievement.

Lawler and Porter's expectancy approach can be represented diagrammatically as shown in figure 3.1 below:

Figure 3.1: The structure of expectancies: The theoretical representation



Source: Gruneberg (1979:107)

According to this representation, Lawler and Porter (Gruneberg, 1979:107) incorporate their expectancy theory with the equity theory (see 2.3.3) in accounting for the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Using the expectancy approach, they argue that workers expect outcomes from their efforts, therefore manifest themselves according to the preferred outcome. On the other hand, using the equity approach, they suggest that performance increase satisfaction “when that performance leads to rewards and when these rewards are perceived as equitable in terms of effort expended and in comparison with the rewards of others” (Gruneberg, 1979:107).

Although both job satisfaction and performance are related to rewards, Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:38) suggest that the rewards constitute a more direct cause of job satisfaction than performance, and rewards based on current performance are more likely to cause subsequent performance (see 2.4.1).

Lawler and Porter (Gruneberg, 1979:107) add that even the reward will lead to satisfaction to the extent that the worker values it. However, if the reward is seen as inadequate for the individual’s level of performance, dissatisfaction tends to arise instead. They have found the influence of intrinsic rewards to be more directly related to the performance-job satisfaction relationship since the employee will be pleased to have successfully accomplished his/her job. Extrinsic rewards such as pay and benefits are not as directly related to the effort since they depend on the policies of the organisation and group membership. Therefore, the employee who performs well, will have more intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and be satisfied with the job as a result thereof. Unfortunately, the reverse holds true for the employee who performs worst.

So far, evidence points at performance leading to satisfaction if individuals have the expectations that their efforts will be rewarded with rewards of value to them. Job satisfaction and performance are in what Kahn (1977:75) refers to as a circular relationship. Although the correlation is not clear, that one affects the other, cannot be questioned. However, Gruneberg (1979:108) points out that the performance-satisfaction relationship is likely to be stronger than the satisfaction-performance

relationship. In addition, the former relationship may be affected by a number of factors, including the degree to which individual needs are satisfied on the job.

Although Mitchell and Larson (1987:48) are of the opinion that job satisfaction does not directly affect productivity, they argue that people are healthier, present on the job more often and stay with the organisation longer if they are satisfied with most job aspects or the job itself. Therefore, they are more likely to contribute significantly to the productivity of the organisation.

In conclusion, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance remains unclear. However, most research points at performance causing satisfaction rather than the other way round, thus, this relationship should be further explored.

3.2.10 Job satisfaction and achievement

Menlo and Poppleton (1990:175) suggest that a high quality of professional life for the teacher as well as the ways teachers perceive themselves, their work, their schools and their students, impact upon teaching and contribute to an increase in student achievement. The relationship between satisfaction at work and performance at work, however, remains a controversial issue (see 3.2.9), but a sense of job satisfaction may enhance performance. Alternatively, a feeling of success and achievement may be an important source of satisfaction (Galloway *et al.*, 1985:56; Ball & Stenlund, 1990:84 and Ninomiya & Okato, 1990:118).

In fact, Maslow (see 2.3.21 (a)) suggests that an individual can be motivated by a feeling of achievement, and Herzberg (see 2.3.2.1 (b)) suggests that work be designed such that there may be a whole job that an individual can begin and end with a product. On the basis of these two, it is the responsibility of educational leaders to provide an environment in which educators can engage in the teaching-learning process meaningfully to improve student achievement. Increase in student achievement reflects the efficiency with which educators take their responsibilities and is both motivating and satisfying.

3.2.10.1 Job satisfaction and educator achievement

Davis and Newstrom (1985:413) refer to an achiever as a person with certain characteristics, which enable him/her to work best in certain types of situations that are to his/her liking. A teacher or lecturer is considered as a leader to students especially in class. Being in the position of a leader only provides more opportunities for using these talents than do other jobs. A high achiever is characterised by the following (Davis & Newstrom, 1985:414):

- Liking situations in which one takes personal responsibility for finding a solution to a problem. Solving the problem through one's abilities and efforts produces some personal achievement satisfaction, instead of succeeding by chance. A leader with a high achievement concern possesses achievement motivation to take responsibility for work to be done, but does not pass the buck or delegate unnecessarily, which in turn, according to Herzberg (see 2.3.2.1 (b)), leads to job satisfaction.
- A tendency to set moderate achievement goals and take calculated risks. Moderate achievement goals involve moderate difficulty of the tasks, the achievement of which guarantees personal satisfaction. Too easy or routine tasks give little satisfaction, while too difficult ones are unlikely to be achieved. Clearly, high achievers prefer challenging situations, where there is a chance of not succeeding, yet not so great a risk that their abilities and efforts would not overcome. Calculated risk influences decision-making. The leader always tries to decide on how difficult a given decision will be to realise. But it is the difficulty that gives him/her achievement satisfaction, especially with success. To set realistic goals and objectives is a key to experiencing a feeling of achievement, which is not only a motivating factor but also leads, according to Herzberg (see 2.3.2.1 (b)), to job satisfaction.
- Wanting concrete feedback as to how well he is doing. In a college of education, for example, the rector and his staff give and receive feedback among themselves as colleagues, but the examination results provide feedback in the form of a

product. Over and above this, an educator with a high achievement concern is not satisfied by the examination results alone, but by occasional evidence that his former students actually absorbed the information and attitudes he communicated to them and show success in life. Feedback is essential to experience recognition for achievement, which, according to Herzberg (see 2.3.2.1 (b)), is an indicator of job satisfaction.

Stewart and Stewart (1982:132) attribute poor performance to a lack of abilities and job knowledge, stress and emotional problems, motivational problems, medical disorders, work groups, the organisation, working conditions and other factors such as family problems, home circumstances, attitude and ethical problems and cultural differences. According to Stewart and Stewart (1982:133), leaders can stress subordinates by giving unchallenging tasks, not giving feedback, forcing people to do a bad job, providing inappropriate environments, social ineptitude, threat, uncertainty, pressure for spuriously clear answers and playing politics, all of which will result in job dissatisfaction.

3.2.10.2 Job satisfaction and student achievement

The relationship between job satisfaction and its predictors is an important outcome of student achievement. Research work done by Verdugo, Greenberg, Henderson, Uribe and Schneider (1997:44) has proved that the level of student achievement is an important determinant in a teacher's sense of efficacy, commitment and job satisfaction. According to Verdugo *et al.* (1997:43), job satisfaction and commitment are derived from pay, skills and worker productivity. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment perspective further suggest that workers' attachment and satisfaction are based on the bond between worker and employer.

Wright, Horn and Sanders (1997:63) suggest that the teacher is the most important factor that affects student learning. Their study on factors affecting student achievement has proved that more could be done to improve education by improving

the effectiveness of teachers than by other single factors. Wright *et al.* (1997:66) state:

“If the ultimate goal is to improve the academic growth of student populations, one must conclude that improvements of student learning begins with the improvement of relatively ineffective teachers regardless of student placement strategies developed within the school.”

If job satisfaction and productivity are related and teachers can affect productivity, then job satisfaction of the teachers is important.

Most researchers in the field of education agree on the importance of the teacher. However, some researchers argue that the situation is different at tertiary institutions, for example, Fransman (1995:173) advocates independent learning in tertiary institutions to reduce the dependence of students on subject material covered by their lecturers in the classroom. Instead, he suggests that subject literacy will necessarily have to take place outside the classroom to optimise lifelong learning. Fransman (1995:176) finds this logical considering the increasing student numbers at tertiary institutions in South Africa today.

On the other hand, Van Dyk and Van Dyk (1993:239) attribute low student achievement or performance to the existing admission requirements for tertiary education. They argue that the ability of students to classify information should be a prerequisite for entry into these institutions instead of matric (final school year). They base their argument on the fact that literacy in all scientific disciplines requires complex logical relations of available information.

From the above one could argue that independent learning and admission requirements can affect student achievement regardless of the high satisfaction of lecturers with their job. However, in spite of promoting independent learning and altering admission requirements, educators still have to be satisfied to perform efficiently.

In conclusion, the above relationships indicate that the consequences of job satisfaction may be either positive or negative. Although high job satisfaction tends to

be linked to positive working conditions and a sound behavioural climate in an organisation, it cannot be persuaded into existence or even bought (Kahn, 1977:73). It is brought about by effective leadership and management (see 2.4.3) and has to be maintained where it already exists. Kahn (1977:74) suggests that it is important that job satisfaction gets timeous attention, diagnosis and treatment. This mainly refers to low or no satisfaction that is not directly related to dissatisfaction. Even high job satisfaction does not necessarily mean no dissatisfaction. An employee can be satisfied with most aspects of the job, yet dissatisfied with one that may be of great importance to him/her (see 2.3.2.1 (b)). Nevertheless, one can sensibly assume that low or no satisfaction with most aspects of the job can lead to unhappiness, which can lead to dissatisfaction with the job.

3.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted the complexity of the relationship between job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. That employees are satisfied with certain aspects of the job does not prevent their dissatisfaction with others. As pointed out by Herzberg, the motivators only motivate, while the absence of the hygiene factors can be a source of great dissatisfaction. Those behaviours correlating with job satisfaction, directly or indirectly, can be controlled and/or monitored through the knowledge of the inner world of educators. That is, the knowledge of what motives people may have, provided by Maslow, and Herzberg's suggestion on how to design work to appeal to the higher-order motives, namely self-esteem and self-actualisation; together these can be used to produce satisfaction at work. Herzberg puts it very clearly that the hygiene factors do not motivate, however, they come to one's attention when they are lacking or absent. It follows that individuals are less likely to strive for hygiene factors if motivating factors are satisfied. Therefore, educational leaders, rectors of colleges in this case, have to understand the motives of the academic staff and nurture the college environment to meet the motivators and hygiene factors of Herzberg.

Behaviours likely to have a negative impact on the college such as absenteeism, its relationship with job satisfaction and or causal factors of job dissatisfaction, should be determined and used to improve the situation. For instance, those aspects of value to

lecturers may be used as reinforcements for positive behaviour while sanctions in those aspects may be used to discourage negative behaviour.

In the following chapters, the focus of the study will be on determining the level of job satisfaction at the colleges of education in the Free State with a view to proposing recommendations for improvements.

Chapter 4

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results of an investigation performed to determine the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State.

4.2 THE PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The main objectives of the empirical investigation were:

- To obtain information about the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State;
- To give an exposition of data collected by means of a questionnaire;
- To interpret data in the view of the literature study and give guidelines for improving the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State.

4.3 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

4.3.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was used as an instrument to obtain information from academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A was aimed at determining the biographical particulars of the respondents. Section B was concerned with the 20 job satisfaction indicators proposed by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

4.3.2 Section A

This section comprised questions about the personal details of respondents. These include gender, current post level, age, teaching experience and professional and academic qualifications. It also aimed to identify the indicators of important value to the respondents and the level to which their present working conditions fulfil their expectations regarding these indicators.

4.3.3 Section B

This section consisted of the 100 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) questions. The 100 questions of the questionnaire identify 20 job satisfaction indicators in clusters of five questions per indicator. The 20 indicators are covered by the 100 questions as follows (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967: 3):

Indicators	Questions				
Ability utilisation	7	27	47	67	87
Achievement	19	39	59	79	99
Activity	20	40	60	80	100
Advancement	14	34	54	74	94
Authority	6	26	46	66	86
Colleague	16	36	56	76	96

Compensation	12	32	52	72	92
Creativity	2	22	42	62	82
Departmental policies & practices	9	29	49	69	89
Independence	4	24	44	64	84
Moral values	3	23	43	63	83
Recognition	18	38	58	78	98
Responsibility	17	37	57	77	97
Security	11	31	51	71	91
Social service	1	21	41	61	81
Social status	8	28	48	68	88
Supervision-human relations	10	30	50	70	90
Supervision-technical	15	35	55	75	95
Variety	5	25	45	65	85
Working conditions	13	33	53	73	93

Each of the 20 indicators refers to a reinforcer of employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the work environment. Section B is intended to indicate the level of job satisfaction of the respondents by determining how important each job satisfaction indicator is to them.

By answering the questions respondents indicated the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with aspects of their job. The questionnaire provided five alternative responses for each indicator, scored 1 through 5 per indicator. The response choices were 1: very dissatisfied, 2: dissatisfied, 3: neither, 4: satisfied and 5: very satisfied. For a description of the indicators of job satisfaction see 2.3.5 and figure 2.4.

4.3.4 Sampling

The target population of all 385 lecturers at the eight colleges of education in the Free State was selected. One lecturer was identified at each college to assist in distributing, monitoring and collecting the questionnaire without individualising either the college

or the academic staff members. Every member of the academic staff at all the colleges was given the chance to fill in the questionnaire but this was not compulsory.

Of 385 questionnaires distributed, 182 were recovered and information from 170 could be used. This constitutes 42,5% of the target population.

4.3.5 Computation of data

The raw data was computerised by the computer centre of the University of the Orange Free State using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Primer Programme (Klecka, Nie and Hull, 1975:3). The computerised data provided all the mean scores per job satisfaction indicator per college. For practical purposes the mean scores were converted to mean percentages. The mean percentage then provided the average values per response regarding each job satisfaction indicator.

4.4 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH DATA

4.4.1 Introduction

The aim of section A of the questionnaire was to determine the personal particulars of the respondents who completed the questionnaire. This section distinguished between respondents in terms of gender, post level, age, teaching experience and qualifications, both professional and academic. The responses to this section revealed the influence of the sub-groups to the overall level of job satisfaction.

4.4.2 The level of job satisfaction for the entire population

The overall level of job satisfaction for the entire target population was 64,73%. The 20 job satisfaction indicators have each contributed differently to this mean. The analysis of the overall level shows the contribution of each indicator. These indicators are ranked from 1 to 20 in the order of their contribution as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Ranking of the job satisfaction indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of satisfaction

Job satisfaction indicator	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean %	Rank
Social service	3,80	0,80	76,00	1
Moral values	3,73	0,70	74,52	2
Independence	3,67	0,75	73,46	3
Colleagues	3,62	0,86	72,35	4
Activity	3,57	0,83	71,36	5
Creativity	3,56	0,91	71,18	6
Responsibility	3,55	0,80	70,92	7
Ability utilisation	3,54	0,97	70,87	8
Achievement	3,50	0,91	70,00	9
Variety	3,39	0,80	67,79	10
Authority	3,36	0,78	67,11	11
Social status	3,28	0,80	65,62	12
Supervision-human relations	3,22	1,05	64,33	13
Supervision-technical	3,17	0,95	63,41	14
Recognition	3,08	0,94	61,65	15
Working conditions	2,87	1,16	57,44	16
Security	2,56	0,89	51,18	17
Departmental policies & practices	2,50	0,96	49,98	18
Advancement	2,45	0,91	48,94	19
Compensation	2,32	0,92	46,42	20
OVERALL LEVEL	64,73%			

Table 4.1 indicates that the overall job satisfaction is a composite of a set of indicators. These are the indicators valued by the respondents and expected to be attained by the job. The table shows that social service and moral values contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction, while compensation, advancement and departmental policies and practices contributed the least.

4.4.3 The level of job satisfaction at each college

Eight colleges of education contribute to the overall level of job satisfaction (64,73%) of the target group. The colleges are ranked 1 to 8 in the order of the level of job satisfaction. The results are reported in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Ranking the colleges according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction

Colleges	Responses (N = 170)		Mean (%)	Rank
	No.	%		
1	19	11,18	78,43	1
7	19	11,18	70,84	2
3	12	7,06	67,57	3
5	25	14,71	65,82	4
8	16	9,41	64,43	5
4	36	21,18	63,08	6
2	25	14,71	60,90	7
6	18	10,59	49,27	8
OVERALL LEVEL OF ALL COLLEGES			64,73%	

From Table 4.2 it is clear that college 1 contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction, while college 6 contributed least. It also shows that the level of job satisfaction at colleges 8, 4, 2 and 6 was below the overall level of all colleges, 64,73%. While most colleges are above 60%, which could be regarded as an indicator of the lowest level of satisfaction, college 6 is at 49,27%, indicating dissatisfaction.

The difference between the level of job satisfaction per college and the overall job satisfaction was calculated to determine the extent to which the two differ. The results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per college with the overall level

College	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference (%)
1	78,43	64,73	13,70
2	60,90	64,73	3,83-
3	67,57	64,73	2,84
4	63,08	64,73	1,65-
5	65,82	64,73	1,09
6	49,27	64,73	15,46-
7	70,84	64,73	6,11
8	64,43	64,73	0,30-

Table 4.3 indicates that the highest level of job satisfaction, for college 1, was above the overall level by 13,70%, while college 6 was below the overall level by 15,46%. The overall level for the entire population, 64,73%, is a very low indicator of satisfaction of the group. Correlating the contribution per college to the overall level and getting a negative difference should indicate dissatisfaction at that particular college.

A further analysis of the level of job satisfaction at each college indicates the contribution of each of the 20 indicators to the overall level of each college. The results are presented in Tables 4.4 to 4.11.

Table 4.4: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 1

Job satisfaction indicator	Rank	College 1 (N = 19)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,59	91,78
Activity	2	4,42	88,42
Supervision-human relations	3	4,41	88,22
Working conditions	4	4,39	87,78
Moral values	5	4,35	86,94
Achievement	6	4,31	86,10
Ability utilisation	7	4,28	85,68
Creativity	8	4,27	85,48
Responsibility	9	4,26	85,26
Variety	10	4,18	83,58
Independence	11	4,17	83,36
Supervision-technical	12	4,05	81,06
Recognition	13	3,90	77,90
Authority	14	3,88	77,68
Colleagues	15	3,84	76,84
Social status	16	3,65	73,06
Departmental policies and practices	17	3,23	64,64
Security	18	2,87	57,48
Compensation	19	2,75	54,94
Advancement	20	2,62	52,42
Overall level: College 1		78,43%	

From Table 4.4 it is clear that social service, activity and supervision-human relations contributed most to the overall level of satisfaction of respondents at college 1, while advancement, compensation and security contributed least. Moreover, the responses indicate that at this college, the academic staff was satisfied with all job aspects tested except advancement, compensation and security.

Table 4.5: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 2

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 2 (N =25)	
		Mean	%
Moral values	1	3,60	72,00
Social service	2	3,50	69,92
Independence	3	3,45	68,96
Colleagues	4	3,43	68,64
Responsibility	5	3,38	66,40
Creativity	6	3,32	66,08
Activity	7	3,30	65,76
Variety	8	3,29	64,32
Social status	9	3,22	63,84
Achievement	10	3,19	63,68
Ability utilisation	11	3,18	62,88
Authority	12	3,14	61,44
Supervision-human relations	13	3,07	61,12
Supervision-technical	14	3,06	58,72
Recognition	15	2,94	57,60
Security	16	2,88	52,48
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,62	51,68
Working conditions	18	2,58	48,64
Advancement	19	2,43	47,52
Compensation	20	2,31	46,24
Overall level: College 2		60,90%	

Table 4.5 indicates that the overall level of job satisfaction for this college is more or less 60%, almost neutral on the five-point scale. The respondents are dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, working conditions, departmental policies and the way they are put into practice, security, recognition and supervision-technical. However, moral values contributed more to the overall level of job satisfaction.

Table 4.6: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 3

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 3 (N =12)	
		Mean	%
Colleagues	1	4,30	86,00
Social service	2	4,23	84,66
Moral values	3	3,93	78,66
Creativity	4	3,85	77,00
Activity	5	3,83	76,66
Ability utilisation	6	3,80	76,00
Responsibility	7	3,80	76,00
Authority	8	3,60	72,00
Independence	9	3,58	71,66
Social status	10	3,57	71,34
Variety	11	3,50	70,00
Achievement	12	3,48	69,66
Recognition	13	3,27	65,34
Supervision-technical	14	3,00	60,00
Advancement	15	2,95	59,00
Security	16	2,62	52,34
Compensation	17	2,60	52,00
Supervision-human relations	18	2,57	51,34
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,57	51,34
Working conditions	20	2,52	50,34
Overall level: College 3		67,57%	

The results of Table 4.6 indicate that relationship with colleagues and moral value contributed most to the overall level, while working conditions and departmental policies and practices contributed least. However, the overall level of job satisfaction at college 3 was 67,57%, indicating satisfaction.

Table 4.7: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 4

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 4 (N =36)	
		Mean	%
Independence	1	3,74	74,88
Social service	2	3,63	72,66
Colleagues	3	3,60	72,00
Creativity	4	3,55	71,00
Moral values	5	3,52	70,34
Ability utilisation	6	3,51	70,22
Variety	7	3,48	69,56
Achievement	8	3,47	69,56
Activity	9	3,45	69,34
Responsibility	10	3,38	69,00
Authority	11	3,34	66,78
Supervision-human relations	12	3,31	66,12
Supervision-technical	13	3,27	65,34
Social status	14	3,24	64,88
Recognition	15	2,97	59,44
Security	16	2,56	51,12
Working conditions	17	2,40	48,00
Advancement	18	2,36	47,22
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,33	46,56
Compensation	20	1,98	39,66
Overall level: College 4		63,08%	

From Table 4.7 it is clear that the respondents were satisfied with most aspects except compensation, departmental policies and practices, advancement, working conditions, security, recognition and social status. Moreover, the results indicate that respondents at this college were very dissatisfied with their compensation.

Table 4.8: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 5

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 5 (N =25)	
		Mean	%
Colleagues	1	3,93	78,56
Social service	2	3,74	74,88
Independence	3	3,70	74,08
Moral values	4	3,58	71,52
Responsibility	5	3,56	71,20
Activity	6	3,55	71,04
Ability utilisation	7	3,51	70,24
Achievement	8	3,51	70,24
Authority	9	3,49	69,76
Creativity	10	3,44	68,80
Supervision-human relations	11	3,43	68,64
Variety	12	3,42	68,32
Supervision-technical	13	3,33	66,56
Social status	14	3,28	65,60
Recognition	15	3,22	64,48
Working conditions	16	3,10	62,05
Security	17	2,80	56,00
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,42	48,32
Compensation	19	2,41	48,16
Advancement	20	2,39	47,84
Overall level: College 5		65,82%	

From the responses in Table 4.8, it is clear that the majority of the respondents at college 5 were satisfied with most job aspects tested, mainly their relationship with colleagues, social service and independence. However, they were least satisfied with advancement, compensation, departmental policies and the way they are put into practice, and job security.

Table 4.9: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 6

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 6 (N =18)	
		Mean	%
Moral values	1	3,32	66,44
Social service	2	3,21	64,22
Independence	3	3,14	62,88
Ability utilisation	4	2,82	56,44
Activity	5	2,80	56,00
Creativity	6	2,77	55,34
Social status	7	2,73	54,66
Responsibility	8	2,70	54,00
Colleagues	9	2,66	53,12
Authority	10	2,66	53,12
Variety	11	2,64	52,88
Achievement	12	2,60	52,00
Supervision-human relations	13	2,16	43,12
Recognition	14	2,06	41,12
Supervision-technical	15	1,98	39,56
Security	16	1,96	39,12
Departmental policies & practices	17	1,86	37,12
Compensation	18	1,81	36,22
Advancement	19	1,76	35,12
Working conditions	20	1,64	32,88
Overall level: College 6		49,27%	

From Table 4.9 it is clear that the majority of the respondents at college 6 were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with most job aspects. However, they were barely satisfied with moral values, social service and independence.

Table 4.10: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 7

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 7 (N =19)	
		Mean	%
Moral values	1	4,18	83,58
Social service	2	4,08	81,68
Activity	3	3,97	79,36
Achievement	4	3,95	78,94
Independence	5	3,90	77,90
Responsibility	6	3,88	77,68
Creativity	7	3,85	77,06
Ability utilisation	8	3,85	77,06
Working conditions	9	3,76	75,16
Colleagues	10	3,66	73,26
Supervision-technical	11	3,56	71,16
Authority	12	3,55	70,94
Social status	13	3,46	69,26
Variety	14	3,45	69,06
Supervision-human relations	15	3,44	68,84
Recognition	16	3,19	63,78
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,88	57,68
Advancement	18	2,81	56,22
Compensation	19	2,80	56,00
Security	20	2,61	52,22
Overall level: College 7		70,84%	

Table 4.10 indicates that at college 7, most respondents were generally satisfied (70,84%). Moral values and social service contributed most to the overall level of satisfaction at this college, while security, compensation, advancement and departmental policies and practices contributed least.

Table 4.11: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of college 8

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	College 8 (N =16)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,80	76,00
Colleagues	2	3,71	74,26
Ability utilisation	3	3,66	73,26
Moral values	4	3,65	73,00
Creativity	5	3,64	72,76
Independence	6	3,63	72,50
Responsibility	7	3,60	72,00
Achievement	8	3,56	71,26
Activity	9	3,44	68,76
Variety	10	3,39	67,76
Authority	11	3,38	67,50
Recognition	12	3,35	67,00
Social status	13	3,25	65,00
Working conditions	14	3,05	61,00
Supervision-technical	15	3,04	60,74
Supervision human relations	16	2,93	58,50
Advancement	17	2,60	52,00
Security	18	2,29	45,76
Compensation	19	2,25	45,00
Departmental policies & practices	20	2,23	44,50
Overall level: College 8		64,43%	

Table 4.11 shows that the majority of respondents from college 8 were satisfied with most of the job satisfaction indicators considered especially social service and colleagues. However, they were dissatisfied with departmental policies and practices, compensation, security and advancement.

From Tables 4.4 to 4.11 one can conclude that respondents at all colleges except college 6 are generally satisfied. For college 6 the level of job satisfaction was 49,27%, which is well below the overall level of the target population. Colleges 1, 3, 5 and 7 are above the overall level while colleges 2, 4 and 8 are below this level but still satisfied.

4.4.4 The level of job satisfaction of various sub-groups

The questions about the biographical information of respondents (see Section A, Appendix A) were intended to distinguish between respondents in terms of gender, current post held, age, teaching experience, and professional and academic qualifications. The following was revealed by the personal details of respondents:

4.4.4.1 Biographic group 1: Gender of respondents

Comparing the level of job satisfaction for the male and female sub-groups with the overall level aimed at determining the differences between the two and the overall level for the target population. The results are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per gender sub-group with the overall level of job satisfaction

Sub-group	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference
Male	65,53	64,73	0,80
Female	63,78	64,73	0,95-

Table 4.12 indicates that both male and female respondents were satisfied with their job, the males being 0,80% above the overall level of the target population while the female group is 0,95% below.

Ranking the indicators according to their contribution was intended at identifying those job aspects that require separate attention and those that can be dealt with

together to improve the education process for the two sexes. Table 4.13 and 4.14 show the responses of the male and female sub-groups respectively.

Table 4.13: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the level of job satisfaction of male respondents

Job satisfaction indicator	Rank	Male N = 92	
		Mean	Mean (%)
Social service	1	3,85	77,04
Independence	2	3,75	75,09
Moral values	3	3,75	75,00
Colleagues	4	3,68	73,61
Responsibility	5	3,64	72,78
Creativity	6	3,63	72,52
Achievement	7	3,61	72,17
Activity	8	3,61	72,13
Ability utilisation	9	3,59	71,83
Variety	10	3,45	68,96
Authority	11	3,44	68,87
Supervision-human relations	12	3,36	67,17
Social status	13	3,31	66,26
Supervision-technical	14	3,28	65,65
Recognition	15	3,13	62,57
Working conditions	16	2,88	57,57
Security	17	2,62	52,48
Advancement	18	2,43	48,52
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,41	48,17
Compensation	20	2,11	42,22
Overall level: Male respondents		65,53%	

From Table 4.13 it is clear that the male respondents were satisfied with most aspects of their job. Social service, independence and moral values contributed most to their

overall level of job satisfaction while compensation, departmental policies and practices and advancement contributed least.

Table 4.14: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of female respondents

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Female N = 78	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,74	74,77
Moral values	2	3,70	73,95
Independence	3	3,58	71,54
Colleagues	4	3,54	70,87
Activity	5	3,52	70,46
Ability utilisation	6	3,49	69,74
Creativity	7	3,48	69,59
Responsibility	8	3,44	68,72
Achievement	9	3,37	67,44
Variety	10	3,32	66,41
Authority	11	3,25	65,03
Social status	12	3,24	64,87
Supervision-human relations	13	3,05	60,97
Supervision-technical	14	3,04	60,77
Recognition	15	3,03	60,56
Working conditions	16	2,86	57,28
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,61	52,10
Compensation	18	2,57	51,38
Security	19	2,48	49,64
Advancement	20	2,47	49,44
Overall level: Female respondents		63,78%	

Table 4.14 indicates that the female respondents were generally satisfied with their job, 63,78%. Social service, moral values, independence, colleagues and activity contributed most to the overall level for this sub-group while their advancement and job security contributed least.

Both male and female respondents were generally satisfied.

4.4.4.2 Biographic group 2: Current post level held by respondents

Comparing the level of job satisfaction of respondents according to post level held is intended to identify the difference between the overall level per sub-group and the overall level of job satisfaction for the target population. Table 4.15 reports the findings of this comparison.

Table 4.15: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per position sub-group with the overall level

Sub-group	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference
Rector	72,20	64,73	7,47
Vice-rector	68,63	64,73	3,90
H.O.D.	68,64	64,73	3,91
Lecturer	63,57	64,73	1,16-

From Table 4.15 it is clear that the level of job satisfaction of rectors, vice-rectors and heads of departments was higher than that of the entire population (64,73%), while that of lecturers as a group was less.

A further analysis of the level of job satisfaction of each sub-group (Table 4.15) shows the contribution of each of the 20 indicators to the overall level of satisfaction of each group. The results are as reported in Tables 4.16 to 4.19.

Table 4.16: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of rectors

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Rectors (N = 4)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,30	86,00
Ability utilisation	2	4,25	85,00
Creativity	3	4,10	82,00
Authority	4	4,05	81,00
Activity	5	4,00	80,00
Social status	6	4,00	80,00
Achievement	7	3,95	79,00
Responsibility	8	3,95	79,00
Moral values	9	3,90	78,00
Colleagues	10	3,85	77,00
Independence	11	3,75	75,00
Recognition	12	3,75	75,00
Variety	13	3,70	74,00
Supervision-human relations	14	3,55	71,00
Supervision-technical	15	3,55	71,00
Security	16	3,00	60,00
Advancement	17	2,85	57,00
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,80	56,00
Working conditions	19	2,70	54,00
Compensation	20	2,20	44,00
Overall level: Rectors		72,20%	

Table 4.16 shows that rectors were satisfied with most aspects of the job especially social service, ability utilisation, creativity, authority, activity and social status. However, they were dissatisfied with compensation, working conditions, departmental policies and practices and opportunities for advancement.

Table 4.17: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of vice-rectors

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Vice-rector (N = 7)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,03	80,57
Colleagues	2	3,91	78,29
Achievement	3	3,77	75,43
Supervision-human relations	4	3,77	75,43
Independence	5	3,74	74,86
Responsibility	6	3,71	74,29
Social status	7	3,69	73,71
Working conditions	8	3,69	73,71
Activity	9	3,66	73,14
Ability utilisation	10	3,66	73,14
Moral values	11	3,63	72,57
Supervision-technical	12	3,57	71,43
Creativity	13	3,43	68,57
Authority	14	3,40	68,00
Recognition	15	3,40	68,00
Variety	16	3,34	66,86
Security	17	2,89	57,71
Advancement	18	2,74	54,86
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,34	46,86
Compensation	20	2,26	45,14
Overall level: Vice-rectors		68,63%	

Table 4.17 shows that respondents of the sub-group vice-rector were mainly happy with social service and colleagues while they felt most dissatisfied with compensation, departmental policies and practices, and advancement.

Table 4.18: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of heads of departments

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	H.O.D. (N = 25)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,11	82,24
Moral values	2	3,95	79,04
Activity	3	3,94	78,72
Ability utilisation	4	3,82	76,32
Responsibility	5	3,80	76,00
Achievement	6	3,78	75,52
Creativity	7	3,74	74,72
Colleagues	8	3,71	74,24
Authority	9	3,70	74,08
Independence	10	3,62	72,48
Variety	11	3,52	70,40
Supervision-human relations	12	3,46	69,28
Supervision-technical	13	3,36	67,20
Recognition	14	3,35	67,04
Social status	15	3,32	66,40
Working conditions	16	3,02	60,32
Security	17	2,66	53,28
Advancement	18	2,66	53,28
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,62	52,48
Compensation	20	2,49	49,76
Overall level: H.O. D.		68,64%	

Table 4.18 indicates that the heads of departments were satisfied with most aspects of their job except compensation, departmental policies, advancement and job security.

Table 4.19: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of lecturers

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Lecturers (N = 134)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,71	74,30
Moral values	2	3,68	73,67
Independence	3	3,68	73,52
Colleagues	4	3,58	71,55
Creativity	5	3,52	70,33
Activity	6	3,48	69,64
Responsibility	7	3,48	69,55
Ability utilisation	8	3,47	69,31
Achievement	9	3,42	68,42
Variety	10	3,36	67,16
Authority	11	3,27	65,34
Social status	12	3,23	64,63
Supervision-human relations	13	3,13	62,63
Supervision-technical	14	3,10	62,06
Recognition	15	2,81	59,91
Working conditions	16	2,51	56,15
Security	17	2,47	50,18
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,38	49,49
Advancement	19	2,30	47,58
Compensation	20	2,30	45,94
Overall level: Lecturers		63,57%	

From the information in Table 4.19, it is clear that lecturers were satisfied with most job satisfaction indicators, mainly social service, moral values, independence, colleagues and creativity. However, they were not satisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, job security, working conditions and recognition.

According to the information in Tables 4.16 to 4.19, respondents are generally satisfied with their jobs irrespective of the position held. They are also consistent in ranking compensation, advancement and departmental policies and practices as factors which contribute least to the overall level of job satisfaction.

4.4.4.3 Biographic group 3: Age of respondents

To identify the most satisfied and dissatisfied age group, the level of job satisfaction per sub-group was compared with the overall level of the target population as presented in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per age sub-group with the overall level of satisfaction of the target population

Sub-group	Level per sub-group (%)	Overall level (%)	Difference
30 years or younger	65,38	64,73	0,65
31 to 40 years	61,78	64,73	2,95-
41 to 50 years	65,12	64,73	0,39
51 to 60 years	68,98	64,73	4,25
Older than 60 years	73,85	64,73	9,12

Table 4.20 indicates that the respondents older than 60 years were 9,12% above the overall level of job satisfaction of the target population while the respondents between 31 and 40 years were 2,95% below this level.

To indicate the contribution of each job satisfaction indicator to the overall level of satisfaction of each age group, the 20 job satisfaction indicators were further ranked according to their contributions regarding the age sub-groups. Tables 4.21 to 4.25 present the results for each age group.

Table 4.21: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the age group 30 years or younger

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	30 years or younger (N =19)	
		Mean	%
Independence	1	3,85	79,79
Social service	2	3,79	77,05
Moral values	3	3,75	75,79
Activity	4	3,71	74,95
Colleagues	5	3,69	74,11
Ability utilisation	6	3,65	73,89
Achievement	7	3,65	73,05
Responsibility	8	3,64	73,05
Creativity	9	3,44	72,84
Social status	10	3,41	68,84
Variety	11	3,40	68,21
Authority	12	3,35	66,95
Supervision-technical	13	3,07	61,47
Supervision-human relations	14	3,05	61,05
Working conditions	15	3,00	60,00
Recognition	16	2,95	58,95
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,57	51,37
Advancement	18	2,33	46,53
Compensation	19	2,25	45,05
Security	20	2,23	44,63
Overall level: Age group 30 and younger		65,38%	

Table 4.21 shows that the respondents who were 30 years or younger were generally satisfied with most job satisfaction indicators, especially social service, independence, moral values and colleagues. But they felt dissatisfied with security, compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices and recognition.

Table 4.22: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the age group 31 to 40 years

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	31 to 40 years (N = 69)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,61	72,12
Independence	2	3,56	71,19
Moral values	3	3,51	70,14
Colleagues	4	3,50	70,09
Responsibility	5	3,37	67,42
Creativity	6	3,37	67,36
Activity	7	3,33	66,61
Achievement	8	3,32	66,49
Ability utilisation	9	3,32	66,49
Variety	10	3,23	64,52
Authority	11	3,18	63,59
Supervision-human relations	12	3,17	63,48
Supervision-technical	13	3,13	62,55
Social status	14	3,11	62,20
Recognition	15	2,99	59,83
Working conditions	16	2,58	51,65
Security	17	2,53	50,55
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,41	48,23
Advancement	19	2,34	46,90
Compensation	20	2,21	44,17
Overall level: Age group 31 to 40 years		61,78%	

Table 4.22 indicates that the respondents between the age of 31 and 40 years were most satisfied with social service and independence while compensation, advancement and departmental policies and practices contributed least to the overall level of job satisfaction. Moreover, they were dissatisfied with compensation,

advancement, departmental policies and practices, security, working conditions and recognition.

Table 4.23: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the age group 41 to 50 years

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	41 to 50 years (N = 46)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,82	76,35
Moral values	2	3,74	74,78
Independence	3	3,66	73,13
Creativity	4	3,59	71,83
Responsibility	5	3,58	71,65
Activity	6	3,56	71,22
Ability utilisation	7	3,56	71,13
Colleagues	8	3,53	70,52
Achievement	9	3,44	68,87
Authority	10	3,41	68,17
Variety	11	3,40	68,09
Social status	12	3,31	66,26
Supervision-human relations	13	3,18	63,65
Recognition	14	3,14	63,35
Supervision-technical	15	3,12	62,78
Working conditions	16	2,93	58,52
Security	17	2,63	52,70
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,57	51,30
Advancement	19	2,55	50,96
Compensation	20	2,41	48,17
Overall level: Age group 41 to 50 years		65,12%	

The information in Table 4.23 shows that respondents between the age of 41 and 50 were satisfied with most aspects of their job, but dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, security and working conditions.

Table 4.24: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the age group 51 to 60 years

Job satisfaction	Rank	51 to 60 years (N = 32)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,13	82,50
Moral values	2	4,11	82,25
Activity	3	3,98	79,63
Creativity	4	3,84	76,75
Colleagues	5	3,84	76,75
Achievement	6	3,83	76,50
Ability utilisation	7	3,78	76,38
Independence	8	3,76	75,50
Responsibility	9	3,70	75,13
Variety	10	3,61	74,00
Authority	11	3,45	72,13
Social status	12	3,40	69,00
Supervision-human relations	13	3,33	68,00
Supervision-technical	14	3,29	66,50
Working conditions	15	3,23	65,88
Recognition	16	3,19	64,63
Security	17	2,55	51,00
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,51	50,13
Advancement	19	2,48	49,50
Compensation	20	2,38	47,50
Overall level: Age group 51 to 60 years		68,98%	

Table 4.24 indicates that the respondents between the age of 51 and 60 years were mostly satisfied with social service and moral values but dissatisfied with compensation and advancement.

Table 4.25: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the age group older than 60

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Older than 60 years (N = 4)	
		Mean	%
Colleagues	1	4,45	89,00
Ability utilisation	2	4,25	85,00
Social service	3	4,10	82,00
Moral values	4	3,95	79,00
Responsibility	5	3,95	79,00
Achievement	6	3,85	77,00
Creativity	7	3,85	77,00
Security	8	3,85	77,00
Authority	9	3,80	76,00
Social status	10	3,80	75,00
Recognition	11	3,75	74,00
Supervision-human relations	12	3,70	73,00
Activity	13	3,65	72,00
Independence	14	3,50	70,00
Supervision-technical	15	3,50	70,00
Variety	16	3,45	69,00
Advancement	17	3,40	68,00
Working conditions	18	3,25	65,00
Compensation	19	3,15	63,00
Departmental policies & practices	20	2,85	57,00
Overall level: Age group older than 60 years		73,85%	

Table 4.25 indicates that the respondents older than 60 years were satisfied with all the job satisfaction indicators considered especially colleagues, ability utilisation and social service. However, they ranked departmental policies and practices, and compensation last, compensation being the only job aspect they are dissatisfied with.

For this biographical group, satisfaction seemed to increase with age while compensation can be regarded as the major source of dissatisfaction.

4.4.4.4 Biographic group 4: The teaching experience of respondents in years

None of the respondents had more than 40 years of teaching experience. All the sub-groups were compared with the overall level of job satisfaction as presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Comparing the level of satisfaction per teaching experience sub-group with the overall level of the target group

Sub-group	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference
10 years or less	64,94	64,73	0,21
11 to 20 years	61,99	64,73	2,74-
21 to 30 years	65,52	64,73	0,79
31 to 40 years	74,00	64,73	9,27

Table 4.26 indicates that respondents with teaching experience of between 31 and 40 years were the most satisfied while those between 11 and 20 years were the least satisfied.

A further analysis of the level of job satisfaction of the sub-group according to the teaching experience shows the contribution of each of the 20 job satisfaction indicators to the overall level of job satisfaction of each group. The results are presented in Tables 4.27 to 4.30.

Table 4.27: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of satisfaction of respondents with 10 years or less teaching experience

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	10 years or less (N = 50)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,83	76,64
Independence	2	3,77	75,36
Colleagues	3	3,69	73,76
Moral values	4	3,68	73,52
Responsibility	5	3,60	72,08
Achievement	6	3,59	71,84
Ability utilisation	7	3,57	71,44
Activity	8	3,57	71,44
Creativity	9	3,55	70,96
Variety	10	3,36	67,12
Supervision-human relations	11	3,35	66,96
Supervision-technical	12	3,33	66,56
Authority	13	3,32	66,48
Social status	14	3,29	65,76
Recognition	15	3,02	60,48
Working conditions	16	2,78	55,60
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,56	51,12
Security	18	2,52	50,40
Advancement	19	2,38	47,68
Compensation	20	2,18	43,52
Overall level: 10 years or less teaching experience		64,94%	

Table 4.7 indicates that respondents were generally satisfied with job aspects considered. Social service and independence contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction for the sub-group, while compensation and advancement contributed least. Moreover, these respondents were dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, security, departmental policies and practices, and working conditions.

Table 4.28: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of respondents with 11 to 20 years teaching experience

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	11 to 20 years (N = 66)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,65	72,71
Moral values	2	3,56	71,15
Independence	3	3,51	70,18
Colleagues	4	3,50	69,94
Activity	5	3,42	68,36
Responsibility	6	3,39	67,88
Creativity	7	3,38	67,58
Ability utilisation	8	3,32	66,42
Achievement	9	3,29	65,88
Variety	10	3,25	65,09
Authority	11	3,22	64,48
Social status	12	3,16	63,27
Supervision-human relations	13	3,02	60,48
Recognition	14	2,99	59,88
Supervision-technical	15	2,96	59,15
Working conditions	16	2,62	52,48
Security	17	2,52	50,48
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,43	48,61
Advancement	19	2,39	47,82
Compensation	20	2,39	47,,76
Overall level: 11 to 20 years teaching experience		61,99%	

From Table 4.28 it is clear that the respondents in this sub-group were most satisfied with social service, moral values and independence, rated above 70%. Although overall level of job satisfaction for this sub-group indicates satisfaction, 61,99%, respondents were dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, security, working conditions and supervision-technical.

Table 4.29: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of respondents with 21 to 30 years of teaching experience

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	21 to 30 years (N = 39)	
		Mean	%
Moral values	1	3,85	77,03
Social service	2	3,77	75,49
Independence	3	3,74	74,77
Creativity	4	3,66	73,23
Ability utilisation	5	3,63	72,62
Colleagues	6	3,63	72,62
Activity	7	3,56	71,18
Responsibility	8	3,53	70,67
Achievement	9	3,49	69,85
Variety	10	3,44	68,92
Authority	11	3,44	68,82
Social status	12	3,34	66,87
Recognition	13	3,12	62,36
Supervision-technical	14	3,09	61,74
Supervision-human relations	15	3,08	61,54
Working conditions	16	3,06	61,23
Advancement	17	2,61	52,21
Security	18	2,61	52,10
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,50	49,95
Compensation	20	2,36	47,18
Overall level: 21 to 30 years teaching experience		65,52%	

The information in Table 4.29 shows that moral values and social service contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction of this sub-group, while compensation and departmental policies contributed least. Moreover, sources of dissatisfaction for respondents of this sub-group were compensation, departmental policies and practices, security and advancement.

Table 4.30: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with 31 to 40 teaching experience

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	31 to 40 years (N = 15)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	4,44	88,80
Moral values	2	4,31	86,13
Activity	3	4,24	84,80
Ability utilisation	4	4,20	84,00
Creativity	5	4,12	82,40
Achievement	6	4,12	82,40
Responsibility	7	4,05	81,07
Supervision-human relations	8	4,00	79,73
Variety	9	3,95	78,93
Independence	10	3,91	78,13
Colleagues	11	3,88	77,60
Authority	12	3,81	76,27
Supervision-technical	13	3,80	76,00
Working conditions	14	3,77	75,47
Social status	15	3,61	72,27
Recognition	16	3,57	71,47
Security	17	2,72	54,40
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,61	52,27
Advancement	19	2,48	49,60
Compensation	20	2,41	48,27
Overall level: 31 to 40 years teaching experience		74,00%	

From Table 4.30, the overall level of job satisfaction was 74,00%, signifying satisfaction on the five-point scale used. Social service and moral values contributed most to this percentage, while compensation and advancement contributed least. Respondents were dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, and departmental policies and security.

The sub-groups according to years of teaching experience were generally satisfied with social service and moral values but dissatisfied with compensation and advancement.

4.4.4.5 Biographic group 5: Professional qualifications of respondents

Table 4.31 compares the means to determine the difference between the overall level of job satisfaction of the target group and those of the professional sub-groups.

Table 4.31: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per professional qualification sub-group with the overall level of the target group

Sub-group	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference
Teacher's diploma	64,73	64,73	0,00
Further or 2 nd diploma	66,34	64,73	1,61
Integrated degree	69,25	64,73	4,52
B.Ed. degree	60,37	64,73	4,36-
M.Ed. degree	65,52	64,73	0,79
Doctorate in education	71,47	64,73	6,74
Other*	66,98	64,73	2,07

*Other professional qualifications included M. Sc. and H.N.D. (Mining Engineering).

Table 4.31 shows that the level of job satisfaction for respondents with a doctorate in education as their highest professional qualification was the most satisfied, 6,74% above the overall level of the target population. The least satisfied were those with a B.Ed. degree, 4,36% below the overall level.

The contribution of each job satisfaction indicator has been ranked in Tables 4.32 to 4.38 for different sub-groups according to professional qualifications.

Table 4.32: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with a teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Teacher's diploma (N = 32)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,79	75,75
Moral values	2	3,72	74,38
Creativity	3	3,61	72,25
Colleagues	4	3,61	72,13
Independence	5	3,59	71,75
Responsibility	6	3,57	71,38
Ability utilisation	7	3,53	70,63
Variety	8	3,52	70,37
Activity	9	3,48	69,63
Achievement	10	3,46	69,25
Authority	11	3,22	64,38
Social status	12	3,18	63,50
Recognition	13	3,03	60,50
Working conditions	14	3,01	60,13
Supervision-technical	15	2,99	59,88
Supervision-human relations	16	2,94	58,75
Security	17	2,75	55,00
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,64	52,75
Advancement	19	2,63	52,50
Compensation	20	2,48	49,62
Overall level: Teachers' diploma		64,73%	

Table 4.32 shows that respondents were mainly satisfied with social service and moral values while mostly dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, security, supervision human relations, supervision technical and working conditions.

Table 4.33: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with further or 2nd diploma as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Further or 2 nd dip. (N = 25)	
		Mean	%
Independence	1	3,83	76,64
Moral values	2	3,80	76,00
Social service	3	3,78	75,68
Colleagues	4	3,73	74,56
Responsibility	5	3,73	74,56
Achievement	6	3,70	73,92
Creativity	7	3,67	73,44
Activity	8	3,62	72,32
Ability utilisation	9	3,56	71,20
Authority	10	3,50	70,08
Recognition	11	3,46	69,28
Variety	12	3,42	68,48
Supervision-human relations	13	3,36	67,20
Supervision-technical	14	3,26	65,12
Social status	15	3,20	64,00
Working conditions	16	3,07	61,44
Security	17	2,67	53,44
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,42	48,32
Compensation	19	2,34	46,88
Advancement	20	2,22	44,32
Overall level: Further or 2nd diploma		66,34%	

According to Table 3.33, respondents were satisfied with most job aspects considered especially independence, moral values and social service. However, they were dissatisfied with advancement, compensation, departmental policies and practices, and job security.

Table 4.34: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with an integrated degree as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Integrated degree (N = 30)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,99	79,87
Ability utilisation	2	3,89	77,73
Colleagues	3	3,83	76,67
Independence	4	3,81	76,13
Moral values	5	3,80	76,00
Responsibility	6	3,77	75,33
Activity	7	3,75	75,07
Achievement	8	3,73	74,53
Creativity	9	3,70	74,00
Social status	10	3,59	71,87
Authority	11	3,55	70,93
Variety	12	3,53	70,67
Supervision-human relations	13	3,50	70,00
Supervision-technical	14	3,47	69,47
Recognition	15	3,34	66,80
Working conditions	16	3,17	63,47
Advancement	17	2,89	57,73
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,79	55,73
Security	19	2,62	52,40
Compensation	20	2,53	50,67
Overall level: Integrated degrees		69,25%	

The information in Table 4.34 indicates that the respondents were satisfied with most of the job satisfaction indicators considered, with social service, ability utilisation, colleagues, independence and moral values contributing most to the overall level of job satisfaction of this sub-group. Compensation, security, departmental policies and

practices, and advancement contributed least and were the dissatisfying aspects of the job.

Table 4.35: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of satisfaction of the respondents with B.Ed. as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	B.Ed. (N = 53)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,60	72,00
Moral values	2	3,57	71,40
Independence	3	3,55	71,02
Colleagues	4	3,38	67,62
Creativity	5	3,36	67,17
Activity	6	3,34	66,72
Ability utilisation	7	3,26	65,28
Authority	8	3,26	65,28
Responsibility	9	3,26	65,13
Achievement	10	3,21	64,15
Variety	11	3,20	63,92
Social status	12	3,14	62,87
Supervision-human relations	13	3,05	60,91
Supervision-technical	14	2,99	59,77
Recognition	15	2,76	55,17
Security	16	2,43	48,68
Working conditions	17	2,33	46,57
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,31	46,11
Advancement	19	2,25	44,91
Compensation	20	2,13	42,64
Overall level: B.Ed. degree		60,37%	

Table 4.35 shows that social service, moral values and independence contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction of this sub-group. Compensation, advancement,

departmental policies and practices, working conditions, security, recognition and supervision technical contributed least and were the dissatisfying aspects of the job.

Table 4.36: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with M.Ed. as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	M.Ed. (N = 18)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,97	79,33
Moral values	2	3,94	78,89
Activity	3	3,89	77,78
Ability utilisation	4	3,73	74,67
Independence	5	3,67	73,33
Responsibility	6	3,63	72,69
Achievement	7	3,61	72,22
Creativity	8	3,54	70,89
Colleagues	9	3,50	70,00
Variety	10	3,39	67,78
Social status	11	3,39	67,78
Supervision-human relations	12	3,31	66,22
Authority	13	3,26	65,11
Supervision-technical	14	3,21	64,22
Working conditions	15	3,14	62,89
Recognition	16	3,01	60,22
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,48	49,56
Advancement	18	2,32	46,44
Security	19	2,32	46,44
Compensation	20	2,20	44,00
Overall level: M.Ed. degree		65,52%	

From Table 4.36 it is clear that the respondents were mainly satisfied with social service, moral values and activity. They were dissatisfied with compensation, security, advancement, and departmental policies and practices.

Table 4.37: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with a doctorate in education as their highest professional qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Doctorate (N = 3)	
		Mean	%
Colleagues	1	4,60	92,00
Social service	2	4,53	90,67
Working conditions	3	4,07	81,88
Activity	4	3,93	78,67
Moral values	5	3,93	78,67
Social status	6	3,87	77,33
Recognition	7	3,80	76,00
Authority	8	3,80	76,00
Creativity	9	3,80	76,00
Responsibility	10	3,80	76,00
Achievement	11	3,73	74,67
Independence	12	3,73	74,67
Supervision-human relations	13	3,67	73,33
Variety	14	3,60	72,00
Supervision-technical	15	3,53	70,67
Ability utilisation	16	3,40	68,00
Security	17	2,53	50,67
Advancement	18	2,40	48,00
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,40	48,00
Compensation	20	2,33	46,67
Overall level: Doctorate in education		71,47%	

The results in Table 4.37 show that respondents were very satisfied with colleagues, social service and working conditions, while dissatisfied with compensation, departmental policies and practices and advancement and security.

Table 4.38: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with other professional qualifications

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Other (N = 9)	
		Mean	%
Colleagues	1	3,93	78,67
Social service	2	3,84	76,89
Independence	3	3,80	76,00
Achievement	4	3,76	75,11
Activity	5	3,73	74,67
Creativity	6	3,71	74,22
Moral values	7	3,71	74,22
Ability utilisation	8	3,71	74,22
Responsibility	9	3,67	73,33
Supervision-human relations	10	3,53	70,67
Supervision-technical	11	3,42	68,44
Variety	12	3,42	68,44
Authority	13	3,38	67,56
Social status	14	3,24	64,89
Recognition	15	3,18	63,56
Working conditions	16	3,09	61,78
Security	17	2,58	51,56
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,49	49,78
Advancement	19	2,44	48,89
Compensation	20	2,33	46,67
Overall level: Other qualifications		66,98%	

Table 3.38 indicates that colleagues, social service and independence were sources of satisfaction while compensation, advancement, and departmental policies and practices were the most dissatisfying job aspects.

Form the above tables it is clear that respondents in all the sub-groups agree about social service and moral values as the main sources of satisfaction. Also that compensation, security, advancement and departmental policies and practices were the most dissatisfying factors.

4.4.4.6 Biographic group 6: Academic qualifications of respondents

A further analysis of the level of job satisfaction according to highest academic qualification indicates the contribution of each sub-group regarding academic qualification to the overall level of satisfaction of the target population. The results are presented in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39: Comparing the level of job satisfaction per academic qualification sub-group with the overall level for the target population

Sub-group	Mean (%)	Overall mean (%)	Difference
Matric	64,55	64,73	0,18-
Bachelor's degree	65,68	64,73	0,95
Honours degree	64,93	64,73	0,20
Master's degree	61,29	64,73	3,44-
Doctorate	60,40	64,73	4,33-
Other*	59,50	64,73	5,23-

*Other academic qualifications included Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (C.O.S.C.).

The information in Table 4.39 indicates that respondents with other academic qualifications have the lowest level of job satisfaction while those with a bachelor's degree as the highest qualification had the highest level of job satisfaction.

The contribution of each job satisfaction indicator has been ranked in Table 4.40 to 4.45 for the different sub-groups according to academic qualifications.

Table 4.40: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with matric as their highest academic qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Matric (N = 85)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,81	76,24
Moral values	2	3,71	74,26
Independence	3	3,70	74,07
Colleagues	4	3,60	72,05
Ability utilisation	5	3,60	71,95
Activity	6	3,57	71,34
Creativity	7	3,56	71,20
Responsibility	8	3,53	70,64
Achievement	9	3,42	68,42
Social status	10	3,38	67,58
Variety	11	3,37	67,39
Authority	12	3,35	66,92
Supervision-human relations	13	3,19	63,86
Supervision-technical	14	3,14	62,73
Recognition	15	3,05	60,94
Working conditions	16	2,84	56,75
Security	17	2,51	50,16
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,50	49,98
Advancement	19	2,45	49,08
Compensation	20	2,28	45,51
Overall level: Matric		64,55%	

Table 4.40 shows that the respondents were mainly satisfied with social service while dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental practices, security and working conditions.

Table 4.41: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with a bachelor's degree as their highest academic qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Bachelor's degree (N = 51)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,85	76,94
Moral values	2	3,78	75,61
Colleagues	3	3,73	74,67
Activity	4	3,65	73,02
Independence	5	3,64	72,78
Creativity	6	3,59	71,84
Achievement	7	3,57	71,37
Responsibility	8	3,56	71,14
Ability utilisation	9	3,49	69,73
Variety	10	3,49	69,73
Authority	11	3,44	68,86
Supervision-technical	12	3,27	65,41
Supervision-human relations	13	3,27	65,33
Social status	14	3,25	64,94
Recognition	15	3,09	61,88
Working conditions	16	2,84	56,71
Security	17	2,67	53,33
Advancement	18	2,56	51,22
Departmental policies & practices	19	2,53	50,59
Compensation	20	2,42	48,47
Overall level: Bachelor's degree		65,68%	

The results in Table 4.41 show that social service and moral values contributed most to the overall level of job satisfaction while compensation was the least. Compensation, departmental policies and practices, advancement, security and working conditions were the most dissatisfying aspects of the job.

Table 4.42: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with an honours degree as their highest academic qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Honours Degree (N = 24)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,71	74,17
Achievement	2	3,67	73,33
Ability utilisation	3	3,66	73,17
Moral values	4	3,66	73,17
Independence	5	3,65	73,00
Responsibility	6	3,62	72,33
Creativity	7	3,62	72,33
Colleagues	8	3,49	69,83
Activity	9	3,43	68,50
Variety	10	3,35	67,00
Supervision-human relations	11	3,34	66,83
Supervision-technical	12	3,28	65,67
Recognition	13	3,28	65,50
Authority	14	3,24	64,83
Social status	15	3,03	60,67
Working conditions	16	2,97	59,33
Security	17	2,70	53,83
Departmental policies & practices	18	2,54	50,83
Advancement	19	2,38	47,67
Compensation	20	2,33	46,67
Overall level: Honours degree		64,93%	

According to the information in Table 4.42, the respondents were satisfied with most job satisfaction indicators especially social service. They were dissatisfied with compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, security and working conditions.

Table 4.43: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with a master's degree as their highest academic qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Master's Degree (N = 7)	
		Mean	%
Recognition	1	3,74	74,86
Moral values	2	3,69	73,71
Independence	3	3,66	73,14
Social service	4	3,60	72,00
Activity	5	3,54	70,86
Creativity	6	3,49	69,71
Responsibility	7	3,46	69,14
Colleagues	8	3,40	68,00
Achievement	9	3,37	67,43
Variety	10	3,31	66,29
Authority	11	3,23	64,57
Ability utilisation	12	3,20	64,00
Social status	13	3,20	64,00
Working conditions	14	3,00	60,00
Supervision-human relations	15	2,97	59,43
Supervision-technical	16	2,66	53,14
Departmental policies & practices	17	2,37	47,43
Compensation	18	2,20	44,00
Security	19	2,14	42,86
Advancement	20	2,06	41,14
Overall level: Master's degree		61,29%	

Table 4.43 indicates that the respondents were satisfied except with advancement, security, departmental policies and practices, supervision-technical and supervision human relations.

Table 4.44: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction for the respondents with a doctorate as their highest academic qualification

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Doctorate (N = 3)	
		Mean	%
Activity	1	4,00	80,00
Authority	2	4,00	8000
Colleagues	3	4,00	80,00
Independence	4	4,00	80,00
Moral values	5	4,00	80,00
Responsibility	6	4,00	80,00
Social service	7	4,00	80,00
Social status	8	4,00	80,00
Achievement	9	3,60	72,00
Working conditions	10	3,40	68,00
Variety	11	2,80	56,00
Creativity	12	2,40	48,00
Recognition	13	2,40	48,00
Supervision-technical	14	2,20	44,00
Ability utilisation	15	2,20	44,00
Departmental policies & practices	16	2,00	40,00
Compensation	17	2,00	40,00
Security	18	2,00	40,00
Supervision-human relations	19	1,80	36,00
Advancement	20	1,60	32,00
Overall level: Doctorate		60,40%	

From Table 4.44 it is clear that the respondents with a doctorate as their highest academic qualification were either satisfied or very satisfied with some job satisfaction indicators. However, they were dissatisfied with 50% of the indicators considered, in particular advancement and supervision-human relations.

Table 4.45: Ranking the indicators according to their contribution to the overall level of job satisfaction of the respondents with other academic qualifications

Job satisfaction indicators	Rank	Other (N = 2)	
		Mean	%
Social service	1	3,80	76,00
Moral values	2	3,70	74,00
Achievement	3	3,50	70,00
Recognition	4	3,50	70,00
Colleagues	5	3,40	68,00
Independence	6	3,40	68,00
Working conditions	7	3,40	68,00
Ability utilisation	8	3,20	64,00
Activity	9	3,10	62,00
Responsibility	10	3,10	62,00
Authority	11	3,00	60,00
Supervision-human relations	12	3,00	60,00
Supervision-technical	13	3,00	60,00
Social status	14	2,90	58,00
Variety	15	2,80	56,00
Creativity	16	2,80	56,00
Compensation	17	2,10	42,00
Security	18	2,10	42,00
Departmental policies & practices	19	1,90	38,00
Advancement	20	1,80	36,00
Overall level: Other academic qualifications		59,50%	

Table 4.45 indicates an overall dissatisfaction with the job. Although social values and moral values contributed most to the overall level of satisfaction, respondents were dissatisfied with advancement, departmental policies and practices, security, compensation, creativity, variety, social status and supervision technical.

For this biographic group, compensation, departmental policies and practices, advancement and security were the major sources of dissatisfaction. Otherwise, respondents were generally satisfied.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The results of this study on the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff revealed some strong and weak points. Respondents seem to agree on the job satisfaction indicators frequently rated by respondents as the most satisfying or dissatisfying aspects of the job. Job satisfaction indicators frequently rated as the most satisfying include social service, moral values, independence, colleagues and activity. Job satisfaction indicators frequently rated as the most dissatisfying include compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, security and working conditions.

In the next chapter, an attempt will be made to state the findings on the current level of job satisfaction with a view to recommending certain guidelines towards improving the current situation in the colleges of education in the Free State.

Chapter 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The new constitution of South Africa makes tertiary education a national competence that all colleges offering higher education programmes, including colleges of education, have to be incorporated into the higher education sector (Department of Education, 1998:i). Based on that, the Green Paper on higher education attempts to expand and transform the system of higher education within the reality of limited resources. According to this paper, the need to transform higher education in this country stems from factors of two origins (National Department of Education, 1996:10). Firstly, the historical legacy of inequity and inefficiency which inhibits its ability to meet the moral, social and economic demands of the new South Africa, and secondly, a context of unprecedented national and global opportunities and challenges. The transformation of higher education requires reorientation and innovation of these factors (National Department of Education, 1996:10).

In preparation of the transformation, the report of the Research Institute for Education Planning (RIEP) at the University of the Orange Free State (Strauss & Van der Linde, 1998:22) outlines the following recommendations on the colleges of education in the Free State province:

1. The number of educators trained in the province must be decreased.
2. It is necessary to scale down on the training capacity of the province.
3. Educator to student ratio needs to be increased to at least 1:18.

4. The transformation of colleges of education should go hand in hand with the transformation of the programme (curriculum) for teacher training.
5. The possibility of incorporating some colleges (in Thaba Nchu and Bloemfontein areas) into one or more of the universities and/or technikon has to be investigated.
6. The reorganisation of the remaining colleges (in Phuthaditjaba area) into one Free State College of Education.

There is therefore no doubt that the present situation regarding the colleges of education in this province calls for a change. Apparently, a lot of money is spent to produce teachers not needed in the schools.

“That the largest portion of the educational budget is spent on salaries further necessitates an in-depth look at the number of educators actually needed in schools in years to come, taking into account the present urgent need for the training of teachers in specialised areas” (Strauss & Van der Linde, 1998:20).

While bodies such as RIEP were targeted to investigate the background report, identifying the implications and outlining implementation strategies that would facilitate the incorporation process, the academic staff at these colleges have little clarity as to their fate. This creates feelings of uncertainty and insecurity, considering that people have needs which they fulfil by virtue of being employed. Consequently the level of their performance, interest and commitment may drop, as may the achievement of educational goals. When changing the system, educational leaders should be concerned about the aspects which can affect the job satisfaction of the staff.

A teacher training college has to produce good teachers, well equipped to educate the children of the community it serves. The quality of the product of any organisation, education in this study, determines the quality of the service offered by the organisation. The needs of the community which is served by an institution, exert pressure on the institution and type of student it produces. Student achievement should therefore be a concern to educators. According to Hage in Marra (1978:6) educator job satisfaction and student production are legitimate school goals. Educator job satisfaction is based on the needs fulfilment and professional and personal growth

of the teaching staff. Student production is based on providing for students' needs, growth and development.

Marra (1978:6) suggests that the two goals are inseparable and interdependent, the success of the latter depending on the former. Conversely, counter-productive behaviour of educators can undoubtedly affect the level of student achievement negatively. The present period of uncertainty at colleges of education requires the particular attention of educational leaders. Moreover, the quality of teachers produced by these institutions is a concern of the time.

From the above it is clear that job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State has not received significant attention while the incorporation of these colleges into the higher education system is being investigated and strategised. Yet, motivation to achieve high performance levels in any job requires satisfaction with the job (Mullins, 1989:20).

1.2 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The scientific field of study of this research is Educational Management, a sub-discipline of Education comprising those regulative tasks or actions which allow formative education to take place (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:43-53). The management tasks include planning, organising, guiding and control. These are executed by a person in a position of authority in the various management areas. One such area is personnel management, which deals with the physical and psychological needs of the staff members with a view to achieving the goals of the institution. Satisfaction of staff needs ensures job satisfaction and the well-being of the individual staff members. Also, it motivates them to have a positive attitude towards learning and educational activities. Van der Westhuizen (1991:183) regards motivation as a supportive action (sub-task) of guiding staff to carry out specific tasks in the teaching-learning process. Although many of the management tasks and areas will receive attention, the main focus of this study will be on job satisfaction, which is closely linked to the motivation of staff as a sub-section of the staff management area.

At present, three types of institutions in the Free State province train teachers. These are the universities: Vista, Uni-Qwa and the University of the Orange Free State; the Free State Technikon and the colleges of education. This study focuses on the colleges of education, namely Bonamelo, Tshiya, Lere-la-Tshepe and Sefikeng in Qwaqwa; Kagisanong and Bloemfontein College in Bloemfontein, Thaba-Nchu College at Thaba-Nchu and Mphohadi at Kroonstad. This study involves all academic staff at the colleges. It attempts to analyse the current state of job satisfaction among the academic staff with the aim of establishing the culture of teaching and learning at these colleges.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The era in which we live, brings endless change. As the needs of man change, so do the education needs. Consequently, man continually changes, arranges and adapts his social structures and surroundings (Niemann, 1997:24). The school is one such structure that was designed to meet man's need for education. Educational systems change to cope with technology, new systems, methods and techniques, economic and political changes. This stresses the need for true educators; those fully prepared and equipped with knowledge, skills and values to meet the demands and challenges of the time.

Since the beginning of democratisation in South Africa in 1994, a range of changes has taken place in the education system. The incorporation of colleges of education into the higher education sector is one such change in process. An unanswered question is: What is the net impact of these changes on the level of job satisfaction of the staff?

In every organisation professional satisfaction co-determines the individual's effectiveness and efficiency. The academic staff at the colleges of education is no exception. High job satisfaction of teachers is closely connected to their efficacy as educators (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:295). Therefore, the organisational climate

should inspire and motivate the staff to perform at the top of their capabilities in order to achieve educational goals.

In administering the process of education, educators must be concerned with those factors that may motivate students to learn. These may affect students directly or indirectly as long as they may produce satisfaction and success. Students have to participate in the education process of which they are both beneficiaries and products. This indicates the significance of a satisfied staff member and a motivated student.

The quality of the working life is directly proportional to the ability to overcome obstacles to effective performance. To clarify the significance of the role job satisfaction plays in the current situation at colleges of education in the Free State, the following questions may be put forward:

1. What does job satisfaction entail?
2. What is the current level of job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State?
3. What recommendations can be given to improve the current level of job satisfaction among academic staff at these colleges?

1.4 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study is aimed at analysing the level of job satisfaction among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State with the aim of improving the current level.

This overall aim gives rise to the following specific objectives:

1. To give a theoretical background of what job satisfaction entails, establish indicators of job satisfaction in a formal organisation and determine the consequences of job satisfaction.
2. To establish the present state of job satisfaction among academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State.

3. To provide recommendations for improving the current level of job satisfaction among staff to increase performance at these colleges.

1.5 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

To achieve these objectives, the following research methods were used:

1.5.1 Literature study

1.5.1.1 Primary sources

A selection of relevant primary sources was studied. These included educational bills, acts and original departmental publications.

1.5.1.2 Secondary sources

Relevant secondary sources were studied in order to obtain sufficient knowledge of job satisfaction indicators in a formal organisation. Most of the information, especially research findings, were on primary and secondary schools. Very little could be found on the job satisfaction of staff at tertiary institutions such as colleges of education. However, colleges of education are formal organisations like schools, only at a higher level of vertical academic advancement. Therefore, the secondary sources on schools have been used and have provided sufficient information for the basis of this study.

1.5.2 Questionnaire

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967:110) was used as the main data-collecting instrument. This questionnaire consists of 100 questions identifying 20 job satisfaction indicators in clusters of five questions per indicator. Each indicator refers to a factor that influences an employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work environment. It was distributed to the eight colleges of education in the Free State Province. This involved 385 academic

staff members. Of the 385 questionnaires distributed, 182 were recovered and the responses of 170 could be used.

1.6 OUTLAY OF THE RESEARCH

This study is divided into five chapters:

Chapter 1 highlights the problem and the objectives and gives an overview of the study.

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review on job satisfaction, mainly in educational organisations with reference to teacher motivation, job satisfaction indicators, role clarity and leadership behaviour.

Chapter 3 focuses on the consequences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for an educational institution like a college of education.

Chapter 4 focuses on the current level of job satisfaction of academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State, based on the information obtained through the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Chapter 5 provides recommendations for improving the current level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State and the culture of teaching and learning to increase performance.

1.7 CONCLUSION

The education system of South Africa is at present undergoing a process of transformation, from the previous system, which did not meet the needs of most people, to the present unitary one. For this system to meet the demands of all South Africans, it should be in the hands of good educators at all levels. The quality of teachers produced by the colleges of education is directly proportional to the quality of the academic staff at the colleges. The latter also plays an important role in

determining the culture of teaching and learning at both primary and secondary school levels; thus, it is of great importance that the staff should be satisfied with their job. The present situation, its consequences and how it may be improved, is the main concern of the research.

Chapter 5

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE CURRENT LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

5.1 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The following findings and conclusions are based on the results of the survey on job satisfaction as reported in chapter 4.

5.1.1 Findings and conclusions regarding the overall level of job satisfaction of the target population

5.1.1.1 The majority of the academic staff members at the colleges of education are generally satisfied with their job

The responses of this survey revealed that the overall level of job satisfaction of educators at the colleges of education in the Free State is 64,73%, implying that they are satisfied. However, the overall job satisfaction level cannot be used as a measure of the satisfaction level of each individual sub-group since some variables of job satisfaction may satisfy a particular individual or sub-group but not the other (see 2.4.4.1). Also, this does not reveal the level of job satisfaction at each college and does not provide adequate information about the situation at colleges (cf. Table 4.3).

From these results, it is clear that the overall job satisfaction is not a useful measure for comparing sub-groups.

Although the overall level of 64,73% implies that the majority of the respondents are satisfied, it must be pointed out that a level of below 60% signifies dissatisfaction on the five-point scale used. Much improvement is therefore required to bring the level up to above 80%, which is the minimum score for a “very satisfied” level.

5.1.1.2 The job satisfaction indicators frequently rated as the most satisfying came largely from the intrinsic aspects of the job

The results of ranking the job satisfaction indicators according to their contribution to the overall satisfaction revealed that the respondents frequently rated certain indicators as the most satisfying (cf. Table 4.1 to Table 4.45). The respondents feel they are given a chance to be “somebody” in the community (social service). They are able to do things that are not against their conscience (moral values). They have the chance to work alone on the job (independence). They get along with each other (colleagues). They are able to keep busy all the time (activity). Most of these indicators come from the intrinsic aspects of the job and what Herzberg refers to as the motivating factors (cf. 2.3.2.1 (b)).

5.1.1.3 Job satisfaction indicators frequently rated as the most dissatisfying came largely from the extrinsic aspects of the job

Certain job satisfaction indicators were rated as the most dissatisfying by the respondents (cf. Table 4.1 to Table 4.45). The respondents are all dissatisfied with their salary compared with the amount of work they do (compensation); their chances of advancement in this job; the way departmental policies are put into practice; the way their job provides for steady employment and their working conditions. Most of these indicators come from the extrinsic aspects of the job as described by Herzberg’s hygiene factors (cf. 2.3.2.1 (b)).

5.1.2 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction at individual colleges

5.1.2.1 There are big differences in the level of job satisfaction at the individual colleges

Although the overall level of job satisfaction is 64,73%, the responses per college revealed that the level of job satisfaction ranged from 78,43% for the college with the highest job satisfaction to 49,27% for the college with the lowest level (cf. Table 4.1). The difference between these two colleges is indicative of the difference in the level of job satisfaction per college. The various job satisfaction indicators contribute to the overall level of each of these colleges in a manner unique to that college. For example, the staff at one college can be very satisfied with working conditions while another college is dissatisfied with the same job aspect (cf. Table 4.4 and Table 4.5)

5.1.2.2 At one of the eight colleges respondents indicated that they are dissatisfied with their job

The overall level of job satisfaction for college 6 is 49,27%, indicating that respondents are dissatisfied with their job. Of the eight colleges, college 6 has the lowest level of job satisfaction. Respondents at this college were dissatisfied with most of the 20 job aspects considered with the exception of moral values, social service and independence. Moreover, the level of job satisfaction was as low as 32,88% for some indicators (working conditions). This level signifies dissatisfied respondents on the five-point scale. On the other hand, moral values have the highest job satisfaction level (66,44%) yet on this scale, this value is closer to 60% (neutral) than 80% (lowest level of very satisfied). The academic staff at this college is therefore generally dissatisfied with the job (cf. Table 4.9).

5.1.2.3 The respondents at the majority of the colleges agree on the indicators of job satisfaction frequently rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The results revealed that the respondents at different colleges give more or less the same indicators as the source of satisfaction in the job (cf. Tables 4.4 to 4.11). The majority of respondents are mostly satisfied with having the chance to do things for other people, being able to do things that do not go against their conscience and the chance to work alone on the job (cf. Table 4.6, 4.9 and 4.10). Some respondents find the way they work with colleagues, being able to keep busy all the time and having the chance to try their own methods of doing the job as equally satisfying if not more satisfying (cf. Table 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8). Most of these indicators are Maslow's higher-order needs and Herzberg's motivating factors (cf. 2.3.2.1). However, these came in different orders of importance per college, for example, college 2 ranked moral values as the most satisfying while college 3 felt that relationships among colleagues are in that position and college 4 put independence instead (cf. Table 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7).

5.1.2.4 The respondents at the majority of the colleges agree on the indicators of job satisfaction frequently rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

The results indicate that respondents at the different colleges agree on the job satisfaction indicators frequently rated as the most dissatisfying aspects of the job (cf. Tables 4.4 to 4.11). Although the order varies per college, the least satisfying indicators are compensation, departmental policies and practices, advancement, working conditions and job security (cf. Table 4.4 to 4.11). These factors correspond to a large extent to Herzberg's hygiene factors and Maslow's lower-order needs (cf. 2.3.2.1). The level of job satisfaction with these job aspects tends to be very low at some colleges irrespective of how satisfied respondents may be with other factors.

5.1.2.5 College 1 is the only college which included extrinsic aspects of the job among the indicators frequently rated as the most satisfying

College 1 has the highest level of job satisfaction (78,43%) of all the colleges. The majority of respondents at this college frequently rated supervision-human resource and working conditions among the most satisfying indicators, a feature unique to this

college (cf. Table 4.4). Moreover, the results reveal that some job aspects referred to as the most satisfying at other colleges are ranked low at this college, for example, the relationship with colleagues is ranked first at some colleges (cf. Table 4.6) while it is 15th for this college (cf. Table 4.4). However, it is also clear that the respondents at this college are satisfied with all the indicators considered, with the exception of job security, compensation and advancement in the job (cf. Table 4.4).

Based on the results of this college, one may argue that much as satisfaction with one job aspect does not necessarily guarantee satisfaction with the job, some job aspects can have a direct or indirect influence on others. For example, satisfaction with working conditions and supervision-human relations (unique to this college) can affect the smoothness with which processes and activities are run (cf. 2.5). Working conditions at this college could be providing a favourable learning-teaching environment which other colleges seem to lack, a factor which can determine the culture of learning significantly. In addition, the supervision-human relations were indicative of sound and effective leadership and management (cf. 2.5.3).

5.1.3 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction according to gender

5.1.3.1 Male respondents are more satisfied than their female colleagues

Although the results indicate that both male and female respondents are satisfied with their job, male respondents are more satisfied (65,53%) than the female respondents, 63,78% (cf. Table 4.12). The difference could be small but indicative of a factor or factors impacting more on female than male staff members, thus it is worth noting.

5.1.3.2 Both male and female respondents frequently rated the same indicators of job satisfaction as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The majority of respondents in both sub-groups frequently rated the following indicators as the most satisfying aspects of the job: social service, independence, moral values, colleagues, activity and responsibility (cf. Table 4.13 and 4.14).

However, the ranking for male respondents differs from that of the female respondents, indicating the difference in the importance attached to each factor by the individual sub-group. For example, male respondents rank moral values higher than independence, while female respondents rank independence higher than moral values.

5.1.3.3 Both male and female respondents frequently rated the same indicators of job satisfaction as the most dissatisfying aspects of the job

The responses indicate that both male and female respondents are dissatisfied with the same indicators although they ranked them differently (cf. Table 4.13 and 4.14). For both groups, the most dissatisfying aspects of the job are in agreement with the view of the target population (cf. Table 4.1). These include compensation, departmental policies and practices, security, working conditions, advancement and recognition.

5.1.4 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction according to post level held

5.1.4.1 The post level held by respondents influence their level of job satisfaction

The results reveal that the higher the post held by the respondent, the higher the level of job satisfaction (see 3.2.2). Rectors holding the highest posts are the most satisfied (72,20%) with their job, while the lecturers (63,57%) are least satisfied (cf. Table 4.15). When comparing the two groups, one notes that rectors are better paid, have relatively good working conditions and make fuller use of their abilities. Moreover, they have more power to change whatever they are not satisfied with from the management side (cf. 2.5.3 and 3.2.6).

5.1.4.2 Senior staff are more satisfied with their jobs than junior staff members

The senior staff members are the rectors, vice-rectors and heads of departments. The level of job satisfaction for these sub-groups is higher than that of the target population. The junior staff members, lecturers, on the other hand, are less satisfied.

Their level of satisfaction is 1,16% lower than that of the target population and even much lower than the levels of the senior staff members (cf. Table 4.15).

5.1.4.3 The job satisfaction of lecturers as a group is slightly lower than the overall level of job satisfaction of the target population

The level of job satisfaction of lecturers is 1,16% lower than the level of the target population. Although this difference is small, it indicates that special attention is required to improve the level of satisfaction of lecturers as compared with the senior staff member sub-groups (cf. Table 4.15).

5.1.4.4 The majority of post level sub-groups agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The results reveal that the majority of the respondents as per sub-group are mainly satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of the job. The rectors are mainly satisfied with having the chance to do things for other people, things that make use of their abilities, their chance to try their own methods of doing the job, tell other people what to do and being able to keep busy all the time (cf. Table 4.16). In addition, the heads of departments are satisfied with having freedom to use their judgement and the feeling of accomplishment they get from the job (cf. Table 4.18). The lecturers, on the other hand, are not as happy with making use of their abilities, telling other people what to do or using their judgement and they do not have a feeling of accomplishment. Rather, they rank their relationship with colleagues higher than both rectors and heads of departments (cf. Table 4.19).

The vice-rectors rank their relationship with colleagues even higher than the lecturers do. Moreover, they rank supervision-human resource higher than the rest of the sub-groups (cf. Table 4. 17). This comes from extrinsic aspects of the job, a feature unique to this sub-group, since rectors, heads of departments and lecturers are mainly satisfied with indicators of intrinsic origin.

5.1.4.5 The majority of post level sub-groups agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

All the respondents in this group seem to agree that the sources of dissatisfaction are related to compensation, working conditions, the way departmental policies are put into practice, their advancement in the job and security of employment provided by their job (cf. Table 4.15 to 4.18). These indicators come largely from the extrinsic aspects of the job and include Herzberg's hygiene factors (cf. 2.3.2.1 (b)).

5.1.5 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction according to age groups

5.1.5.1 The level of job satisfaction is influenced by the age of respondents

The responses reveal that although respondents of all age groups are generally satisfied with the job, the level of job satisfaction tends to increase with the age of the respondents (cf. Table 4.20). The respondents older than 60 years form the most satisfied group, 73,85%, while those between the age of 31 and 40 are the least satisfied (cf. Table 4.20).

5.1.5.2 The level of job satisfaction of the age group 31 to 40 years is below the overall level of the target group

Of all the age groups, it is the only one with the level of job satisfaction below the overall level of the target population (2,95% lower). This difference is both negative and significant. When compared with the group of respondents older than 60 years, the group with the highest job satisfaction level, respondents aged 31 to 40, are 12,07% lower. Therefore a great deal of attention has to be given to ways and means of improving the level of job satisfaction of this group.

5.1.5.3 The majority of the age sub-groups agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The results reveal that the respondents agree on the importance of their social service and moral values as sources of satisfaction across the sub-groups (cf. Table 4.21 to 4.25). However, respondents aged between 30 and 50 years are satisfied with having the chance to work alone on the job, which respondents over 60 years old rated very low. The sub-groups 31 to 40 years and 41 to 50 years old are also satisfied with their relationship with their colleagues, while the respondents aged over 60 years (cf. Table 4.25) rank the relationship with colleagues even higher.

5.1.5.4 The majority of the age sub-groups agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

From the results, it is worth noting that the respondents aged 30 years and younger are dissatisfied with their job security, compensation and departmental policies and practices (cf. Table 4.21). In addition to that, respondents aged 31 to 40, 41 to 50 years and 51 to 60 years are unhappy with the chances they have for advancement in the job. However, respondents aged over 60 years are satisfied with all the indicators considered but one, departmental policies and the way they are put into practice (cf. Table 4.25).

5.1.6 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction of groups according to teaching experience of respondents

5.1.6.1 The level of job satisfaction tends to increase with the number of years of teaching experience of respondents

The responses reveal an increase in job satisfaction which corresponds to the increase of teaching experience of respondents (cf. Table 4.26). Deviations from the overall level of job satisfaction for the target group (64,73%) range from -2,74% for respondents with 11 to 20 years to 9,27% for those with 31 to 40 years' experience. Respondents with 10 years or less teaching experience indicated a level of job

satisfaction higher than that of the sub-group 31 to 40 years. One may argue that this group includes respondents who hardly have enough experience to complain about anything (3.2.1.2). For example, they may blame a lack of professional advancement on the fact that they have just joined the college. When advancement opportunities do not seem possible with time, then they will naturally start feeling unhappy and dissatisfied.

5.1.6.2 There is a big difference between the levels of job satisfaction of different sub-groups according to teaching experience

The level of satisfaction of the sub-group with the lowest job satisfaction (11 to 20 years of teaching experience) is 2,74% lower than that of the target group. Compared with the sub-group with the highest level of job satisfaction (the sub-group with 31 to 40 years teaching experience), this sub-group is 12,01% lower. Therefore efforts made to improve the level of job satisfaction for the entire population should include addressing those factors contributing to the increase of job satisfaction with years of experience. That is, efforts should first aim at improving satisfaction with each job aspect at the individual colleges to balance out the existing inter-colleges differences even before improving the overall level further.

5.1.6.3 The majority of the sub-groups according to teaching experience agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The results reveal that the chance respondents have to try their own methods of teaching together with other intrinsic aspects of the job, is associated with high satisfaction in all the sub-groups. Of those indicators rated as the main source of satisfaction, independence and the relationship with colleagues tend to decrease with increasing years of teaching experience (cf. Tables 4.27 to 4.30).

5.1.6.4 The majority of the sub-groups according to teaching experience agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

The responses reveal that across the sub-groups, the respondents seem to agree on the importance of certain job aspects. These include compensation, their advancement on the job, departmental policies and the way they are put into practice, their security in the job and working conditions as the main sources of dissatisfaction (cf. Tables 4.27 to 4.30). Most of these satisfaction indicators come from the extrinsic aspects of the job as suggested by Herzberg (2.3.2.1 (b)).

5.1.7 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction of groups according to the professional qualifications of respondents

5.1.7.1 The level of job satisfaction is influenced by the professional qualifications of the respondents

The level of job satisfaction according to the professional qualifications of respondents ranges from -4,36% for the B.Ed. group to 6,74%, for the group with a doctorate in education (cf. Table 4.31). The range provides significant argument in favour of this deduction. In between these two fall respondents with a further or second diploma (1,61%) and M.Ed. (0,79%) as their highest professional qualification. The sub-group with other professional qualifications cannot be judged against other sub-groups since it is bound to differ from them by virtue of not having a teaching qualification. On the other hand, the overall level of job satisfaction of respondents with a teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification is equal to that of the target population (cf. Table 4.31).

5.1.7.2 The majority of the sub-groups according to professional qualification agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

The sub-groups according to professional qualifications agree on some indicators of job satisfaction as the most satisfying job aspects (cf. Table 4.32 to 4.38). Social service and relationship with colleagues are among these for all the sub-groups except for respondents with an M.Ed. degree as the highest professional qualification. Independence and moral values are also frequent although the sub-group with a doctorate in education ranked independence much lower than any other sub-group. This sub-group also ranked working conditions and social status higher than the rest of the sub-groups.

5.1.7.3 The majority of the sub-groups according to professional qualifications agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

All the sub-groups agree that compensation, advancement, departmental policies and practices, and job security are the main sources of dissatisfaction (cf. Tables 4.32 to 4.38). With the exception of the sub-group with a doctorate in education as the highest professional qualification (see 5.1.7.3), all the sub-groups included working conditions among the least satisfying indicators of job satisfaction. The former sub-group included ability utilisation instead (cf. Table 4.37).

5.1.8 Findings and conclusions regarding the level of job satisfaction of groups according to the academic qualifications of respondents

5.1.8.1 The level of job satisfaction varies according to academic qualifications of respondents

The level of job satisfaction for the sub-groups according to the highest academic qualification varies in no particular order. It ranges from 59,50% to 65,68% (cf. Table 4.39). The level of job satisfaction for the sub-group with other academic

qualifications is 5,23% lower than the level for the target population and it constitutes the lowest. The level of job satisfaction of the sub-group with a bachelor's degree as the highest academic qualification is the highest, 65,68%. According to the means, there is a big difference between the level of satisfaction with the job aspects of respondents with other highest academic qualifications than education.

5.1.8.2 The level of job satisfaction of four of the six sub-groups according to highest academic qualification is lower than the overall level of the target group

The level of job satisfaction for most of the sub-groups is lower than the level for the target population (cf. Table 4.39). The sub-group with other academic qualifications is 5,23% lower than the level of the target population and the lowest of all the sub-groups. The sub-group with a bachelor's degree as the highest academic qualification is 0,95% while that with an honours degree is 0,20% above the level of the target group. On the other hand, respondents with a bachelor's degree are the sub-group with the highest job satisfaction level.

5.1.8.3 The majority of the sub-groups according to the highest academic qualification agree to a large extent on some indicators of job satisfaction rated as the most satisfying aspects of the job

Respondents of these groups agree that social service, moral values, independence and colleagues are the most satisfying indicators of job satisfaction, although the sub-groups also differ. Examples of these are the following: the sub-groups with their highest academic qualification as an honours and a master's degree ranked colleagues lower than the rest of the sub-groups. Staff members with matric and an honours degree as the highest academic qualification ranked ability utilisation as a job satisfaction indicator. Those with the highest academic qualification a bachelor's and master's degree were also satisfied with activity. The sub-group with a doctorate as the highest academic qualification ranked activity first followed by authority. The sub-group with other academic qualification was satisfied with recognition, which the sub-group with a master's degree ranked first (cf. Tables 4.40 to 4.45).

5.1.8.4 The majority of the sub-groups according to the highest academic qualification agree to a large extent on the indicators of job satisfaction rated as the least satisfying aspects of the job

Although the order differs, most respondents in all the sub-groups according to the highest academic qualification seem to agree on the least satisfying aspects of the job. These include compensation, advancement in the job, working conditions, security with the job and departmental policies and the way they are put into practice (cf. Table 4.40 to 4.45). The respondents with a doctorate as their highest academic qualification ranked working conditions higher than the other sub-groups. On the other hand, they were least satisfied with supervision-human resource (cf. Table 4.44).

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE CURRENT LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION

5.2.1 Introduction

To improve the current level of job satisfaction, the needs of the individual sub-groups of academic staff should be identified and fulfilled. Based on the findings of this survey, the following were identified as the main sources of dissatisfaction across the sub-groups:

- Compensation;
- Departmental policies and practices;
- Advancement;
- Working conditions;
- Job security.

Much as these job satisfaction indicators were identified as the least satisfying aspects of the job, respondents from the different sub-groups rated them differently. Moreover, their contribution towards the overall level of job satisfaction per college

varies. For example, compensation contributed 52,42% at college 1 (cf. Table 4.4) while it contributed 39,66% at college 4 (cf. Table 4.7).

Furthermore, these job satisfaction indicators signify the needs of the respondents and the extent to which these needs are not met by the individual colleges. Findings of this nature should be communicated to the colleges to make college leaders as well as the Department of Education aware of the expectations of the academic staff members. Each institution can then attempt fulfilling these expectations. Moreover, the Department of Education should also attempt to assist college management in directing the efforts towards the fulfilment of these needs. The behaviour of the academic staff members should be directed and strengthened constructively towards improving the culture of learning and teaching at the colleges of education (cf. 2.2.1).

All 20 job satisfaction indicators of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire used in this survey were judged to be at least moderately important for the academic staff members' overall feeling of satisfaction (cf. 2.4). Therefore, the least satisfying job satisfaction indicators should be improved to at least the level of the most satisfying or the overall level of job satisfaction for the target population. In this regard, the following specific recommendations can be made:

5.2.2 Recommendations regarding compensation of educators at the colleges of education

Researchers seem to agree that workers tend to behave constructively when this behaviour guarantees a valuable reward (cf. 3.2.9). Receiving a valued reward in turn becomes a motivator and a source of satisfaction (cf. 2.3.1 and 2.4). On the other hand, dissatisfaction is an indication that the academic staff members perceive their compensation as lower than those offered by other professional organisations of the same type as the college (cf. 2.4). The following recommendations to improve the compensation of educators at the colleges of education can therefore be made:

- The reward system in place at the colleges should be competitive with other professional sectors. This implies that the Department of Education should evaluate and adjust the current reward system (cf. 2.3.3 and 2.4).

- The adjustments to the current reward system should attempt to strike a balance between reward and performance. Hardworking educators should be identified and rewarded to recognise their good performance (cf. 2.3.3). In this regard also refer to recommendations under 5.2.4.
- The hardworking educators should be given preference in any departmental empowerment strategies and opportunities for professional advancement such as in awarding study bursaries.
- The review of the reward system must take into account the financial and fiscal realities of the country (cf. 2.5.4). Therefore non-monetary rewards should be attended to. These may include:
 - Prompt positive feedback as a means of recognising the individual staff member's contribution.
 - Effective communication and participation especially in formulating didactic and educational policies (cf. 5.2.3).
 - Providing adequate information regarding changes that may affect the staff
 - Providing support when it is needed.
 - Creating an atmosphere that the staff would enjoy working in.
- There should be frequent meetings at which all stakeholders, especially academic staff representations and their unions, can present their needs and concerns regarding their dissatisfaction with any job aspect. Even if money hinders changes such as improving the remuneration package, the staff should feel respected by the Department of Education through its efforts to negotiate within the means possible.

5.2.3 Recommendations regarding departmental policies and practices that affect educators at the colleges of education (cf. 2.3.2)

- The staff should be involved in the formulation of the departmental policies that affect them as well as the way these are put into practice (cf. 2.3.2.1). Participation in decision-making ensures that:
 - Individual staff members feel important enough to be involved by the department in bringing about changes that affect them.

- They accept ownership and feel responsible for the departmental policies and are therefore more likely to put them into practice and protect them.
 - Their self-respect will be boosted by the fact that they feel responsible for these policies.
 - They will be involved and thus recognised for their contribution.
 - This can give an element of achievement and high status to those who contribute.
 - Their abilities will be utilised and they will have the opportunity to be creative in putting these policies into practice.
 - They perceive the changes brought about by the proposed policies as having the potential to improve their work.
- Management at all levels should provide adequate information regarding the educational policies and practices in good time and ensure that these are effectively communicated through follow-up procedures (cf. 2.5.3.2). These procedures may include using shorter communication channels and involving fewer individuals in evaluating the success of communication strategies employed.

5.2.4 Recommendations regarding advancement of educators at the colleges of education (cf. 2.3.2)

- The staff should have adequate information on every opportunity there is in the Department of Education for advancement such as the availability of financial support and the criteria used for selection (2.3.2.1).
- The Department of Education must be fully responsible for the career pathing of all educators, especially the high performers (cf. 3.2.9).
- Advancement of educators must be based on performance as established by an objective appraisal system (cf. 2.3.3).
- The existing financial recognition (the bonus given by the department on recognition of professional advancement) should go hand in hand with duties and responsibilities that will recognise the advancement, such as delegating an

educator for a leadership role after completing a course in leadership. In this way he/she is more likely to feel somebody different (cf. 2.3.2).

- There must be staff evaluation by the Department to determine and identify areas which need to be developed to meet the demands and challenges of the ever-changing environment in which we live (cf. 2.3.2.1).
- The Department of Education should provide a continuous and active professional support to the staff to ensure their advancement in the job in terms of technology, new methods and procedures and discoveries of the day (cf. 2.3.2.1 (b)). This can be done through in-service training and other development opportunities for the staff. These development opportunities should address technical skills such as didactics skills, and human (life) skills such as communication skills, conflict resolution skills, time management skills, stress management skills and skills for managing change.

5.2.5 Recommendations regarding conditions under which educators work at the colleges of education (cf. 2.5)

- Educational leaders should be empowered with adequate skills to enable them to motivate and support their staff members, to create an environment of which every member feels part and enjoys working, to communicate information effectively to all staff members and control and monitor educational activities and staff performance (cf. 2.5.3).
- The Department of Education should hold meetings at the individual colleges to identify the specific source of dissatisfaction regarding working conditions to be given priority since some may be behavioural, for example leadership style; these are non-monetary and can be changed quickly (cf. 2.5).
- Frequent and regular meetings aimed at controlling and monitoring the organisational climate (cf. 2.5.3.1) must be held with staff representatives to try and maintain a balance in the general work environment of the institutions.
- Other working conditions that must be improved may include (cf.2.5.4):
 - Improving buildings and furniture.
 - Improving water, lights and telephone facilities.
 - Supplying adequate study materials.

- Reducing the educator:student ratio in classes where classes are too big to manage.

5.2.6 Recommendations regarding job security of educators at the colleges of education (cf. 2.3.2.1)

- The Department of Education must ensure that the work of each academic staff member provides for steady employment by communicating adequately and effectively to them about their possible fate in relation to changes in the Department (cf. 2.5.3.2).
- Processes of change must not be dragged out. This leads to uncertainty, frustration and a feeling of insecurity (cf. 1.1). For example, the processes of rationalisation and transformation of the colleges of education to either higher or further education in the Free State are currently the main source of insecurity among employees at the colleges.
- Details of changes in process must be communicated to employees, especially those who will be affected by such changes either directly or indirectly. For example, the staff at the colleges of education is aware that the transformation process will result in retrenchment of some while others will have to relocate or retire early (cf. 1.1). But they are not clear about the criteria which will be used. It is therefore strongly recommended that the department should clarify the fate of each of these individuals (cf. 2.5.2).
- Further attention must be given to sources of insecurity in educators since this can affect motivation negatively and therefore reduce educator performance (cf. 2.3.2.1). Moreover insecurity may force educators to consider alternative jobs (cf. 3.2.1).

5.2.7 The current level of job satisfaction at the colleges of education should be further investigated

This study should serve as an initial report to develop our understanding that the academic staff at the colleges of education are experiencing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction from different aspects of the job. Furthermore, the differences observed

between the sub-groups are indicative of the complexity of job satisfaction and the individuality among lecturers, warning against the identical treatment which these educators or any workforce normally receive from their leaders. It is therefore recommended that the level of job satisfaction at the colleges should further be investigated to better identify the primary issues associated with the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of staff as well as isolating their causes and effects on the education process. Further investigation may include:

Employee absenteeism and turnover: Improving job satisfaction, especially job security, to reduce employee absenteeism and turnover (cf. 2.4.2, 3.2.1 and Table 4.26).

Career commitment: Addressing growing work related frustrations that educators experience to improve their career commitment (cf. 3.2.2).

Unionisation: Providing opportunities for educators to have an influence on their working conditions, changes that affect them and their expectations from the job, to prevent them from initiating interest in unions based on dissatisfaction mainly (cf. 3.2.3).

Counter-productive behaviour: Involving educators in decision-making to instill in them a feeling of ownership, acceptance and respect with the aim of reducing or preventing counter-productive behaviour (cf. 3.2.4).

Mental and physical well-being: Improving job satisfaction to ensure the personal well-being of educators (cf. 3.2.5).

Burnout: Reduce pressures that result in the burnout of educators (cf. 3.2.6).

Occupational level: Provide opportunities for the advancement of the individual educator so that he/she can advance to the next occupational level (cf. 3.2.7 and Table 4.15).

Life satisfaction: Improve satisfaction with the job to prevent educators from deriving satisfaction from other life aspects such as alcohol and drugs (cf. 3.2.8).

Productivity: Supporting hardworking educators to ensure good performance, productivity and student achievement (cf. 3.2.9 and 3.2.10).

5.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State province is influenced by various aspects of their job. Although this study does not claim to have identified all aspects of job satisfaction at these colleges, the results reveal that the level of job satisfaction varies per college and biographic groups considered, and that the staff is satisfied with some job aspects but dissatisfied with others. Moreover, these groups ranked and rated the indicators differently although they agreed to some extent on the most and least satisfying aspects of the job. It is also apparent that there are job aspects significantly affecting staff satisfaction at these colleges. These findings largely correspond to Herzberg's theory of motivation.

From the survey, it is apparent that efforts to improve compensation, departmental policies and practices, staff advancement, working conditions, job security and provision of extra-organisational involvement for the academic staff at the colleges may deserve more time and attention.

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Appendix A

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
CR Swart Building, 55 Elizabeth Street, Private Bag X20565, BLOEMFONTEIN, 9300
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS
CR Swart Building, Elizabethstraat 55, Privaatsak X20565, BLOEMFONTEIN, 9300
LEFAPHA LA THUTO
Moaho wa CR Swart, 55 Elizabeth Street, Private Bag X20565, BLOEMFONTEIN, 9300

Enquiries/Navrae/Botsa ho:
Ref./Verw./Tshupo

Mr W.B. van Rooyen/TM
0.1/11/3/3

Fax: (051) 407 4032
Tel: (051) 405 5304

29 May 1998
Prof. R.R. Brazelle
School of Education
Faculty of the Humanities
University of the Orange Free State
P.O. Box 339
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

Dear Prof. Brazelle

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1. Your request dated 28 May 1998 refers.
2. Research title applied for: **The job satisfaction of teachers in the Free State, Eastern Cape and Western Cape.**
3. Permission is granted to the following students under your supervision to conduct research in the Free State Department of Education. Mr N.S. Nkonka. Mr C.P. van der Vyver. Mrs G.M. Bohloko.
4. The following conditions are valid:
 - 4.1 The names of teachers must be provided by the principals.
 - 4.2 Teachers participate voluntarily in the project.
 - 4.3 The names of the schools and teachers involved remain confidential in all respects.
 - 4.4 Completion of questionnaires must take place outside normal tuition time of the school.
 - 4.5 This letter must be shown to all participating persons
 - 4.6 A report on this study must be donated to the Free State Department of Education after completion of the project where it will be accessed in the Education Library, Bloemfontein.
 - 4.7 You must address a letter to the Head: Education, for attention
W.B. van Rooyen
Room 1211
C.R. Swart Building
BLOEMFONTEIN
9301
accepting the conditions as laid down.
5. We wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely,


ACTING HEAD: EDUCATION

Ngolla ho: Hlooho ya Lefapha la Thuto. Gotsa nomoro ya tshupo
Rig korrespondensie aan: Die Hoof: Departement van Onderwys en meld verwysingsnommer
Address correspondence to: The Head: Department of Education and quote reference number



SKOOL VIR OPVOEDKUNDE VAN DIE
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF THE
FAKULTEIT GEESTESWETENSAPPE
FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES

☒ 339 BLOEMFONTEIN 9300
☒ (051) 4012293

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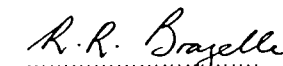
Navrae/Enquiries: Department Comparative Education and Education Management

1 June 1998

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RESEARCH PROJECT: THE CURRENT LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS IN THE FREE STATE

1. Your Department granted permission to our university to undertake the above research project. Please refer to the attached copy of the letter from the Free State Education Department.
2. The objective of the project is to establish the current level of job satisfaction of teachers in our province. The results of the survey may assist the Department to take remedial actions if and where required.
3. Your school is one of those selected at random to participate in the project. The questionnaire should be completed by all teachers, including principals, deputy principals and heads of department. You are therefore kindly requested to assist our researchers by completing both sections of the attached questionnaire.
4. The responses to the questions will be used for research purposes only. No individual or school will be identified and all information provided will be kept strictly confidential.
5. We regret that the questionnaire may not be in your home language. We had to use the original English version to ensure validity and reliability of the responses.
6. Thank you for your appreciated co-operation and assistance.


Prof R R Brazelle
PROJECT SUPERVISOR

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

Answer the following questions by circling the number corresponding to the appropriate answer

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------------------------------|---|
| 1. | Your gender | |
| 1.1 | Male | 1 |
| 1.2 | Female | 2 |
| 2. | Your current post level | |
| 2.1 | Rector | 1 |
| 2.2 | Vice-rector | 2 |
| 2.3 | Head of Department | 3 |
| 2.4 | Lecturer | 4 |
| 3. | Your present age | 1 |
| 3.1 | 30 years or younger | 2 |
| 3.2 | 31 to 40 years | 3 |
| 3.3 | 41 to 50 years | 4 |
| 3.4 | 51 to 60 years | 5 |
| 3.5 | Older than 60 years | 6 |
| 4. | Your total teaching experience in years | |
| 4.1 | 10 years or less | 1 |
| 4.2 | 11 to 20 years | 2 |
| 4.3 | 21 to 30 years | 3 |
| 4.4 | 31 to 40 years | 4 |
| 4.5 | More than 40 years | 5 |
| 5. | Your highest <u>professional</u> qualification | |
| 5.1 | Teachers Diploma (e.g. PTD; STD) | 1 |
| 5.2 | Further or second Diploma (e.g. FDE) | 2 |
| 5.3 | Integrated Degree (e.g. B.A.(Ed.);
B.Com(Ed.);B.Sc.(Ed.)) | 3 |
| 5.4 | B.Ed. Degree | 4 |
| 5.5 | M.Ed. Degree | 5 |
| 5.6 | Doctorate in Education | 6 |
| 5.7 | Other (Specify) | 7 |
| 6. | Your highest <u>academic</u> qualification | |
| 6.1 | Matric | 1 |
| 6.2 | Bachelors Degree (e.g. B.A.; B.Com.; B.Sc.) | 2 |
| 6.3 | Honours Degree | 3 |
| 6.4 | Masters Degree | 4 |
| 6.5 | Doctorate | 5 |
| 6.6 | Other (specify) | 6 |

SECTION B

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell how you feel about your present job, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with.

On this basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of things people like and dislike about their jobs.

On the following pages you will find statements about your present job.

- Read each statement carefully
- Decide how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by the statement.

Keeping the statement in mind:

- if you feel that your job gives you more than you expected, mark the box under "Very Sat." (Very satisfied) with an X
 - if you feel that your job gives you what you expected, mark the box under "Sat." (Satisfied) with an X
 - if you cannot make up your mind whether or not the job gives you what you expected, mark the box under "N" (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied) with an X
 - if you feel that your job gives you less than you expected, mark the box under "Dissat." (Dissatisfied) with an X
 - if you feel that your job gives you much less than you expected, mark the box under "very Dissat." (Very Dissatisfied) with an X.
- Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job.
 - Do this for all statements. Please answer every item.

Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your present job.

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat, means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat, means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat, Means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat, Means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

	On my present job, this is how I feel about	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat
1.	The chance to be of service to others.					
2.	The chance to try out some of my own ideas.					
3.	Being able to do the job without feeling it is morally wrong.					
4.	The chance to work by myself.					
5.	The variety in my work.					
6.	The chance to have other people look to me for direction.					
7.	The chance to do the kind of work that I do best.					
8.	The social position in the community that goes with the job.					
9.	The policies and practices towards employees of this department.					
10.	The way my supervisor and I understand each other.					
11.	My job security.					
12.	The amount of pay for the work I do.					
13.	The working conditions (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) on this job.					
14.	The opportunities for advancements on this job.					
15.	The technical "know-how" of my supervisor.					
16.	The spirit of cooperation among my colleagues.					
17.	The chance to be responsible for planning my work.					
18.	The way I am noticed when I do a good job.					
19.	Being able to see the results of the work I do.					
20.	The chance to be active much of the time.					
21.	The chance to be of service to people.					
22.	The chance to do new original things on my own.					
23.	Being able to do things that don't go against my religious beliefs.					
24.	The chance to work alone on the job.					
25.	The chance to do different things from time to time.					
26.	The chance to tell other people how to do things.					
27.	The chance to do work that is well suited to my abilities.					
28.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community.					
29.	Departmental policies and the way in which they are administered.					
30.	The way my boss handles his/her staff.					
31.	The way my job provides for a secure future.					
32.	The chance to make as much money as my friends.					
33.	The physical surroundings where I work.					
34.	The chance of getting ahead on this job.					

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat, means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat, means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat, Means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat, Means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

	On my present job, this is how I feel about	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat
35.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.					
36.	The chance to develop close friendship with my colleagues.					
37.	The chance to make decisions on my own.					
38.	The way I get full credit for the work I do.					
39.	Being able to take pride in a job well done.					
40.	Being able to do something much of the time.					
41.	The chance to help people.					
42.	The chance to try something different.					
43.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.					
44.	The chance to be alone on the job.					
45.	The routine in my work.					
46.	The chance to supervise other people.					
47.	The chance to make use of my best abilities.					
48.	The chance to "rub elbows" with important people.					
49.	The way employees are informed about departmental policies.					
50.	The way my boss backs up his/her staff (with the department).					
51.	The way my job provides for steady employment.					
52.	How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies.					
53.	The pleasantness of the working conditions.					
54.	The way promotions are given out on this job.					
55.	The way my boss delegates work to others.					
56.	The friendliness of my colleagues.					
57.	The chance to be responsible for the work of others.					
58.	The recognition I get for the work I do.					
59.	Being able to do something worthwhile.					
60.	Being able to stay busy.					
61.	The chance to do things for other people.					
62.	The chance to develop new and better ways to do the job.					
63.	The chance to do things that don't harm other people.					
64.	The chance to work independently of others.					
65.	The chance to do something different every day.					
66.	The chance to tell people what to do.					
67.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.					
68.	The chance to be important in the eyes of others.					

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat, means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat, means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat, Means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat, Means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

	On my present job, this is how I feel about	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat
69.	The way the departmental policies are put into practice.					
70.	The way my boss takes care of the complaints of his/her staff.					
71.	How steady my job is.					
72.	My pay and the amount of work I do.					
73.	The physical working conditions of my job.					
74.	The chance for advancement on this job.					
75.	The way my boss provides help on hard problems.					
76.	The way my colleagues are easy to make friends with.					
77.	The freedom to use my own judgement.					
78.	The way they usually tell me when I do my job well.					
79.	The chance to do my best at all times.					
80.	The chance to be "on the go" all the time.					
81.	The chance to be of some small service to other people.					
82.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.					
83.	The chance to do the job without feeling I am cheating anyone.					
84.	The chance to work away from others.					
85.	The chance to do many different things on the job.					
86.	The chance to tell others what to do.					
87.	The chance to make use of my abilities and skills.					
88.	The chance to have a definite place in the community.					
89.	The way the department treats its employees.					
90.	The personal relationship between my boss and his/her staffs.					
91.	The way layoffs and transfers are avoided in my job.					
92.	How my pay compares with that of other workers.					
93.	The working conditions.					
94.	My chances for advancements.					
95.	The way my boss trains his/her staff.					
96.	The way my colleagues get along with each other.					
97.	The responsibility of my job.					
98.	The praise I get for doing a good job.					
99.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.					
100	Being able to keep busy all the time.					

Thank you for your assistance!

Summary

Since its democratisation in 1994, South Africa continues to transform to address its historic inequalities and meet national and global opportunities and challenges. The transformation process includes the education system.

Educator job satisfaction and student training are legitimate school goals. Educator job satisfaction is based on the need fulfilment and professional and personal growth of the academic staff. Student training, on the other hand, is based on providing for students' needs, growth and development. These goals require particular attention of the educational leaders in order to motivate both educators and students to achieve high performance levels. However, the motivation of educators requires their satisfaction with the job. This study focuses on the level of job satisfaction of the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State.

The concept of job satisfaction involves both the people doing the job and the job itself. Generally job satisfaction is associated with personal feelings about job aspects and the affective response to facets of the work situation. These are likely to result from motivation which is in turn determined by a perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return, and what is experienced in relation to alternatives in a given situation. Job satisfaction and motivation are interrelated concepts. Behavioural scientists approach job satisfaction through motivation theories. These theories focus on human needs and how they can be satisfied at the workplace. Working then brings about satisfaction if it helps fulfil these needs.

The discrepancy, equity and expectancy approaches have been considered. The discrepancy theories identify workers' needs that are likely to influence their satisfaction with the job. Workers are then motivated to work depending on the extent to which the job allows the fulfilment of the individual worker's needs. Equity theories focus on how satisfaction is determined by one's perception about the relation between work input and

output. The expectancy theories focus on job outcomes, taking into account individual differences to accommodate individual preferences. All these theories agree that a job aspect can be either a satisfier or a dissatisfier, depending on how it is perceived by the individual worker.

For this study the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was used as an instrument for gathering information. Synthesising motivational theories and job satisfaction indicates that factors of these theories correlate with the indicators of job satisfaction of this questionnaire. Therefore, the questionnaire can be used to predict satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace such as the colleges of education. The implications of the motivational theories require the attention of the educational leaders. Human needs have to be identified in each work situation, as well as how they can best be satisfied. Other factors that influence job satisfaction include locus of control, role tensions and leadership style. An understanding of these factors is necessary to reduce conflicts, understand attitudes of workers towards work and provide favourable working conditions. Certain indicators of job satisfaction in the teaching profession have to be considered to address the current situation at the colleges of education.

Chapter 3 deals with the consequences of job satisfaction and determines the impact of each on the level of job satisfaction. Although some direct relationships are still not very clear, research done provides evidence of some kind of relation. It is therefore necessary to bring these work variables as a means of addressing satisfaction of workers to the attention of educational leaders.

In chapter 4 the results of the empirical research regarding the overall level of job satisfaction in the target population, per college and per biographic group, are reported. The satisfaction indicators were ranked according to their contribution towards the overall levels. The levels and ranking of the indicators vary but there was agreement to some extent on the most and least satisfying aspects of the job. Recommendations for improving the least satisfying job aspects among the academic staff at the colleges of education in the Free State are provided.

Opsomming

Sedert die demokratisering van Suid-Afrika in 1994, is daar voortgegaan met transformasie om die historiese ongelykhede aan te pak en nasionale en globale geleenthede en uitdagings te baat te neem. Die transformasieproses sluit ook die onderwysstelsel in.

Die werksbevreëdiging van opvoeders en die onderrig van studente is legitieme doelwitte van die kollege. Opvoederwerksbevreëdiging is gebaseer op die vervulling van behoeftes sowel as die professionele en persoonlike groei van die akademiese personeel. Studente-onderrig, aan die ander kant, is gebaseer op die voorsiening vir studente se behoeftes, groei en ontwikkeling. Hierdie doelwitte verg spesiale aandag van onderwysleiers ten einde beide opvoeders en studente tot hoë vlakke van prestasie te motiveer. Die motivering van opvoeders vereis egter dat hulle bevreëdiging uit hulle werk put. Hierdie studie handel oor die vlak van werksbevreëdiging by die akademiese personeel van onderwyskolleges in die Vrystaat.

Die begrip werksbevreëdiging sluit beide die persoon wat die werk doen en die werk self in. Werksbevreëdiging word gewoonlik geassosieer met persoonlike gevoelens omtrent aspekte van die werk en die affektiewe respons op fasette van die werksituasie. Dit is 'n waarskynlike resultaat van motivering, wat op sy beurt bepaal word deur die waargenome verskil tussen wat verwag word as 'n billike en redelike voordeel en wat ervaar word in verband met alternatiewe in 'n gegewe situasie. Werksbevreëdiging en motivering is verweefde konsepte. Gedragwetenskaplikes benader werksbevreëdiging by wyse van motiveringsteorieë. Hierdie teorieë fokus op menslike behoeftes en hoe dit by die werk bevreëdig kan word. Werk bring dan tevredenheid mee as dit help om hierdie behoeftes te vervul.

Die diskrepansie-, gelykheid- en verwagtingsteorie is in die studie ondersoek. Die

diskrepansteorieë identifiseer die behoeftes van werkers wat waarskynlik hulle tevredenheid met die werk sal beïnvloed. Die werkers is dan gemotiveer om te werk afhangend van die mate waarin die werk die behoeftes van die individuele werker kan vervul. Die gelykheidsteorieë fokus op die wyse waarop werksbevrediging bepaal word deur die werker se persepsie van die verband tussen werksinset en -uitset. Die verwagtingsteorie fokus op die resultate van die werk, en neem die individuele verskille in ag om individuele voorkeure te akkommodeer. Al hierdie teorieë stem saam dat 'n werksaspek óf tot werksbevrediging kan lei, óf nie, afhangend van hoe dit deur die individuele werker beleef word.

In hierdie studie is die Minnesota Werksbevredigingsvraelys gebruik as instrument om inligting in te samel. 'n Sintese van motiveringsteorieë en werksbevrediging toon aan dat die faktore van hierdie teorieë korreleer met die indikatore van werksbevrediging in dié vraelys.

Die vraelys kan derhalwe gebruik word om tevredenheid of ontevredenheid met die werk te voorspel, soos by 'n onderwyskollege. Die implikasies van die motiveringsteorieë verg die aandag van onderwysleiers. Menslike behoeftes moet in elke werksituasie geïdentifiseer word, sowel as die wyse waarop hulle ten beste vervul kan word. Ander faktore wat werksbevrediging beïnvloed, sluit in lokus van kontrole, rolspanning en leierskapstyl. Hierdie faktore moet verstaan word ten einde konflik te verminder, die houding van werkers tot hulle werk te verstaan en gunstige werkstoestande te skep. Bepaalde indikatore van werksbevrediging wat in die onderwys profesie geïdentifiseer is, verdien aandag ten einde die huidige situasie by onderwyskolleges te verbeter.

Hoofstuk 3 handel oor die gevolge van werksbevrediging en bepaal die impak van elk op die vlak van werksbevrediging. Hoewel sekere direkte verbande nog nie duidelik is nie, dui die navorsing wat gedoen is, op 'n verband van die een of ander aard. Dit is derhalwe nodig om hierdie werksveranderlikes onder die aandag van onderwysleiers te bring as 'n middel om die werksbevrediging onder werkers te verhoog.

In hoofstuk 4 word die resultate van die empiriese navorsing aangaande die oorhoofse vlak van werksbevrediging onder die teikenpopulasie, per kollege en per biografiese groep, weergegee. Die indikatore van werksbevrediging is gerangskik volgens hulle bydrae tot die oorhoofse vlakke. Die vlakke en rangorde van die indikatore wissel, maar tot 'n sekere mate is daar ooreenstemming oor die werksaspekte wat die meeste en die minste bevrediging bied. Aanbevelings word gemaak met die oog op die verbetering van die aspekte met die laagste werksbevrediging onder die akademiese personeel van onderwyskolleges in die Vrystaat.

Key words

1. Job satisfaction
2. Job satisfaction indicators
3. Approaches to job satisfaction
4. Consequences of job satisfaction
5. Theories of motivation
6. Motivation and job satisfaction
7. Free State education
8. Colleges of education
9. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
10. Implications of job satisfaction
11. Improving the level of job satisfaction