

Educators' motivation: differences related to gender, age and experience

First submission: June 2002

This article explores factors influencing the motivation of educators in terms of gender, age and years of experience. A questionnaire was adapted from Wright's 51 incentives that motivate educators and administered by students enrolled for a Master's degree programme in Human Resource Management to 10 randomly selected colleagues. Analysis of the 1 181 questionnaires revealed the following findings. Primarily, male and female educators are motivated by the same factors. However, educators of diverse age groups and years of experience differ in terms of what they experience as motivational. Younger educators need to have their confidence boosted, while older and more experienced educators are motivated by positive relations with peers, recognition, power and authority, professional growth and an explicit role definition.

Opvoeders se motivering: verskille wat verband hou met geslag, ouderdom en ervaring

Hierdie artikel ondersoek faktore wat 'n invloed uitoefen op die motivering van opvoeders van verskillende geslagte, ouderdomme en ervaringstydperke. 'n Vraelys is aangepas uit Wright se lys van 51 motiveerders. Studente in 'n magisterprogram in Menslike Hulpbronsbestuur is versoek om die vraelys te laat invul deur 10 ewekansig geselekteerde kollegas. 'n Analise van die 1 181 voltooide vraelyste het tot die volgende gevolgtrekkings gelei: manlike en vroulike opvoeders word grotendeels deur dieselfde faktore gemotiveer; opvoeders van diverse ouderdomsgroepe en ervaringstydperke word egter deur verskillende faktore gemotiveer. Jonger opvoeders wil hul selfvertroue versterk hê, terwyl ouer en meer ervare opvoeders gemotiveer word deur positiewe verhoudings met hul kollegas, asook deur erkenning, mag en outoriteit, professionele groei en 'n eksplisiete roldefinisie.

The motivation of educators has a significant impact on learning since educators determine the learning experiences that occur in schools (Rowley 1996: 11; Yong 1999: 1). Accordingly, Rowley (1996: 11) regards motivation as the key to the establishment and further development of quality education. Nemangwele (1999), investigating the role of motivation among black secondary school learners in South Africa, concludes that without motivated educators, learners cannot learn optimally. Atkinson (2000: 46) confirms the significant, positive relationship between educator motivation and learner motivation. This can be understood in the light of behavioural differences between educators who are motivated and those who are not. Motivated educators perform consistently well; deliver good results; co-operate in dealing with problems, and are willing to accept responsibility and accommodate change. In contrast, educators who are demotivated often display signs of apathy and indifference to their work; keep poor records; have high levels of absenteeism; do not cooperate in dealing with problems, and exaggerate the difficulties they encounter (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994: 64).

Although Holman (Pace 1998: 9) found that educators in Gauteng are highly motivated, dedicated and, for the most part, doing a good job, media attention in South Africa has increasingly focused attention on poor learner performance, possibly caused by an inferior quality of education and lack of motivation in educators. In this regard, Kader Asmal, the Minister of Education, has stated that educator motivation in all communities is low (Department of Education 1999: 3).

Recent factors which may have contributed to the demotivation of educators in South Africa include the tremendous changes experienced in the education system since 1994. Examples of change include the integration of schools with regard to language and cultural groups; the rationalisation of the education system, with the accompanying redeployment of educators; the implementation of outcomes-based education, and a lengthened school day for educators (Wevers 2000: 5). In addition, the Department of Education (1999: 3) identifies the following demotivators: the vulnerability of learners and educators in schools with regard to trespassing, vandalism, the carrying and use of weapons, drug-dealing, rape and other physical offences; undisciplined principals, educators and learners, and subtle forms of

demoralisation if educators are not professionally equipped or resourced to cope with the new demands being made on them. An earlier study on educator motivation found that the climate in Sowetan schools, influenced by urbanisation, socio-economic status, crime, politics and learners' indifference to their studies, was the primary cause of lack of motivation among educators (Smith & Van Zyl 1991: 27).

In light of the above, this article explores factors influencing the motivation of educators in an attempt to answer the following research question: what motivates educators of different genders, age groups and levels of experience? These variables were considered important since previous South African studies on the motivation of educators had already considered female educators and beginner educators as well as samples of educators from diverse geographical areas and from primary schools (as indicated in sections 3 and 4).

Thus the purpose of this article is threefold: to review the literature (to define motivation, recapitulate some theories on motivation and summarise significant research findings on the motivation of educators, especially in South Africa); to explain the research design and disseminate the results of an empirical investigation into the factors that motivate educators of diverse genders, ages and years of experience, and to make recommendations on improving the motivation of educators.

1. What is motivation?

A greater understanding of the needs of educators will improve attempts to motivate them. Needs are also known as motives, because they are able to move or motivate people to act (Drafke & Kossen 1998: 273). Most definitions of motivation include three components: energising human behaviour, directing behaviour by creating a goal orientation for the worker, and maintaining and supporting behaviour (Reeve 1996: 2; Schermerhorn *et al* 1997: 87). Motivation therefore refers to the complex forces and needs which energise and sustain human behaviour in carrying out a particular action (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994: 64; Drafke & Kossen 1998: 273; Wevers 2000: 10).

The cognitive model of Thomas & Velthouse, as explained by Davis & Wilson (2000: 350), is relevant here. It involves four factors:

impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice. Impact refers to the degree to which a person's behaviour is perceived as producing the intended effects in the task environment. Competence is the degree to which people believe they can perform a task skilfully if they try. Meaningfulness includes the values of the task goal as judged against the individual's own standards. When people experience a low degree of meaningfulness, they feel apathetic and detached. Higher degrees of meaningfulness make people feel more committed and able to concentrate on their tasks. Choice refers to intentionally selecting actions that will lead to desired outcomes. More choice produces greater flexibility, initiative, creativity and resilience whereas less choice leads to feelings of tension, more negative emotions and lower self-esteem.

2. Theories on motivation

Theories of motivation were devised in an attempt to explain the behaviour of employees (Drafke & Kossen 1998: 273). Motivation theories can be divided into two categories: content theories and cognitive or process theories (Rowley 1996: 12; Schermerhorn *et al* 1997: 87; Wevers 2000: 22; McKenna 2000: 92, 101). Content theories attempt to identify factors within individuals and their environments that energise and sustain behaviour, while cognitive or process theories attempt to explain how environmental factors are moderated by personality factors and psychological states to energise and sustain behaviour as well as how they stop behaviour (Barnabé & Burns 1994: 171; McKenna 2000: 101). Content theories include, *inter alia*, Maslow's theory on the hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory. Examples of process theories include the operant learning theory and Adam's equity theory (McKenna 2000: 101).

Maslow (1954: 35-47) distinguished a number of needs ranging from lower-order to higher-order needs, as follows: physiological needs, the needs for safety, belonging, status and self-esteem, and finally the need for self-actualisation. According to his theory, needs at lower levels have to be fulfilled to some extent before those at the next level can be satisfied.

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory distinguishes two sets of work factors (Herzberg *et al* 1959: 113). One set relates to the actual

execution of the work and comprises “motivators” or “satisfiers” while the other relates to the work environment and comprises “hygiene factors” or “dissatisfiers”. Herzberg’s two-factor theory posits that employees are not motivated by extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions or job security, but by intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition and responsibility (Jones 1997: 77). If appropriate hygiene factors are provided, employees will not be dissatisfied with their work, but nor will they be motivated to perform at their full potential (Gómez-Mejia *et al* 1998: 57; McKenna 2000: 97). Motivators are factors which produce real motivation; when they are inadequate, there is no motivation (Gómez-Mejia *et al* 1998: 57; Drafke & Kossen 1998: 282). Although hygiene factors are not motivating, they are a prerequisite for motivation (Owens 1995: 56). A study done by Kaufman (Low & Marican 1993: 12) distinguished between educators as motivation seekers and hygiene seekers and found that motivation seekers showed greater commitment to teaching than hygiene seekers. Hygiene factors include: salary, status, security, working conditions, policies, and administrative practices as well as interpersonal relationships. Motivators include meaningful and challenging work, recognition of accomplishments, a feeling of achievement, increased responsibility, and opportunities for growth and advancement.

Process theories include the operant learning theory, which proposes that a person engages in a specific behaviour because that behaviour has been reinforced by a specific outcome (Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998: 85-6; Drafke & Kossen 1998: 286). Positive reinforcement, such as a financial bonus for performance, is one way to increase desired behaviour in people. Negative reinforcement increases the likelihood that a person will engage in a particular behaviour by following the behaviour by the removal of something the person dislikes. For example, the educator may teach extra mathematics lessons to avoid involvement in other extracurricular activities.

Adam’s equity theory focuses on the concept of fairness (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994: 64; Schermerhorn *et al* 1997: 94; Drafke & Kossen 1998: 288). The equity theory has evolved from the social comparison theory (Gordon 1999: 94). It focuses on the tendency of staff members to compare what the work requires of them (inputs, for

example skills and effort) with what they receive in exchange (outputs, for example salary and benefits or recognition). It also suggests that staff members compare their own job situation with that of other staff members. If, according to their own perceptions, they do not experience equity, they will take action to bring them into a state of equity (Schermerhorn *et al* 1997: 94; Drafke & Kossen 1998: 288; Gordon 1999: 94).

The above-mentioned theories were followed by numerous research endeavours to determine what motivates or demotivates educators in various contexts. Some significant findings are discussed in the next section.

3. Research findings on the motivation of educators

Reasons for lack of motivation in educators are complex because the causes may be diverse (Atkinson 2000: 46). Evans's (2000: 176) study in Britain confirmed this diversity. Individuals' need fulfilment underpinned the variance (Low & Marican 1993: 14; Owens 1995: 52). Hence it is important to recognise that educators are motivated by different factors, in accordance with their age, qualifications and years of experience; the resources available in the school; their aspirations with respect to career development, and the priorities they attach to achievement and to social factors (Culver *et al* 1990: 342; Low & Marican 1993: 15; Rowley 1996: 14).

The following intrinsic factors of motivation were identified in various studies:

- Working with learners

Satisfaction and motivation are derived from educators' daily interaction with learners (Kloep & Tarifa 1994: 166; Shachar 1997: 805; Wright & Custer 1998: 61; Campbell 1999: 24).

- Achievement

Educators experience great satisfaction when they are able to help learners achieve positive results (Theall & Franklin 1999: 100; Atkinson 2000: 45).

Acta Academica 2003: 35(3)

- Recognition and praise
Educators want recognition and praise for their achievements (NASSP Practitioner 1995: 1; Eimers 1997: 130; Pinto & Pulido 1997: 425; Evans 1998: 29).
- Meaningfulness of the task
Educators experience satisfaction when they have a positive effect on the work and lives of others (Theall & Franklin 1999: 104; Barnabé & Burns 1994: 182).
- Autonomy
Educators want the freedom to develop and implement their own methods in the classroom without fear of the school authorities (Rowley 1996: 14; Eimers 1997: 132; Barnabé & Burns 1994: 182).
The following were determined as extrinsic factors of motivation for educators:
 - Salaries
Being paid well is a motivator for most people. Many educators feel that the salaries they receive are insufficient for the amount of work they do (Smith 1992: 8; Kloep & Tarifa 1994: 163; Rowley 1996: 14; Shachar 1997: 809; Pinto & Pulido 1997: 424).
 - Relationship with colleagues
Educators put a high premium on positive staff relationships (Kloep & Tarifa 1994: 163; Shachar 1997: 806; Davis & Wilson 2000: 352).
 - Job security
Educators who are facing the possibility of retrenchment or unwanted redeployment, or who are confronted with major changes in the curriculum, will experience a feeling of insecurity and will not be as motivated as educators in a secure working environment (Low & Marican 1993: 14).
 - Fair treatment
Educators want to be treated fairly. Any discriminatory actions against them are perceived negatively, reducing their motivation (Low & Marican 1993: 14; Campbell 1999: 27).

Schulze & Steyn/Educators' motivation

- Enough resources
Lack of resources causes feelings of uncertainty and frustration (Kloep & Tarifa 1994: 163; Shachar 1997: 810; Wright & Custer 1998: 67).
- Reasonable working hours
Educators who feel that their working hours are unreasonably long are demotivated, especially if they are not financially compensated or if their efforts are not recognised (Kniveton 1991: 369; Campbell 1999: 24; Kloep & Tarifa 1994: 163).
- Good discipline
Disciplinary problems represent one of the most demotivational factors at the classroom level (Evans 1998: 29).

However, the abovementioned factors are influenced by moderator variables such as age, gender and years of experience. For example, studies reported that between the ages of 20 and 27 educators were committed to marriage, children or job mobility and were trying to build a stable future for themselves and their families while leaving their options open (NASSP Practitioner 1995: 3). These aspects influenced their motivation. Between 28 and 33, educators dealt with career issues, marriage, parenting, location and owning a home, which could also influence their motivation. Between 34 and 39, educators questioned their accomplishments or lack thereof and might experience intense stress. The years between 40 and 47 were a time of disillusionment for many due to unfulfilled ambitions and feelings. From 47 to retirement educators generally resisted change and were fixed in values and purpose.

Concerning the influence of experience, Riseborough & Poppleton (1991: 307) found that beginner educators were generally highly motivated whereas experienced educators were often disillusioned and demotivated. In their survey of elementary educators, Rosenholt & Simpson (1990: 241) determined that novices needed organisational support for behavioural management and boundary tasks; mid-career educators needed autonomy and empowerment, and veterans' motivation depended on school support of core instructional tasks.

Few researchers have investigated the influence of gender. In this regard Hillebrand's (1989) inquiry into the motivation of South

African female educators is a valuable contribution. It found that female educators had a need for amicable relationships with learners and for compatibility with their roles as mothers or homemakers, thus they required fair workloads and working hours. Salary and security were also regarded as important. Needs that were not satisfied included salary, unbiased evaluation of merit and for promotion, participation in decision-making and a fair workload. A significant number of female educators identified unnecessary administrative work as a demotivating factor. Factors that powerfully determined the female educator were: relationships with learners, pride in her work, self-esteem and love of her particular subject. Other South African studies are summarised in the next section.

4. South African studies on the motivation of educators

A number of South African studies on the motivation of educators have been conducted. Wever's (2000) study in the Eastern Cape revealed that although the educators in the sample were motivated by extrinsic factors, they were significantly more motivated by intrinsic factors arising from the job itself. Apart from confirming the motivational factors determined by research in other parts of the world, there were other findings. Most educators in the sample indicated that promotion to a higher post level was one of their goals (Wevers 2000: 116). Many educators felt that they did not enjoy the professional respect they deserved (Wevers 2000: 137). The lack of parental commitment was a great concern since it put pressure on educators to take over some parental responsibilities (Wevers 2000: 155).

Tukani (1998) focused on the role played by colleagues in motivating one another. The findings revealed that motivation is contagious and educators are significantly influenced by eager and prudent colleagues. Educators are also positively influenced by teamwork and effective communication. This confirmed earlier research by Smit (1994). In addition, the following factors were found to be crucial: effective conflict solving, participative decision-making and recognition for good work.

In a study on the motivation of beginner educators, Prinsloo (1992) concluded that the school principal can contribute to their motivation by means of solving problems, creating an open school climate and developing a sensitive leadership style. The principal should also strive to know the staff as well as possible in order to correlate their personal needs with the formal needs of the school. The importance of the principal's style in influencing educators' motivation in Indian secondary schools was substantiated by Bedassi (1991). In addition, staff training and development were ascertained as important motivators (Swart 1991).

Not all the motivational needs of educators are met. For example, one study of primary school educators showed that the needs least met were remuneration, promotion, professional status and appreciation of work well done (Esterhuizen 1990). Needs concerning personal relationships were best satisfied.

The studies cited did not attempt to determine whether educators of different genders, ages and years of experience were differently influenced by various motivational factors. Thus the present study attempted to determine the influence of these variables on the motivation of educators from a widespread geographical area by means of the following research.

5. Research design

The research was exploratory, using a questionnaire as a research instrument. The first three questions determined the respondents' gender, age and years of teaching experience. The remainder of the questionnaire was adapted from Wright's 51 incentives that motivate educators (NASSP Practitioner 1995: 4-5). The original statements were presented to a number of local educators in a pilot study. No items were added, although one statement was changed, namely, "opportunities for publication", to "working with learners". Thus content validity was ensured. Respondents had to indicate to what degree the 51 incentives listed would motivate them, by responding on a five-point scale ranging from "definitely not" to "definitely".

The respondents were a non-probability sample, chosen as a combination of convenience and random sampling. 192 students enrolled

for a Master's degree programme in Human Resource Management during 2001 were involved. They were seen as an appropriate sample for exploratory research since they came from a widespread geographical area and included representatives from each of the categories (gender, age and years of experience). The students were requested to administer the questionnaire to 10 randomly selected colleagues as part of an assignment. Out of a possible total of 1920, 1181 (62%) completed questionnaires were returned.

Biographical details of the students involved in the relevant module are as follows: apart from one in Mauritius, one in the United Kingdom, and 12 from other parts of Africa, all the students were educators in South Africa. 66 were from the Northern Province, 37 from KwaZulu-Natal, 21 from the Eastern Cape and Gauteng, 17 from Mpumalanga, 9 from the North-West province and the remaining few from the other provinces. 30 spoke European languages and the rest African languages.

6. Data analysis

To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, a covariance matrix was used. The alpha reliability coefficient for the 51 items of the questionnaire was 0.9361. Average means of the 51 items were individually calculated for each of the three moderator variables, namely gender, age and years of experience. Since the data were not normally distributed, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test and the Kruskal Wallis tests were performed on the data to test for significant differences between educators of diverse gender, age and years of experience for each of the 51 items. Although the means are presented in the tables, significance is based on the ranks of the absolute values of the differences. In addition, Cohen's *d* was calculated, which is a scale-free measure of the experiment's effect size (Smithson 2000: 200). The results appear in the tables in the next section.

7. Results

7.1 Biographical detail

Some missing values occurred. Apart from these, the biographical detail of the sample appear in Table 1.

Table 1: Biographical data of the sample

Variable	Number of respondents		
Gender N = 1143	Males = 500		Females = 643
Age N = 1146	29 years or younger = 172	30 to 39 years = 555	40 + years = 419
Years of experience N = 1150	5 years or less = 171	6 - 10 years = 380	11 or more years = 599

As the table indicates, all the relevant categories were well represented.

7.2 Incentives that motivate educators

Average scores for each of the 51 items were calculated and placed in rank order. Table 2 indicates the top 10 motivational factors for all the educators in the sample.

Table 2: The ten most popular choices in rank order

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Opportunities to develop new skills and leadership	4.54	0.907
Increased effectiveness as a teacher	4.52	0.897
Working with learners	4.52	0.914
The opportunity to work as part of a team	4.51	0.902
The feeling that contributions and suggestions are helpful	4.49	0.906
Recognition of effective work accomplished	4.48	0.896
Participation in decision-making that affects work	4.43	1.058
Increased self-confidence	4.42	0.965
Opportunities to attend workshops/conferences	4.42	0.992
Assignment to help staff members who need assistance	4.42	0.970

According to Table 2, a sense of professional growth and achievement; working with learners; recognition; power, and authority were top motivational factors. The factors listed also indicated a strong tendency for intrinsic factors to be more motivational than extrinsic factors.

The influence of gender, age and years of experience was determined by means of the Mann-Whitney U-test and the Kruskal Wallis tests. Significant differences are indicated in Tables 3 to 5.

7.3 Gender

Table 3: Significant differences between the genders

Item	Mean males	Mean females	Significance	Cohen's <i>d</i>
Working with learners	4.45	4.56	p < 0.05	0.11
Special privileges	3.21	3.51	p < 0.01	0.21
Support, assistance and encouragement from peers	4.22	4.34	p < 0.05	0.12

In general there were no significant differences between the factors that motivated male and female educators. However, Table 3 shows that the female educators in the sample were significantly more motivated than the males by working with learners, by special privileges and by relations with colleagues. The significance was on the 5% or the 1% level. Of the above, Cohen's *d* values indicate that for female educators, receiving special privileges may be the most important motivational factor (0.21 > 0.11 or 0.12). This may relate to their dual roles as educators as well as mothers and homemakers.

7.4 Age

Significant differences (on the 5% or the 1% level) in motivational factors for educators of diverse age groups were found for 20 of the 51 items, indicating that age significantly influences what is experienced as motivational. The 20 items appear in Table 4.

Schulze & Steyn/Educators' motivation

Table 4: Significant differences found between age groups

Item	Mean 29- years Gr 1	Mean 30-39 years Gr 2	Mean 40+ years Gr 3	Signifi- cance	Cohen's <i>d</i> values Groups: 1/21/32/3
Increased effectiveness as a teacher	4.37	4.57	4.53	p < 0.05	.21.17.05
Increased self-confidence	4.81	4.51	4.36	p < 0.01	.35.21.13
The feeling that contributions and suggestions are helpful	4.24	4.51	4.55	p < 0.01	.29.31.05
Assignment to help staff mem- bers who need assistance	4.09	4.45	4.50	p < 0.01	.36.41.05
The opportunity to work as part of a team	4.29	4.55	4.53	p < 0.05	.29.26.02
Support, assistance, encourage- ment from peers	4.07	4.38	4.27	p < 0.01	.31.19.11
Support, assistance, encourage- ment from supervisors	4.06	4.42	4.44	p < 0.01	.35.38.02
Additional training	4.01	4.32	4.39	p < 0.01	.29.37.07
Knowledge that the status of the profession will increase	4.03	4.27	4.18	p < 0.05	.21.13.08
In-service education	4.04	4.24	4.37	p < 0.05	.16.3.11
Opportunities to work with new teachers	3.77	4.13	3.98	p < 0.01	.31.18.13
Increased opportunities to act as a consultant to parents and learners	3.59	3.78	3.91	p < 0.05	.14.27.11
The opportunity to address teacher groups	3.35	3.78	3.83	p < 0.01	.33.38.04
Participation in decision-making that affects work	4.01	4.46	4.56	p < 0.01	.4.52.1
Recognition for effective work accomplished	4.19	4.54	4.54	p < 0.01	.37.39.0
Assignment to committee to study problems at school	3.34	3.85	3.94	p < 0.01	.38.47.07
Explicit role definition	3.67	3.81	3.95	p < 0.05	.11.25.13
Committee membership of choice	3.67	4.05	4.11	p < 0.01	.31.37.05
Esteem of colleagues	3.81	4.10	4.09	p < 0.05	.27.26.01
Authority over peers	2.77	2.99	3.14	p < 0.05	.15.26.11

Table 4 displays the following trends:

- The older the educators, the more influenced they were by the factors considered in this investigation, and *vice versa*.
- Only one factor is significantly more motivational for the youngest group (29 years or younger) than for the older educators, namely an increase in self-confidence.
- Seven of the factors were significantly more motivational for the middle age group (between 30 and 39 years) than for the others. These factors related to relations with colleagues (the opportunity to work as part of a team or with new educators, support from peers, and esteem of colleagues) and professional recognition (knowledge that the status of the profession will increase, and recognition for effective work accomplished).
- The remaining 12 factors were most motivational for educators of 40 years or more. These factors related to a sense of professional growth (additional training and in-service education); power and authority (feeling that suggestions are helpful, helping other staff members, assistance from supervisors, increased opportunity to act as a consultant or address other educators, participation in decision-making, assignment to committees, committee membership of choice, and authority over peers), and explicit role definition.
- Significant implications from Cohen's d values were that the older educators, in contrast to the youngest, were especially motivated by participation in decision-making that affects work ($d = 0.52$ and 0.40); assignment to committees to study problems at their own school ($d = 0.47$ and 0.38), and assignment to help staff members who needed assistance ($d = 0.41$ and 0.36). In other words, older educators are particularly motivated by power and authority.

7.5 Years of experience

Significant differences (on the 5% or the 1% level) in motivational factors for educators of various periods of experience were found for 14 of the 51 items, indicating that experience significantly influences what educators experience as motivational. The 14 items appear in Table 5.

Schulze & Steyn/Educators' motivation

Table 5: Significant differences between different periods of experience

Item	Mean	Mean	Mean	Signifi- cance	Cohen's <i>d</i> values: Group
	5- years Gr 1	6-10 years Gr 2	11+ years Gr 3		
Increased self-confidence	4.26	4.47	4.44	p < 0.05	.21.19.04
Support, assistance & encouragement from supervisors	4.11	4.39	4.45	p < 0.01	.26.34.06
Additional training	4.11	4.30	4.37	p < 0.05	.17.24.06
In-service education	4.02	4.12	4.40	p < 0.01	.08.34.24
Extra salary for training and experience	4.06	3.93	4.23	p < 0.05	.09.13.22
Opportunities to work with new teachers	3.83	4.10	4.03	p < 0.05	.23.17.06
The opportunity to address teacher groups	3.49	3.76	3.80	p < 0.05	.2 .24 .04
Recognition from one's superior	3.74	3.75	3.96	p < 0.05	.01.18.17
Participation in decision-making that affects work	4.11	4.37	4.56	p < 0.01	.22.44.19
Recognition for effective work	4.29	4.50	4.55	p < 0.05	.23.29.05
Assignment to committee to study problems at school	3.39	3.73	3.96	p < 0.01	.24.45.18
Explicit role definition	3.78	3.74	3.93	p < 0.05	.03.13.16
Committee membership of choice	3.71	4.06	4.08	p < 0.01	.28.31.01
Increased autonomy	3.29	3.48	3.61	p < 0.05	.14.26.11

Table 5 reveals the following trends:

- The more experienced the educators, the more influenced they were by the factors considered in this investigation, and *vice versa*.
- None of the factors were most motivational for the group with least experience (five years or less).
- Only two factors were most motivational for educators with between six and ten years' experience. These were increased self-confidence and the opportunity to work with new teachers (relations with colleagues).

- The remaining 12 factors relate to a sense of professional growth (additional training and in-service education); power and authority (assistance from supervisors, the opportunity to address other educators, participation in decision-making, assignment to committees, committee membership of choice, and increased autonomy); professional recognition (recognition for effective work, letters of recognition from superiors, and extra salary for experience), and explicit role definition.
- Significant implications of Cohen's d values were that educators with at least 11 years of experience, in contrast to those with five or less, are especially motivated by assignment to committees to study problems at their own school ($d = 0.45$); participation in decision-making that affects work ($d = 0.44$); in-service education ($d = 0.34$), and support, assistance and encouragement from supervisors ($d = 0.34$). In other words, although educators with 11 or more years' experience are particularly motivated by power and authority, they still need some support and ongoing training.

8. Discussion

With regard to Herzberg's theory, the educators in this study were more motivated by motivators (such as opportunities for growth, recognition, and feelings of achievement) than by hygiene factors (for example, salary, reimbursement for courses, or security). This could indicate a greater commitment to teaching (Marican 1993). In contrast to some previous studies (Smith 1992; Kloep & Tarifa 1994; Rowley 1996; Shachar 1997; Pinto & Pulido 1997), this investigation did not find salary or financial compensation for studies to be among the top ten motivational factors.

The survey confirmed previous findings (Hillebrand 1989) that female educators were motivated by working with learners. Being socially orientated, they were also motivated by support, assistance and encouragement from their peers. However, female educators were most motivated by special privileges. This could be ascribed to the need to render their roles as educators compatible with their roles as mothers and homemakers.

Concerning the influence of age, educators of 29 and younger were motivated most by an increase in self-confidence, which can be understood in the light of the fact that they had not been teaching for long and might still have been experiencing some uncertainty. In general, older educators were significantly more motivated than the youngest educators by the factors listed in the research instrument, such as a sense of professional growth, power and authority as well as explicit role definition. The need for power and authority at this age can be understood since educators in their forties have reached an age when they can be appointed as educational managers. On the other hand, changes caused by the transformation of education can bring about uncertainty about their roles as educators. In confirmation of earlier research (NASSP Practitioner 1995), the youngest educators may be at a stage where marriage and children are priorities that influence their motivation.

Age coincides with experience. In this study, the more experienced educators were significantly more motivated by the factors listed, but especially by power and authority, support from supervisors and in-service education. This may be due to the fact that the study was conducted at a time of radical transformation in the education system in South Africa. This greater motivation of more experienced educators contrasts with what is found in the literature, which indicated that novice educators are generally more motivated than experienced ones (Riseborough & Poppleton 1991). The lower level of motivation in the inexperienced educators of this sample may relate to the fact that they have to handle issues such as undisciplined and aggressive learners and a lack of resources. These challenges may be more difficult for the less experienced to handle.

9. Conclusions and recommendations

Significant trends were discovered by the study. Male and female educators were found to be generally motivated by the same factors although many individual differences may occur. In particular, female educators value the particular privileges offered by the education system that enable them to cope with the demands of their dual roles as working women and mothers or homemakers. These may include being at home during school holidays and, to a greater or lesser

extent, being able to accommodate their children during the afternoons.

Educators of diverse age groups and experience differ in what they experience as motivational. Younger educators need to have their confidence boosted by praise and assistance. Older and more experienced educators want to build positive relations with peers to create a support base. The value of social activities in facilitating the development of such relationships should not be underestimated. In addition, recognition for work well done is also important, whether private or public. In their thirties and forties, many educators are motivated by leadership roles as power and authority become important to them. Educators, in their forties, in particular, need to be included in decision-making that affects work, appointed to committees to investigate problems, especially those at their own school, and assigned to help staff members who need assistance. This latter situation may be realised in the form of mentoring younger personnel or facilitating workshops for staff development. However, the need for support, assistance and encouragement from supervisors, as well as in-service education, remains significant. This implies that opportunities should be created for all educators (not only the inexperienced) to improve their knowledge and skills. This may enable them to address transformation issues such as those posed by outcomes-based education. In addition, an explicit role definition also becomes meaningful for the older and more experienced educator. This can be understood in the light of change and transformation in the education system of South Africa, as has been mentioned. Workshops at which issues pertaining to transformation can be discussed and educators can obtain clarity on their various roles will therefore be motivational.

However, additional research (probably of a qualitative nature) is also needed in order to understand more clearly how all the various factors interrelate in the lives of individual educators. Such an understanding could help managers to motivate educators, thus improving the quality of teaching and encouraging effective learning.

Bibliography

- ANDERSON A H & A KYPRIANOU
1994. *Effective organizational behaviour: a skills and activity-based approach*. Cambridge, Mass: Blackwell.
- ATKINSON E S
2000. An investigation into the relationship between teacher motivation and pupil motivation. *Educational Psychology* 20(1): 45-57.
- BARNABÉ C & M BURNS
1994. Teachers' job characteristics and motivation. *Educational Research* 36(2):171-85.
- BEDASSI I
1991. Motivation as a staff development instrument in Indian secondary schools. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- CAMPBELL J
1999. Recruitment, retention and reward: issues in the modernisation of primary teaching. *Education* 27(3): 3-13.
- CULVER S M, L M WOLFLE & L H CROSS
1990. Testing a model of teacher satisfaction for Blacks and Whites. *American Educational Research Journal* 27(2): 323-47.
- DAVIS J & S M WILSON
2000. Principals' efforts to empower teachers: effects on teacher motivation and job satisfaction and stress. *Clearing-House* 73(6): 349-53.
- DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
SOUTH AFRICA
1999. Call to action: mobilising citizens to build a South African education and training system for the 21st century.
<[http://education.pwv.gov.za/Media/Speeches-1999/July 99/call-to-action.html](http://education.pwv.gov.za/Media/Speeches-1999/July%2099/call-to-action.html)>
- DRAFKE M W & A KOSSEN
1998. *The human side of organizations*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- EIMERS M T
1997. The role of intrinsic enjoyment in motivating faculty. *Thought and Action* 13(2): 125-42.
- ESTERHUIZEN J L P
1990. The job motivation of the teacher in the primary school. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for CHE.
- EVANS L
1998. Getting the best out of teachers: morale, motivation and job satisfaction in the primary school. *Education* 26(1): 3-13.
2000. The effects of educational change on morale, job satisfaction and motivation. *Journal of Educational Change* 1(2): 173-92.

Acta Academica 2003: 35(3)

GÓMEZ-MEJIA L R, D B BALKIN &
R L CARDY

1998. *Managing human resources*.
Upper Saddle River, New Jersey:
Prentice Hall.

GORDON J R

1999. *Organizational behavior. A
diagnostic approach*. 6th ed. Upper
Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice
Hall.

HERZBERG F, B MAUSER &
B B SNYDERMAN

1959. *The motivation to work*. New
York: John Wiley & Sons.

HILLEBRAND I H

1989. The job motivation of the
female teacher. Unpubl MEd dis-
sertation. Potchefstroom: Potchef-
stroom University for CHE.

JONES R E

1997. Teacher participation in
decision-making — its relation-
ship to staff morale and student
achievement. *Education* 118(1): 77-
83.

KLOEP M & F TARIFA

1994. Working conditions, work
style, and job satisfaction among
Albanian teachers. *International
Review of Education* 40(2): 159-72.

KNIVETON B H

1991. An investigation of factors
contributing to teachers' job
satisfaction. *School Psychology
International* 12: 361-71.

LOW G T & M MARICAN

1993. Selected factors and charac-
teristics of staff motivation in Sin-
gapore primary schools. *Educational
Research Quarterly* 16(2): 11-7.

MASLOW A H

1954. *Motivation and personality*.
New York: Harper.

MCKENNA E

2000. *Business psychology and organi-
zational behavior: a student's hand-
book*. Philadelphia, Penn: Psycho-
logy Press.

NASSP PRACTITIONER

1995. Motivational strategies
useful in enhancing teacher
performance. *The newsletter for the
on-line practitioner* 22(2): 1-6.

NEMANGWELE A A

1999. A philosophical investiga-
tion into the role and function of
motivation in black secondary
school pupils. Unpubl MEd disser-
tation. Pretoria: University of
South Africa.

OWENS R G

1995. *Organizational behavior in
education*. 5th ed. Needham
Heights, Mass: Allyn and Bacon.

PACE L

1998. Getting on with the job: a
Gauteng survey finds teachers put
their all into their work. *The
Teacher* 3(6): 9.

Schulze & Steyn/Educators' motivation

- PINTO G & E PULIDO
1997. Principals' efforts to empower teachers: effects on teacher motivation and job satisfaction and stress. *European Journal of Engineering Education* 22(4): 421-6.
- PRINSLOO A H
1992. Motivation of the beginner teacher. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.
- REEVE J
1996. *Motivating others: nurturing inner motivational resources*. Needham Heights, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.
- RISEBOROUGH G F & P POPPLETON
1991. Veterans versus beginners: a study of teachers at a time of fundamental change in comprehensive schooling. *Educational Review* 43(3): 307-34.
- ROSENHOLTZ S J & C SIMPSON
1990. Workplace conditions and the rise and fall of teachers' commitment. *Sociology of Education* 63(4): 241-57.
- ROWLEY J
1996. Motivation and academic staff in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education* 4(3):11-6.
- SCHERMERHORN J R, J G HUNT & R N OSBORN
1997. *Organizational behavior*. 6th ed. New York: John Wiley.
- SHACHAR H
1997. Effects of a school change project on teachers' satisfaction with their work and their perceptions of teaching difficulties. *Teacher and Teacher Education* 10(8): 799-813.
- SMIT B
1994. Management strategies of the school principal with a view to job satisfaction among teachers. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- SMITH J A J & A J VAN ZYL
1991. School climate and Soweto. *South African Journal of Education* 11(1): 27-31.
- SMITH R
1992. Effective motivation. *Business Education Today* 91:8-9.
- SMITHSON M
2000. *Statistics with confidence*. London: Sage.
- SWART G J
1991. Motivation of educational personnel: a management report of the educational manager. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- THEALL M & J FRANKLIN
1999. What have we learnt? A synthesis and some guidelines for effective motivation in higher education. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* 78: 99-109.

Acta Academica 2003: 35(3)

TUKANI R G L

1998. The influence of colleagues on teacher motivation. Unpubl MEd dissertation. Bloemfontein: University of the Free State.

WAGNER J A & J R HOLLENBECK

1998. *Organizational behavior. Securing competitive advantage*. 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

WEVERS N E J

2000. Opvoedermotivering in die Oos-Kaap. Ongepubl MEd verhandeling. Pretoria: Universiteit van Suid-Afrika.

WRIGHT M & R CUSTER

1998. Why they enjoy teaching: the motivation of outstanding technology teachers. *Journal of Technology Education* 9(2): 60-77.

YONG B C

1999. The career commitment of primary teachers in Brunei, Darussalam. *Research in Education* 62: 1-9.