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THE LEVEL OF MOTIVATION OF SECONDARY
SCHOOL EDUCATORS IN THE THABO
MOFUTSANYANA EDUCATION DISTRICT OF THE
EASTERN FREE STATE REGION

by

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SCRIPT

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requirements for the degree.*

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wife, Enkie who has great confidence in me and has given me unwavering support throughout this course.

DECLARATION

I, Amos Maitse Mosikidi hereby declare that this script submitted for the M. Ed. Degree at the University of the Free State is the result of my independent investigation. Where assistance has been sought, it was acknowledged. I further declare that this work has never been submitted for a degree at any other faculty or university.

...*A. Mosikidi*.....

A M Mosikidi

June 2003

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The South African education is undergoing radical, fundamental changes. These changes range from the scrapping of corporal punishment in schools to the introduction of a completely new education system. The changes also include attempts by government to convert traditionally monocultural schools into multicultural schools.

The above mentioned changes have implications for both educators and learners in schools. With the introduction of the new Outcomes Based Education system, most practising educators are faced with the problem of abandoning their old methods of teaching, and adapting to new innovative teaching approaches that are in keeping with outcomes based education. These changes can, therefore, be very frustrating and demotivating to most traditional teachers. Also, most teachers are frustrated by the fact that they find it increasingly difficult to maintain discipline in their schools since corporal punishment can no longer be applied.

According to van der Westhuizen (1991:178), inadequate information, poor timing and misunderstanding often result in educators not wanting or being unable to listen to reasons for change. If explanations are not given in time or are not clear, teachers tend to resist change and maintain the status quo. Van der Westhuizen (1991:180) further contends that educators whose level of motivation for achievement and work is low often experience difficulty in accepting and adapting to any form of change. It is therefore highly likely that unmotivated educators in a changing environment may present a serious problem to the change process.

It is the task of educational leaders in schools to ensure that educators are adequately motivated to meet the demands presented by change. Nicholls (1983:4), argues that because teachers are generally expected to be competent, it becomes difficult for some of them to be subjected to a situation wherein they suddenly feel incompetent or threatened by a growing feeling of insecurity. Furthermore, van der Westhuizen (1991:327) has the following to say with regard to issues pertaining to professional burnout in educators:

The policy makers, analysts and top management of educational institutions have for a long time placed the emotional welfare of the child first, and negated the true needs and morale of the practitioners who deliver this service. This is why many brilliant teachers gradually lost their idealism and replaced it with cynicism, demotivation and despair. This is also why professional burnout is escalating in the teaching profession.

From the above, it can be deduced that it is imperative for educational leaders to realise that the new changes that are being implemented in South African schools, have the potential to render educators ineffective in their educational task. It is therefore suggested that South African educators need to be psychologically prepared for the new and inevitable changes. Motivation, it is expected should help South African teachers to adapt to their changing environment and to increase their job satisfaction.

Given the discussion above, the following problem questions arise with regard to this research:

1. What is the nature of motivation and what does the motivation of educators entail?
2. What is the current level of motivation of secondary schools educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District?
3. What guidelines can be given to improve the current level of motivation of secondary schools educators?

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The broad aim of the study is to investigate the level of motivation of secondary school educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District of the Free State. From this aim, the following specific objectives may be derived:

- To provide a theoretical background of the nature of motivation and what motivation of educators entails.
- To investigate the current level of motivation of secondary schools educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District.
- To make recommendations on the basis of the findings, on how to improve or sustain the current level of motivation of secondary school educators in the targeted schools.

1.3 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

In order to realise the aim and objectives stated in 1.2, the following methods were used to gather data pertinent to the successful completion of the research:

1.3.1 Literature review

An exhaustive and comprehensive study of existing literature on the nature and meaning of motivation was undertaken. The literature review also included an in-depth study of existing views on the motivation of educators. This was attained by selecting secondary resources that attempt to adequately describe what motivation in general and motivation of educators in particular entails.

1.3.2 Questionnaires

In striving to investigate and assess the level of motivation among secondary school educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District, the study made an extensive use of the questionnaire as the main data-gathering instrument.

The questionnaire was distributed to 10 randomly selected schools of the above-said education district. A total of 200 questionnaires was given to educators in the targeted schools. Of the 200 questionnaires distributed, 184 (92%) were returned and used in the research. This response was regarded as adequate to make valid deductions regarding the target group. The use of questionnaires was considered appropriate as the research was testing attitudes and opinions of secondary school educators.

1.4 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The Free State region consists of five education districts. It was not possible in a study as restricted as this one to include all secondary schools educators of the Free State. The study, therefore, focused attention on secondary schools in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District where the researcher is also an educator. As already indicated in 1.3.2, a sample of 10 schools out of 96 secondary schools in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District were randomly selected to represent the target population of this chosen district.

Motivation is part and parcel of education management. In fact, according to Megginson (in Van der Westhuizen, 1991:194), "Management is motivation". It can therefore be correctly concluded that the scientific study of this research can be found in a sub-discipline of education, namely Education Management. Van der Westhuizen (1991:646), maintains that the school principal plays the most important role in any form of change taking place in a school. The study was therefore confined to motivating the staff, as an essential management task in an effective school.

1.5 OUTLAY OF THE SCRIPT

In order to achieve the objectives stated in 1.2, the research evolved as follows:

CHAPTER 2 focuses on the literature review on the nature of motivation and what the motivation of educators entails in terms of the existing literature and research.

CHAPTER 3 presents the research results of the empirical survey. The presented results are also analysed and interpreted to serve as a basis for general findings and recommendations.

CHAPTER 4 summarizes the research in the form of findings, conclusions and general recommendations aimed at improving the current level of motivation of the participating respondents.

Consequently, in the next chapter, the research will focus on the nature of motivation and what the motivation of educators entails.

CHAPTER 2

MOTIVATION IN AN EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE: A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will briefly focus on the nature and meaning of motivation in general terms. The views of various researchers on the nature of motivation and what it entails will be considered. A brief account of the relationship amongst morale, job satisfaction and motivation will be given. Attention will then be directed to approaches to motivation in the work situation with the aim of identifying the factors which influence the motivation of workers. The chapter will also look into the implication of work motivation indicators for educational management.

2.2. THE MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Motivation stimulates people to act in a goal directed way. According to Owens (1981:106), motivation is an internal condition or state that activates human beings to behave in a particular manner. This striving condition originates from human needs. He argues that because motivation cannot be observed, it should be inferred from people's behavior. Owens (1981:106) further maintains that purposive and organized behavior in human beings results from motivation. Therefore, motivation leads to goal-directed human conduct. This means that human behavior is an attempt to gratify the needs that motivate the individual.

Mwamwenda (1996:259), in full agreement with Owens, sees motivation as an energizer or inner urge that directs human behavior in a way that attempts to satisfy his needs. He further sees motivation as also serving the purpose of establishing and maintaining a state of balance in the individual. However, Mwamwenda (1996:259) also argues that motivation does not refer to inner drives only, but could also refer to external stimuli that can influence an individual in a beneficial or aversive way.

Like Owens and Mwamwenda, Luthans (1988:161) defines motivation as a process that begins with a psychological deficiency or need that stimulates a behavior or a drive aimed at a goal or incentive. He argues that for the motivation process to be well understood, the meaning and relationship among incentives, drives and needs should first be adequately understood. Furthermore, he maintains that an incentive is at the end of a motivational cycle and can be explained as anything that will gratify a need and lessen a drive. For Van Dyk (1998:257) motivation refers to the course and persistence of a person's behavior or action. It is concerned with the people's choice of a certain course of action over others and why the chosen action is pursued over a long time, and in the face of obstacles and problems. Vroom (1967:9) also maintains that motivation is a process that explains the choices made by people among different voluntary responses. This means that most behaviors manifested by individuals on the job and in the environment are voluntary.

According to Steers and Porter, in van der Westhuizen (1991:194), motivation is a term that originates from the Latin verb "movere", which means "to set in motion". For them, motivation is the spark that arouses and determines the direction of human behavior and actions.

Beach, in van der Westhuizen (1991:194), describes motivation as the preparedness to use up energy to attain a certain goal. Therefore, for an educational leader, motivation refers to all efforts he/she employs to inspire and stimulate other educators to willingly achieve to the best of their potentials (Marx, as cited in van der Westhuizen 1991:194). In concurring with Beach and Marx

above, Robbins in Swanepoel (1988:349) describes motivation as the preparedness or willingness to engage in a particular action, and this willingness is conditioned by the involved action's ability to gratify some need of the individual.

Mitchell, in Van Dyk (1998:257) defines motivation as the extent to which an individual wants and chooses to be involved in certain specified behaviors. Evans (1999:7), concurring with Mitchell, defines motivation as a state, or the creation of a condition, which encloses all factors that determine the extent of inclination towards involvement or engagement in an activity. He argues that motivation need not necessarily determine whether or not an activity actually happens; it needs only determine the degree to which individuals feel inclined towards an activity. This means that it is quite possible for an individual to be motivated to do something without actually doing it. Evans is supported by Hersey and Blanchard, in Andrews (1988:252), who maintain that the motivation of an individual is determined by the strength of his motives or needs. Thus, people will differ in their will to do certain things as well as in their abilities.

From the above explanations, descriptions or definitions of the concept of motivation, it does emerge that there are seemingly as many definitions and descriptions of motivation as there are researchers or authors. However, it can be safely concluded that there exists a common thread running through all the views on motivation, namely:

- Motivation is a human phenomenon and all human behaviors are motivated. However, no two individuals may be equally motivated by the same set of motivating factors.
- Motivation results from the needs which the involved individual wishes to satisfy. This means that a person does something because he has a particular reason for doing so.
- Motivation is produced or made possible by internal motives present in the individual or by external factors present in the environment.
- Motivation is intentional, purposive, directional, and persistent.

For the purpose of this study, however, motivation will be assumed to refer to the ability of educational leaders to inspire, stimulate and encourage educators to willingly and persistently choose to engage in actions that are beneficial to them as teachers and consistent with the educational goals of the school. Motivation, therefore, involves assisting educators to develop a positive attitude towards their work.

2.3 MOTIVATION, MORALE AND JOB SATISFACTION

Various definitions of motivation by different authors have already been mentioned. Attention will now be given to the meanings of two concepts related to motivation, namely: morale and job satisfaction.

2.3.1. Morale

Bohrer and Ebenrett (as cited in Evans 1999:3) define morale as a temper or mood prevalent in the individuals constituting a group. According to Guion (as cited in Tiffin & McCormick 1971:320) morale refers to the degree to which an individual's needs are gratified and the extent to which the individual perceives their satisfaction as deriving from his total job situation. Guion's definition of morale is adopted and supported by Evans (1999:4).

Because needs satisfaction is part of the motivational cycle, it becomes evident from the above definitions of morale that high morale of educators prevails in a school where educators are highly motivated. It is also clear that high morale goes hand in hand with job satisfaction. Evans (1999:4) however warns that high morale may prevail alongside dissatisfaction.

2.3.2. Job Satisfaction

According to Belasco and Alutto (as cited in Reyes 1990:97) and Avi-Itzhak (1988:356), job

satisfaction refers to the willingness of employees to remain in an organization despite inducements to leave. Lortie, in agreement with the above behavioural definitions, maintains that job satisfaction is the willingness to choose the teaching profession as one's occupation a second time. Thus, job satisfaction refers to the sum total of rewards experienced in the job. Kahn (1977:73) views job satisfaction as an expression of the congruence between an employee's expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides. Similarly, earlier on, Lawler and Galbraith (1994:99) saw job satisfaction as the difference between all the things an employee expects to receive from his job and all the things that he actually receives. For Schaffer (as cited in Evans (1999:5), job satisfaction is all about the fulfilment of individuals' needs. He thus defines job satisfaction as the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied.

The relationship between motivation and job satisfaction can be clearly discerned from the above definitions of job satisfaction. Seemingly, workers derive satisfaction from their work if their needs are satisfied. In other words, they derive more job satisfaction if their expectations about their job are confirmed. Thus, motivation and job satisfaction can be said to be interdependent. It also seems clear from the definition of morale by Guion and Coughlan, that there exists a strong correlation between job satisfaction and morale.

2.4. APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION

2.4.1. Assumptions underlying people and motivation

Educational leaders and managers are human beings. Consequently it should be borne in mind that whenever they make any attempts to motivate educators they inevitably bring into the situation their own assumptions about the nature of human beings. According to Swanepoel (1998:340) the extent to which managers will succeed in motivating their subordinates is largely dependent on the congruence between their assumptions about people and the empirical reality.

Four sets of assumptions about the nature of human beings by organizational leaders have been identified by Schein (1972:79) and are the following:-

- Rational-Economic man.
- Social man.
- Self-actualizing man.
- Complex man.

These four sets of assumptions have implications for the motivation of employees in organizations. A brief discussion of these assumptions and their managerial implications in educational organizations will be given.

2.4.1.1. Rational-economic concept of motivation

This classical concept of workers' motivation derives from a hedonistic view of people which contends that for human beings, the pursuit of pleasure is the most important thing in life. Swanepoel (1998:341) and Van Dyk (1998:259) state that the proponents of this economic-needs motivation concept believe that workers are motivated primarily by money and will always strive to do that which will result in them receiving the highest possible wages. According to Swanepoel (1998:34), it is also believed that employees are inherently lazy and should be motivated by external incentives.

The managerial implication of this school of thought can be found in educational leaders who believe that educators are basically lazy and join the teaching profession for material gains. In such a situation teachers are not allowed to form part of the decision-making process. Since educators are regarded as irresponsible, there is minimal delegation of duty. Swanepoel (1998:342) argues that it can well be said that this paternalistic approach to the management of workers led to the rise of trade unions.

2.4.1.2.Social concept of motivation

The social concept of human motivation is the second phase in the development of assumptions about organizational behavior. What is emphasized in this approach is the idea that workers are more or less motivated by their social needs rather than by monetary rewards. It is assumed that employees develop their self-identity through interaction with others (Swanepoel 1998:344). Consequently they are more responsive to their peer group than to the incentives and controls of their managers.

The managerial implications of this assumption are very important for school management teams. They highlight the importance of team work and collegiality amongst the staff. They indicate the importance of the balance between the social needs of the individual and the expectations of the school as an organization. Group decision-making is encouraged. Thus, educators become responsible for executing tasks emanating from decision-making processes of which they formed a part. According to Van Westhuizen (1991:121), the main weakness of this approach is that the behavior of people is isolated and absolutized as being the most important aspect on which educational leaders should focus.

2.4.1.3.The self-actualisation concept of motivation

Following the social concept of motivation, researchers such as Maslow and Herzberg adopted a more psychological basis to motivation. The self-actualizing concept of motivation assumes that employees' needs fall into five sequential categories. The highest of the classes of human needs is self-actualization. It is believed that workers are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled. Furthermore, external controls are viewed as impediments to worker's needs to grow to self-realization in their jobs. Advocates of the self-actualization concept of motivation believe that employees will integrate their own life goals with those of their organization if given an opportunity to do so (Swanepoel 1998:346).

For school managers, this type of approach to teachers motivation implies that school principals and their management teams will have to ensure that work assigned to educators is interesting and challenging. Educators should be shown recognition for achievement in their work. Creativity on the part of educators should be encouraged. They should be given an opportunity for advancement in their work. Educators should be given more responsibility to instil in them a sense of belonging and an enhanced social status. To summarize: educational leaders should afford educators the opportunity to strive towards the fulfilment of their potential within their job situation.

2.4.1.4. The complex-person concept of motivation

The underlying assumption of this approach is that human behavior is complicated and motivated by a large number of varying factors. The complex nature of human beings renders it very difficult for researchers to make generalizations about human motivation. It is therefore important for managers as well as educational leaders to be adaptable and to vary their motivating behavior according to the particular situations and the diverse needs and motivations of staff (Van Dyk 1998:259).

The complex-person concept of motivation implies that it is very important for principals to understand that educators have different needs that may not be satisfied by one particular motivational strategy. It is therefore imperative for principals and school management teams to make a genuine attempt to understand the needs of educators who are serving under them. Principals and their school management teams should be knowledgeable and dynamic individuals who can adapt to change if the situation so demands. Their dynamic character will enable them to select motivational strategies that are consistent with the needs of their subordinates. If they choose the eclectic approach, they are likely to integrate the motivational strategies and come up with a product that will be of practical value to both educators and the school as an organization. Principals also need to realize that educators may develop new needs deriving from their

experiences at the work situation. This implies that principals should be in a position to nurture and cultivate the need for achievement in educators in a manner that can result in the fulfilment of academic goals. This is precisely why mentoring is such an important aspect in the process of staff development in a school.

2.5. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The many different definitions of the concept of motivation by various authors are indicative of the complexity of "motivation". Consequently, there are many competing theories of motivation which are all aimed at explaining its nature. According to Van Dyk (1998:259), all these theories of motivation are partially true and are helpful in explaining the behavior of individuals at certain times. However there is no theoretic model of motivation that is universally accepted as being fully explanatory. Mullins, in Van Dyk (1998:259) argues that human behavior is largely determined by the particular situation in which individuals find themselves.

The different theories of motivation are important to educational managers because they help them to understand educators' needs and to determine how best these needs can be gratified in a manner that ensures the realization of educational goals. For the purpose of this study attention will be directed to two well-known but contrasting motivational theories, namely, content theories and process theories.

2.5.1 Content theories of motivation

These theories are important and useful to managers for they focus on understanding the factors within workers that cause the involved workers to act in a particular way. They are therefore based on the fact that individuals will act and behave in ways that will result in the gratification of their needs (Stoner and Wankel 1986:420). The theories of Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland and Alderfer will be discussed as they have greatly served to enlighten managers on what motivates

employees in organizations.

2.5.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

According to Weiten (1992:442), Maslow proposes that human beings have an innate urge towards fulfilment and personal growth. Owens (1981:111) in support of Weiten, had earlier claimed that Maslow suggested that the driving motive that urges workers to join an organization, remain in it, and strive towards its goals, is actually a hierarchy of needs. Stoner and Wankel (1986:423) argue that Maslow's theory does not only categorize human needs in a convenient way but also has direct implications for management of human behaviors in an organization. Andrews (1997:257) observes that Maslow's hierarchy of needs is acceptable from a practical point of view as it tends to explain why workers continue to work even after their financial needs have long been satisfied.

Maslow viewed human motivation as a hierarchy of five needs that existed within every human being. This hierarchy of needs is arranged as follows (Robbins 2000:408 & Stoner and Wankel 1986:423):

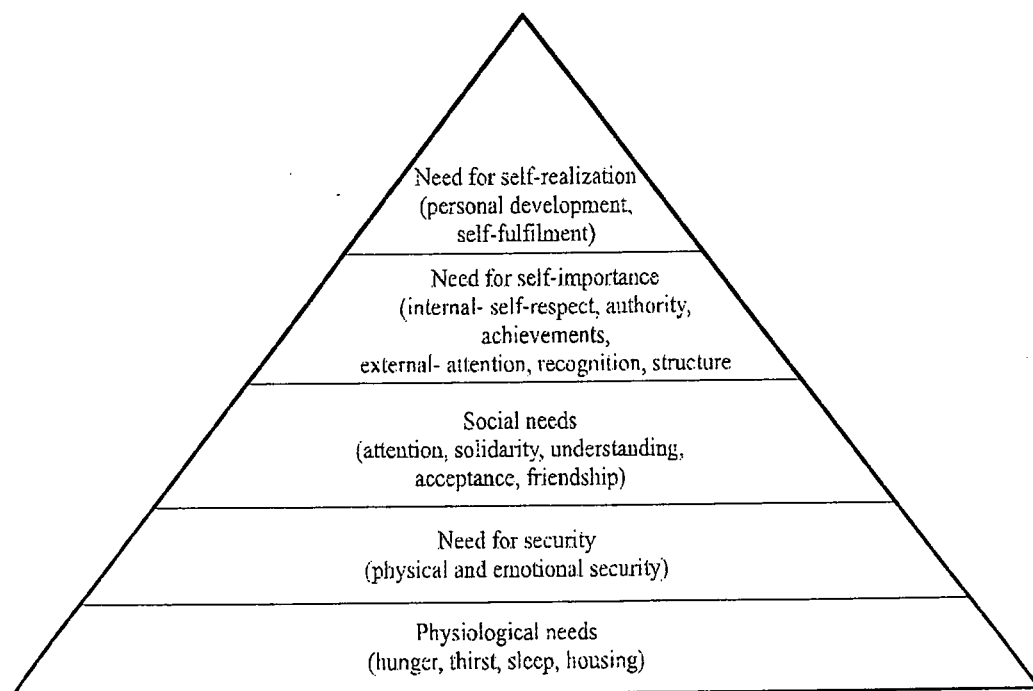
- Physiological needs: Include hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, oxygen and other survival needs.
- Safety needs: Include security, stability, order and protection from physical and emotional harm.
- Belongingness needs: Include the need for love, social interaction, attention, companionship and friendship.
- Esteem needs: Include internal esteem factors such as self-respect, self-esteem, autonomy and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.
- Self-actualization needs: Include the need to grow, to feel fulfilled, to realize one's potential.

The first three sets of needs were described as deficiency needs, for Maslow argued that they are to be gratified if the individual is to be healthy and secure. Maslow then called the last two sets of needs growth needs because he maintained that they provided the basis for individual development and achievement of one's potential (Robbins 2000:409). Deficiency needs and growth needs are often referred to as lower-order needs and higher-order needs respectively.

Maslow proposed that the lowest of human needs consisted of the basic physiological wants such as water, oxygen, food, sex and others (Owen, 1981:111). These needs are predominant until gratified. As soon as physiological needs are satisfied, then the second set of needs higher up the hierarchy is activated and assumes predominance until it is satisfied. Costello (as cited in Andrews, 1997:256) maintains that an unsatisfied need can be so powerful that it can determine the behavior and actions of the person.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is represented in a form of a diagram in figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs.



Source: Schreuder et al.1993:80

From the discussion above it can be deduced that Maslow's theory is grounded upon the following assumptions:

- People are need - creating beings, for as soon as one need is satisfied, another takes its place and this process never stops from birth to death. A satisfied need has no motivational values (Andrews 1988:256-257 and Van Dyk 1998:260-261).
- Human needs are arranged in order of importance for human survival. Deficiency needs must be satisfied before growth needs (Van Dyk 1998:261). However Owen (1981:114) warns that the idea of a needs hierarchy does not necessarily mean that there will never be conflicting emotions as to what a person wants to do.
- Higher - order needs are often less essential for sheer human survival. Their satisfaction can therefore be postponed. Consequently it is easy for such human needs to disappear permanently (Tiffin and McCormick 1971:342).

Figure 2.2. illustrates how Maslow's needs theory may be applied in practice in an organization like a school.

Figure 2.2. Practical application of Maslow's needs hierarchy

<u>NEEDS LEVELS</u>	<u>GENERAL REWARDS</u>	<u>ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS</u>
1. Physiological	Food Water Sex Sleep	Motivators ↘ Pay Pleasant working conditions Cafeteria
2. Safety	Safety Security Stability Protection	Motivators ↘ Safe working conditions Company benefits Job security
3. Social	Love Affection Belongingness	Motivators ↘ Cohesive work group Friendly supervision Professional associations
4. Esteem	Self - esteem Self - respect Prestige Status	Motivators ↘ Social recognition Job title High status job Feedback from the job itself
5. Self - Actualisation	Growth Advancement Creativity	Motivators ↘ Challenging job opportunities for creativity Achievement in work Advancement in the organization

Source: Steers and Porter 1991:35

According to Swanepoel (1998:353), perhaps the greatest practical merit of the theory lies in the fact that it highlights the fact that people have different needs and are therefore motivated by different factors. Therefore what motivates one person may totally fail to motivate others. Also, what serves as an effective motivator for an individual at one time may not be effective on other occasions. Van Dyk (1992:300) agrees with Swanepoel that people have different needs. This is proved by the fact that people may show the same behavior, but usually not for the same reasons. For example, in a school situation, two educators may support each other that the school policy on learners' discipline is flawed. However one educator may be perceiving the policy as being too harsh while another may consider it to be too tolerant.

The theory is important for it also draws attention to the reality that people's motivation and work performance are determined by the strength of their needs and the degree to which these needs are fulfilled (Van Dyk, 1998:258). Maslow also avers that a gratified need no longer motivates. Therefore, if managers want to motivate workers, they need to understand at what level of the hierarchy the involved workers are and thus focus on satisfying the needs at or above that level (Robbins, 2000:409). Van Der Westhuizen (1991:196), further comments that it serves little purpose as a motivating factor to appoint someone to a post with promotion possibilities if the salary structure fails to satisfy the person's most fundamental needs.

Van Der Westhuizen (1991:196) maintains that whereas school principals' daily tasks do not often include the gratification of physiological and security needs, they can however attempt to satisfy the three highest sets of needs. This can be achieved by motivating the staff through the use of needs such as socialisation or affiliation, appreciation, achievement, prestige and self-realization.

2.5.1.2 The two - factor theory of Herzberg

Andrews (1988:260) observes that Herzberg's theory of motivation is based on the assumption that motivation consists of two dimensions. The one dimension concerns work satisfaction while the other concerns work dissatisfaction. Therefore work satisfaction and work dissatisfaction

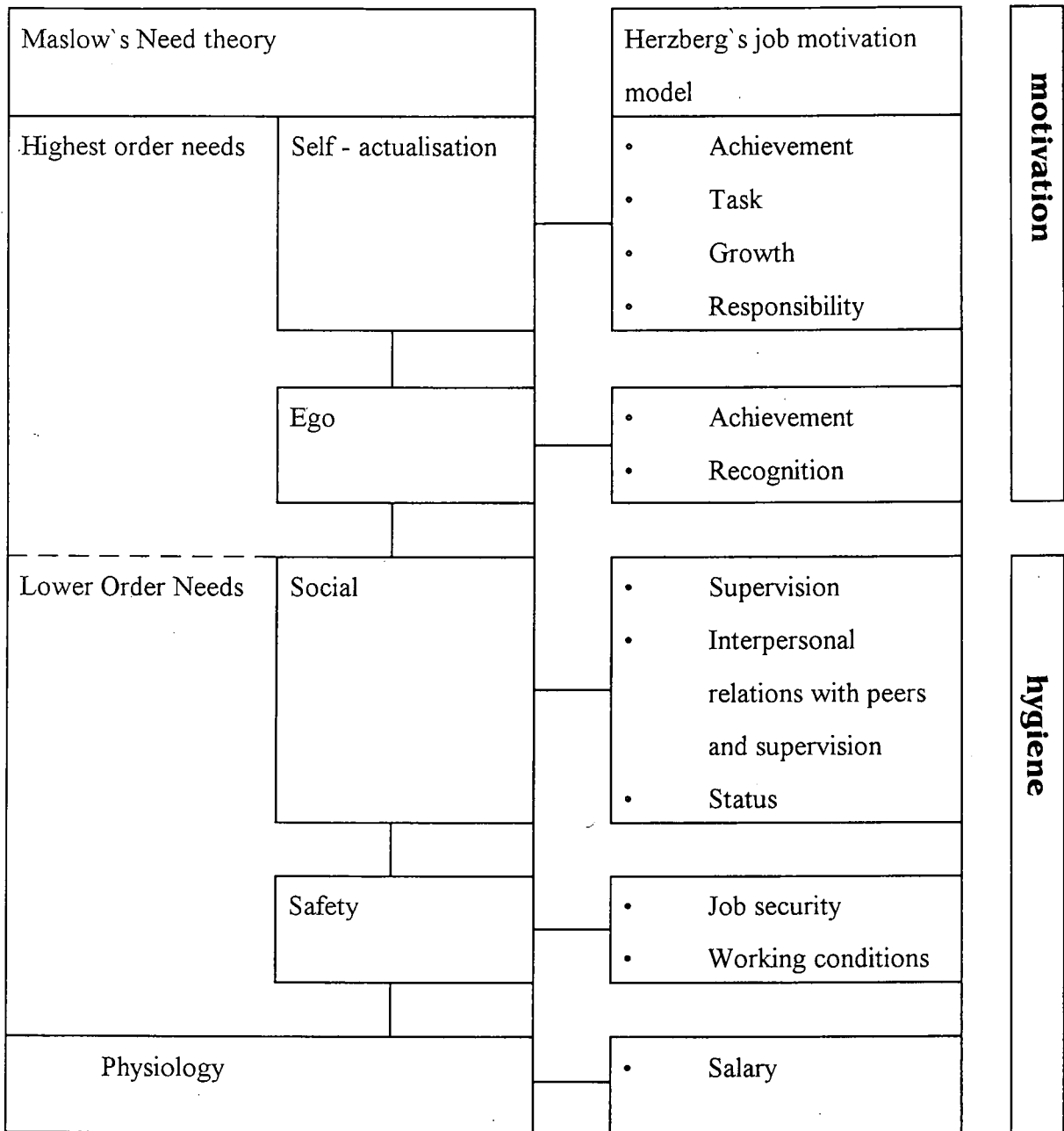
should not be regarded as being the two opposite extremes of a continuum.

Following an intensive and extensive research, Herzberg found that there was a set of factors or working conditions which, if embodied in the work situation serve to motivate workers to perform optimally. These factors, which he named motivators or growth factors included the following: achievement, recognition, the job itself (the degree to which it is interesting, meaningful and challenging), progress or growth, and increasing responsibility (Van Dyk, 1998:264). Herzberg argues that these motivators, which are intrinsic in nature, mainly deal with the basic nature and content of the work (Van Der Westhuizen 1991:200 and Van Dyk 1998:264). Growth factors have great motivational value since they are directly related to fundamental job satisfaction. However their absence does not necessarily result in job dissatisfaction but results in a state of no job satisfaction (Swanepoel 1998:354, Van Der Westhuizen, 1991:200 and Van Dyk, 1998:264).

According to Herzberg, job dissatisfaction is brought about by the absence of hygiene or maintenance factors. Hygiene factors refer to extrinsic factors such as status, work security, company policy and administration, remuneration, supervision, interpersonal relations with subordinates, peers and supervisors and working conditions (Swanepoel, 1998:354 and Van Dyk 1998:264). The presence of hygiene factors does not, however, necessarily bring about job satisfaction in workers, rather it serves to remove job dissatisfaction. Because these hygiene factors are extrinsic in nature and relate to working conditions, they are often referred to as the job context factors.

It is therefore evident that only growth factors (motivators) are capable of motivating people. Also, motivators correspond with Maslow's highest - order needs such as ego needs and self - actualisation needs. Hygiene factors, in contrast, correspond to Maslow's lower-order needs such as social, safety and physiological needs (Van Dyk, 1998 : 264). These hygiene factors have little or no motivational value Figure 2.3 illustrates the similarity between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg.

Figure 2.3 Similarity between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg.



Source : Van Dyk. [1998 : 267]

Owens (1981:121) observes that reducing class size in schools, creating a more agreeable atmosphere and improving the fringe benefits may well reduce or eliminate dissatisfaction of teachers and create conditions in which they may be motivated. However, these efforts, in themselves are not motivating because they are preventive in nature. They only serve as

prerequisites to motivation. Owen is also convinced that Herzberg's two-factor theory illustrates the tendency by people to attribute motivational characteristics to themselves and attribute dissatisfaction to external factors such as organizational characteristics.

Herzberg's theory was confirmed by a study conducted by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:259), on factors affecting satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers. In this study Sergiovanni concludes that workers will derive satisfaction from work-centered activities if their energies are not depleted or exhausted by unsatisfactory working conditions. Therefore, the crucial point seems to be the dependence of motivators on the elimination of the demotivators.

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:143-144), hygiene factors in schools refer to those work conditions that teachers traditionally expect to enjoy. The adequate availability of these conditions at schools only serves to encourage teachers to perform only adequately. Once these traditional legal work conditions are not met, teachers become dissatisfied and their work performance declines. Thus, the presence of hygiene factors does not motivate teachers but prevents them from being dissatisfied. In this case Sergiovanni and Starratt's observation is in full agreement with that of Owens (1981:121). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:143-144) further argue that motivation to work results from factors known as motivators, and not from increasing hygiene factors. However, neglecting hygiene factors can create serious problems for the school. In fact educators are prone not to be interested in the pursuit of higher-order needs without consistent and appreciable satisfaction of the lower-order needs or hygiene factors.

In conclusion, it is apparent that Herzberg's theory of motivation proposes that educators in schools have two separate sets of needs. One set of needs is best satisfied by hygienic or maintenance factors. Teachers respond to those factors by giving what may be referred to as a fair day's work. Any inadequate provision of these factors results in dissatisfaction, which invariably leads to performance that is below acceptable levels. Another set of needs is best met by motivators or satisfiers that are not automatically part of the job but that can be built into most work situations. In exchange for these growth or motivational factors, teachers are prepared to

perform optimally and to exceed the limit of the usual fair day's work. The theory also negates the traditional assumption that if the cause for dissatisfaction has been identified, removal of this cause will result in job satisfaction and motivated educator-staff (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1988, 144- 145).

2.5.1.3 McClelland's learned needs theory

The learned needs theory takes account of three motivators based upon three types of needs, namely, need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation. According to Newell (1978:132), the theory is based on the assumption that human motives remain latent until aroused, and as soon as a motive is actuated by some factor in the situation, it releases energy aimed at gratifying the need. Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1992:) agree with Newell by stating that when a need becomes strong in a person, it results in motivating the person to engage in behavior that will satisfy the need. McClelland (Hellriegel et al :1992), believes that his learned needs theory is rooted in culture. This means that the needs are acquired from the culture of a given society. Therefore, the way a society brings up its youth plays a significant role in the extent to which these needs are activated. McClelland (Swanepoel 1998:355) also maintains that these three basic needs are operative in the job situation.

According to Swanepoel (1998:355) :-

- the need for achievement (nAch) refers to the wish to exceed some standard of behavior, the need or drive to excel, the need to succeed;
- the need for power (nPow) refers to the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise, the desire to be influential;
- the need for affiliation (nAff) refers to the need for friendliness and close interpersonal relationships, to be liked and accepted by others.

Based on the definitions given above, Gordon (1991:139) argues that McClelland's learned needs

are similar to Maslow's higher-order needs. For example the need for achievement is closely related to the self-realization need in that it is about the desire to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. The need for affiliation is a need for love, a sense of belongingness, and relatedness. Finally the need for power is a desire for control over one's own work or the work of colleagues. The need for power can therefore be associated with the need for autonomy.

McClelland (Hellriegel et al, 1992:214 and Robbins, 2000:411-412) describes high achievers as people who always desire to do things better. Typically, they seek situations in which they attain personal responsibility for solving problems. They prefer tasks that provide immediate feedback on their performance so that they can readily tell whether they are improving or achieving their goals and are normally selective about the goals to which they commit themselves. They typically set for themselves moderately challenging goals and avoid selecting extremely difficult goals that are realistically unattainable or goals that are so easy that attaining them provides no satisfaction. High achievers dislike succeeding by chance. Therefore, they set challenges for themselves and enjoy tasks that will make them stretch themselves. They typically accept personal responsibility for success or failure of their own attempts.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:142), maintain that teachers with a strong need for achievement are also characterized by moderate risk taking tendencies that are in most cases a function of skill rather than chance; energetic or novel instrumental activity; personal responsibility and accountability for their actions and behavior; the need for immediate feedback on their performance and anticipation of future possibilities. If a school provides opportunities for the satisfaction of these needs, then these teachers can give optimum performance and improve the effectiveness of the school. If, however, their achievement needs are not provided for by the school, they often contribute negatively towards the school as an organization. They are also likely to seek expression for their needs in teacher unions and other non-educational organizations and institutions.

Stoner and Wankel (1986:425) observe that workers with high achievement needs take pleasure

in work that is challenging, satisfying, stimulating and complex. Such workers welcome autonomy, variety, and regular feedback from their supervisors. In contrast, employees with low achievement needs show preference for situations of stability, security and predictable outcomes. However, McClelland's theory suggests that managers (as well as principals of schools) can, to a certain degree, attempt to raise the achievement - need level of subordinates by allowing employees (teachers) some measure of independence, increasing worker's responsibility and autonomy, gradually making tasks more challenging, interesting and meaningful, and giving recognition and praise for high performance

According to McClelland (Magade, 1997: 14), the need for power is divided into need for personal power or need for institutional power. People with a high need for personal power are inclined to contribute adversely towards institutional goals for they display a tendency to yearn for domination of others for the sake of satisfying their own selfish interests. They expect unquestionable loyalty from their followers. In contrast, individuals with a high need for institutional power thrive in working with others to solve problems and strive at attaining institutional goals. They enjoy getting things done in an orderly manner. Such individuals can be motivated by providing them with opportunities to hold positions that involve organizing the efforts of others.

McClelland (Magade, 1997: 14) suggests that people with a high need for affiliation tend to prefer professions that involve a considerable amount of interaction with others. They are therefore likely to become nurses, educators and social workers, to mention a few. Leaders and managers may provide motivation for such people by creating a co-operative and supportive work climate in which they can satisfy their affiliation needs while performing optimally.

2.5.1.4 Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth theory

Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory (Robbins, 2000:409) is actually a

modification of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Alderfer proposed a condensed version in an attempt to deal with the limitations evidenced in Maslow's theory. Alderfer argued that there are only three groups of core needs, namely, existence, relatedness and growth needs. According to Alderfer (Swanepoel, 1998:353 and Robbins, 2000:409-410), existence needs refer to those needs that are concerned with providing individuals' basic or fundamental material existence requirements. These basic existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs form the second group of needs. They pertain to people's desire for interpersonal relationships and interactions. The relatedness needs can be equated to Maslow's affiliation or social needs and also include the external component of his esteem needs. The third and last group of needs is the growth needs. This group of needs relate to human's intrinsic or inherent desire for personal development. They therefore typically include the internal components of Maslow's esteem needs and his self - fulfillment needs classification.

According to Swanepoel (1998:353-354) and Robbins (2000:410), Alderfer's ERG theory is similar to Maslow's hierarchy of needs in many respects, but they differ in some very important respects. Firstly, the ERG theory is not based on the assumption that there exist a rigid hierarchy of needs where a lower need must be substantially satisfied before a higher-order need becomes functional. This distinction is very important as it means that in terms of the ERG theory, two or even all three category needs can operate at the same time. Secondly, Alderfer's ERG theory suggests that if one level of needs remains unsatisfied for a significant period, then the individual may retrogress to a lower-order needs category. This implies that any frustration of higher-order needs, urges the person to demand more satisfaction of lower needs. For example if a person's growth needs are not satisfied he may develop an increased desire to earn a lot of money (existence needs).

Swanepoel (1998:353) further argues that the ERG theory is useful in that it comes very close to our everyday observations of human behavior. Thus, it can be inferred that an inordinate need for something by an employee at work (such as salary increase) may suggest that the involved worker

is unable to satisfy a higher-order need. It is therefore important for employers and managers to give attention to all levels of needs at the same time. In conclusion, the theory suggests that human needs, need not be arranged in a rigid, linear, chronological order from lower to higher levels.

2.5.2 Process theories of motivation

According to Hellriegel et al (1992:220) and Van Dyk (1992:310), process theories attempt to explain and analyse how internal personal factors interact and influence each other to arouse particular types of human behavior. Process theories are also aimed at determining the relationship between variables forming the motivation process. The four major process theories of motivation that deal with work motivation are expectancy, equity, goal setting and reinforcement theories.

2.5.2.1 Vroom's expectancy theory

Hellriegel et al (1992:220), Swanepoel (1998:361) and Robbins (2000:419) argue that a basic premise of Vroom's expectancy theory is that the tendency to behave in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectation that the behaviour will yield a certain outcome, and on the extent to which the individual values or desires that outcome. In practical terms, the expectancy theory holds that employees are rational beings who will be motivated to put more effort in their work when they believe that their efforts will lead to a good performance appraisal, that a good appraisal will enable them to reap organizational rewards like bonuses, promotions or salary increase, and that these rewards will actually gratify their personal goals. Hellriegel et al (1992:221) maintain that, in general terms, the expectancy theory highlights the fact that individuals have their own varying needs and ideas about what they value or desire from their work. People are therefore influenced by these needs and ideas when taking decisions about which organization to join and how much effort to exert in their work. The theory holds that human motivation at work is largely determined by the situation facing those involved and how it fits

their needs.

The expectancy theory of Vroom consists of five related variables which are very important for understanding the theory. The five variables are: first level and second level outcomes, expectancy, valence and instrumentality (Hellriegel et al, 1992:221).

- “First Level outcomes” refers to the direct consequences of behaviors associated with doing the job itself. Examples of such outcomes could include quality of work, productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Hellriegel et al, 1992:221).
- “Second Level outcomes” refers to rewards (either positive or negative) that are likely to be yielded by first level outcomes. These outcomes include promotion, salary increase, security, belongingness and promotion (Hellriegel et al, 1992:221).
- Expectancy refers to the belief that a certain level of effort will be followed by a certain level of performance. Therefore, expectancy can be seen as an effort-performance relationship (Van Dyk, 1992:310) and (Robbins, 2000:420).
- Instrumentality refers to the extent to which the person believes that performing at a particular level will result in the desired outcome. Instrumentality can also be seen as a performance-rewards relationship (Robbins, 2000:420).
- Valence refers to the extent of preference that an individual has for a potential second level outcome (Van Dyk, 1992:311) and (Owens, 1981:128). According to Robbins (2000:420), valence can be regarded as rewards-personal goals relationship. This means that the motivational value of the reward is dependent on the personal goals of the individual. For example, the likelihood of being promoted to a higher - paying position may have a high valence for people who place a high value on money (Stoner and Wankel, 1986:434).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:151-152) highlight the importance of the educational implications of the expectancy theory. They argue that since teachers have different personal goals, the

rewards that appeal to some educators may not be attractive to others. Individual teacher motivation should be regarded as dependent on the teacher's perception that his or her increased performance will yield attractive rewards that will assist him or her to achieve personal goals. It is therefore important for educational leaders not to assume that every teacher wants the same thing.

2.5.2.2 Adams' equity theory of motivation

According to Swanepoel (1998:359) individuals do not work in a vacuum. People work with others and are inclined to make comparisons between their perceived efforts and accompanying compensation and the efforts of others and their rewards. The equity theory states that the employee compares his or her input-outcome ratio with the input-outcome ratio of comparable others. When these ratios are perceived as equal to that of relevant others, a state of equity exists. A state of equity has no motivational value as the person perceives the situation to be fair. However, Van Dyk (1992:313) maintains that if a worker views his or her inputs and outcomes as not equal to those of a comparable worker, feelings of inequity and dissatisfaction set in. The imbalance of the situation creates tension in the individual. Because the individual perceives the situation as unfair, he or she is motivated to behave in a manner that will restore the desired equity.

Robbins (2000:418) mentions four referent comparisons used by employees in equity theory:

- Self-inside: This refers to the worker's experiences in a position different from the one that he is presently holding inside his or her current organization.
- Self-outside: A comparison is made between the worker's experiences in a situation or position outside his or her present organization.
- Other-inside: A comparison is made between the employee and another individual or a group of individuals inside his or her current organization.

- Other-outside: A comparison between the employee and another individual or a group of individuals outside his or her present organization.

Swanepoel (1998:359) and Van Dyk (1992:313) explain inputs as referring to anything that the person invests in a given task, such as experience, effort, education, skills, time and money. Outcomes are anything that the employee regards as yield from work. Outcomes may be positive or negative. Positive outcomes include salary, praise, recognition, intrinsic job satisfaction, satisfactory supervision, promotion and status. Negative outcomes on the other hand, include absence or lack of security, monotony, unsatisfactory working conditions and other hygiene factors. The equity model can be expressed by the equation illustrated below:

Figure 2.4 The equity model

Perception of own inputs	=	Perception of others' inputs
Perception of own outcomes	=	Perception of others outcomes

Source: Swanepoel 1998:359

If the portrayed equality is not evident, either because the left-hand ratio is bigger or smaller than the right-hand ratio, a situation of inequity develops and the individual perceives the whole situation as unfair. Consequently, the employee will be motivated to restore the balance by either one or more of the following:

- withdrawing from the situation (for example, by resigning from the organization);
- changing his/her own actual inputs by reducing or increasing them as the situation demands;
- changing his/her own outcomes if the outcome-input ratio is perceived as lower than that of a comparable employee;
- distorting the perception of his/her own or the other's inputs and /or outcomes

- subjectively by allocating changed weights to both inputs and outcomes;
- behaving in a particular manner that tends to influence others to change their inputs and/or outcomes;
 - changing the object of his/her comparison by selecting a different employee for comparison purposes.

The above discussion has educational implications. It highlights the fact that educators are inclined to compare themselves with their colleagues in terms of their skills, experience, qualification, workload, salaries and quality of performance. Any form of inequity perceived by teachers to be existing in the school situation invariably leads to discontent. Dissatisfied teachers could be motivated to restore equity in the workplace by resorting to actions that may be harmful to the school. It is therefore imperative that all concerned should strive to ensuring equity in the school in a bid to improve teachers' performance.

2.4.2.3 Locke's goal setting theory

Swanepoel (1998:356) and Robbins (2000:416) argue that the goal-setting theory postulates that all other factors being constant, people will be motivated to perform better if they are aiming at a specific goal than when they are expected to perform without a clear and definite objective in mind. Therefore, the basic premise of the theory is that clear and definite goals act as powerful motivators for they inform the person about what needs to be done and what amount of effort will be required to achieve the goal. According to McCormick and Ilgen (Magade, 1997:13) "goal-setting functions by directing attention and action, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and encouraging the development of strategies to achieve the goal".

Hellriegel et al (1992:248) suggest that there are two key characteristics of goals which are notably important for individual goal-setting:

- Goal difficulty
Goals should be reasonably challenging. Goals that are easily attainable do not have any motivational potential. On the other hand individuals will not be motivated to attain a goal that they perceive to be unrealistically difficult.
- Goal clarity
As already indicated, clear and definite goals operate as powerful motivators as they inform the individual clearly about what he or she is expected to accomplish so that he/she does not have to engage in guesswork.

Hellriegel et al (1992:249) argue that clear and challenging goals enable employees to focus their efforts on job-related tasks: to aim at performing optimally in order to achieve the desired goal. Another additional factor that influences the creation of challenging goals is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to the individual's belief that he or she can perform at a certain level in a given situation. Typically, individuals who set high goals for themselves have more confidence in themselves than those who set lower goals for themselves.

Swanepoel (1998:357) is of the opinion that people will perform significantly better if they are provided with ongoing feedback on how well they are progressing. Feedback is important because it enlightens employees about the gaps between what they have achieved thus far and what they wish to achieve. Goal commitment can be substantially increased if goals are not imposed on individuals but rather self-set and if the person has an internal locus of control.

Educationally, the theory implies that principals should set realistic, challenging and clear goals for their schools. Educators should be encouraged to actively participate in the formulation of school goals. This will motivate them to identify with school goals and to give their utmost best in the accomplishment of these goals. It is also important for principals to give regular feedback to educators so as to enhance the quality of work being done by engaging in corrective action where necessary.

2.5.2.4 Reinforcement theory

The underlying assumption of the reinforcement theory is that consequences shape subsequent behavior. In other words, human behavior can be explained in terms of consequences. For example if an employee receives a reward for displaying a certain behavior, the likelihood exists that the behavior will be repeated. When the behavior is not rewarded or if it is punished, the probability that the behavior will be repeated decreases. In this case, the behavior is extinguished (Swanepoel 1998:362-363 & Robbins, 2000:417). Arnold and Feldman (Magade, 1997:19) in agreement explain that the theory asserts that behavior followed by pleasant or positive consequences are more likely to be repeated. Behaviors yielding unpleasant or negative consequences are less likely to be repeated.

According to Stoner and Wankel (1986:429), the reinforcement theory posits that work behaviors are learned. It ignores the inner state of the person and solely concentrates on the consequences of a person's actions. In supporting the theory, its proponents cite examples such as rewarding a child for obedience, giving praise for good performance, salary increase resulting from high performance, as linked to reinforcement, Arnold and Feldman (Magade, 1997:20) further argue that negative reinforcement may also be used to encourage acceptable behavior. They maintain that punishment is actually aimed at decreasing or eliminating undesirable conduct.

Swanepoel (1998:363) highlights the importance of distinguishing between withholding rewards for behavior displayed and actually punishing the behavior. Although the two relate to negative types or reinforcement, they however, have different behavioral implications. For example, suspension of bonuses can be seen as related to withholding the reinforcement, whereas reprimanding and warning an employee for improper behavior could be regarded as an example of punishment.

The reinforcement theory has important educational implications. It emphasizes the importance

of giving recognition to teachers' achievements by giving praise and rewards as incentives. Positive reinforcement ultimately results in teacher motivation.

According to Robbins (2000:417), strictly speaking, the reinforcement theory is not a theory of motivation for it fails to account for what initiates behavior. He contends, however, that since the theory provides a powerful means of analysis of what controls human conduct, it will always feature in motivation-related discussion.

2.6 IMPLICATIONS OF VARIOUS MOTIVATION THEORIES FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

According to Swanepoel (1998:348), "there is no one managerial approach based on one set of assumptions about the nature of man that will be appropriate for all employees at all times under all circumstances". This assertion by Swanepoel is extremely important as it highlights the fact that there is no single theory of motivation that can adequately account for all human behavior at all times and in all situations. Terpstra (1981:67) is of the opinion that it is advisable for managers to borrow only the best from each theory of motivation. Furthermore, Pearson (1991:176) advises that leaders should only borrow aspects of motivational theory that can be applied in practical life.

For example, Swanepoel (1998:353) argues that possibly the most important practical worth of Maslow's theory is in the reality that it emphasizes the fact that individuals have differing needs and are therefore motivated by different factors. It also highlights the fact that a powerful motivator for a person at one time may not be effective at another time. It is therefore important for educational leaders to realize that all teachers at school are motivated. It is also crucial for educational managers to identify the needs of individual teachers in their schools, reconcile these needs with school goals, and motivate the involved teachers accordingly. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:136) teachers will not be motivated to pursue higher-order needs such as recognition and achievement if their lower-order needs like job security and pension are

not guaranteed.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971:136) also maintain that performance is intimately related to meaningful satisfaction of higher-order needs such as esteem, autonomy and self-fulfillment. Therefore, teachers can only gratify these needs by striving towards the achievement of school goals. It is important for educational leaders to provide opportunities for gratification of teachers' higher-order needs. By giving teachers responsibility, and thus, allowing them to have control over their work situation, educational leaders will be providing an opportunity for the teachers to attain autonomy. It can also be argued that teachers' social needs can be satisfied through effective team-work aimed at achieving school goals.

Robbins (2000:410) argues that Alderfer's ERG theory has important practical implication for managers and leaders. The frustration - regression of the ERG theory helps managers and educational administrators as well, to understand why many employees (teachers) are particularly concerned about lower-order needs such as demands for higher salaries and benefits. The theory argues that when employees become frustrated by unsatisfied higher-order needs, they tend to demand greater gratification of lower-order needs. It is therefore very important for educational leaders to provide opportunities for teacher growth. Swanepoel (1998:354) is of the opinion that, contrary to Marlow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's ERG theory assumes that more than one need can be activated in the same individual, at the same time. This implies that educational managers should attend to different levels of needs simultaneously.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:149) maintain that Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory should be applied with caution in practice. They argue that the theory erroneously claims that only satisfiers (work itself, recognition, responsibility, advancement and achievement) are capable of motivating. According to them, hygiene factors such as money do motivate some individuals even though this is an exception to the general rule. Some teachers who seem more concerned about hygiene factors than motivational factors are those who have the potential for growth, but who

are frustrated by insensitive and close administrative supervision, and school policies and practices. It is important for school managers to ensure that hygiene factors are in place at school to prevent teachers dissatisfaction. However, it is vitally important that managers attend to motivational factors for these factors serve teachers, need for psychological growth. According to Haefele (1993:29) the top five satisfiers of work performance involve doing the job, liking the job, achieving success in doing the job, receiving recognition for doing the job and moving upward as a sign of professional growth.

Robbins (2000:415) recommends an approach that could lead to increased motivation for employee (teachers) performance. Employees should be given mentally challenging jobs. In agreement with Herzberg's recommendations, teachers tend to prefer tasks that demand them to use their skills and abilities and offer freedom and feedback on their progress. They also prefer jobs that offer a variety of tasks. Owens (1981:122) concurred with Robbins when he recommended that educational leaders should enrich jobs by making them more interesting, more challenging and more rewarding.

Owens (1981:122) also suggests that educational managers should increase autonomy on the job. This means that teachers should be allowed to be actively involved in decision making processes that involve the way instructional tasks should be carried out. Furthermore, Owens states that managers should expand personnel administration beyond its traditional emphasis on hygiene factors such as contract administration and pension plans. According to him personnel administration should be directed towards increasing the motivational factors which are present in the work.

Haefele (1993:29) maintains that successful performance leads to recognition. Therefore, recognition of outstanding performance by teachers can act as a powerful intrinsic reward. Recognition may also include ordinary sincere praises from colleagues, administrators and parents. Teachers will therefore be motivated if all stakeholders give recognition to their achievements.

Haefele (1993:28) indicates the importance of Locke's goal-setting theory in practical terms. According to him evaluation of teachers by principals and their school management teams should focus on setting clearly defined goals, and on explaining and describing specific procedures to be followed in ensuring successful attainment of those goals. He argues that clearly defined goals inspire teachers to appreciate the importance of teacher evaluation. Educational managers should give regular feedback to staff on how well they are progressing towards school goals.

Redfern (Haefele, 1993:28) states that "successful teaching is no accident. It rarely just happens." According to Redfern, success is more often than not the outcome of carefully planned goals. This supports the contention that goal-setting motivates teachers to put more effort in their work, to persist against difficulties and to follow a direction that will lead to the realization of school goals. Haefele (1993:28) further states that goal-setting encourages teachers to strive to attain unique goals that are specific to their classroom situation. He also observes that one of Herzberg's high motivators (achievement) is related to goal - setting. In this respect, he contends that goal - setting and the pursuit of goals indicate an achievement orientation in that successful achievement of a person's goals is rewarded by a strong feeling of achievement. Teachers are always pleased by the knowledge that they have achieved or significantly progressed toward their educational goal at the end of the year. Thus, achievement and goal - setting act as motivators of high performance. Educational managers should therefore set clear, realistic and attainable goals if they wish to effectively motivate educators towards performing optimally in their work.

McClelland's three needs theory also has implications for education and educational leaders. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:142), teachers with a strong need for achievement have the potential to contribute significantly towards school goals. Educators with a high need for achievement exhibit an entrepreneurial responsibility characterized by moderate risk taking, individual responsibility and accountability for behavior and the need for knowledge of results. Such teachers require that principals should identify their needs and provide opportunities for them to excel and yield excellent outcomes for the school. Managers should be wary of the fact

that teachers with a high need for achievement may contribute negatively to the school if their behavior is stifled.

Vroom's expectancy theory contains some important implications for educational management. Sergiovani and Starratt (1988:151) believe that Vroom's expectancy theory is based on the assumption that individual motivation is dependent on the person's perception that if he or she increases his or her performance it will result in definite rewards that will help him or her to achieve personal goals. According to Purkey (1970:2) human conduct is the consequence of the way people see themselves, others and the world in which they live. Brazelle (2001:3) urges teachers to come to the realization that the most critical and decisive perceptions that are instrumental in their success or failure are the perceptions that they have of themselves. The self-concept therefore plays a major role in the motivation of teachers.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:152) argue that, for effective teacher motivation to occur, educational managers should identify what personal goals each teacher values. They should not take it for granted that every educator wants the same thing. For instance, while responsibility is regarded as an important motivational factor in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, not all educators put high value on responsibility. Supervisors should determine the kind of outcomes they wish to attain so as to be able to set some standards that specify what they are trying to achieve. They should set attainable and realistic standards for educators and be ready to provide the necessary support to help teachers in attaining these standards. Swanepoel (1998:362) advises that leaders should attempt to ascertain the personal goals of subordinates and to link those to organizational rewards. For example, young teachers may not be very concerned about their pensions. It is also crucial for educational leaders to ascertain whether teachers perceive the performance standards as within reach and that rewards will succeed performance.

Robbins (2000:415) asserts that the importance of Adam's equity theory lies in that it enlightens managers of the fact that workers prefer salary systems and promotion policies that they regard

as being just, unambiguous, and in agreement with their expectations. Pay or rewards that are perceived as fair are likely to lead to more job satisfaction and motivation.

According to Robbins (2000:417), there could be no doubt that reinforcement is an important factor in behaviour. For example, if an employee's (teacher) colleagues continuously criticize and rebuke him/her for performing better than they do, his/her performance is likely to decline in the long run. Managers and educational administrators should always give praise and incentives for good performance as this increases the likelihood that the behavior will be repeated. Swanepoel (1998:365) warns that it may be useful for managers who are faced with behavioral problems manifested by employees to check whether their responses to subordinates are not partially responsible for the unwanted behaviors.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988:153) express the concern that need-oriented motivation theories should not be interpreted literally. Also, these theories should not be used excessively. The problem inherent in the overuse of the theories is that they could be turned into a bartering system where one good is exchanged for another. For example, teachers will teach effectively only if their efforts are rewarded by being given recognition. Teachers should take cognisance of the fact that when they take extra time with learners who have learning problems, they are merely doing what is expected of them as professionals.

In conclusion, Swanepoel (1998:367) arrives at the conclusion that it is important for managers to have adequate knowledge of the various theoretical viewpoints involving employee motivation. It is advisable to use the eclectic approach and select them according to their utility in specified work situations. Managers should not, therefore, regard a single motivation theory as the most or least effective.

2.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter an attempt has been made to look into the meaning of motivation as given by various authors and varying schools of thought. The literature review has also helped to reveal the educational implications of motivation in schools. The next chapter will serve to explore and investigate the level of motivation of educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District of the Eastern Free State.

CHAPTER 3

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results from the investigation conducted to determine the level of motivation of secondary school educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District of the Eastern Free State Region will be presented, analysed and interpreted. Then the purpose of the empirical study as well as the method of investigation employed to attain the level of motivation of educators in the selected schools will be briefly highlighted.

3.2 THE PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The main objectives of the empirical investigation were:

- To investigate the current level of motivation of secondary school educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District.
- To present an exposition of the data collected by means of a questionnaire.
- To analyze and interpret the data collected against the background of the theoretical study, and offer recommendations on what can be done to improve the current level of motivation of secondary schools educators of the targeted schools.

3.3 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

3.3.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was used to collect data from educators at 10 randomly selected secondary schools in the Thabo Mofutsanyana education district. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. Respondents were provided with clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire at the beginning of each part as well as each section of part B.

Part A of the questionnaire dealt with the biographical information of each respondent which included, *inter alia*, gender, age group, teaching experience in years, professional qualifications, academic qualifications and the status of the educators' employment (temporary or permanent). Part B of the questionnaire was further divided into two sections, namely, Section A and Section B. In Section A 20 needs of employees were described and respondents were required to evaluate these needs on a five-point scale comprising: definitely no need, no need, uncertain (I cannot decide whether there is a need or not), need, and urgent need. In Section B, the same needs described in section A were given. However respondents had to assess the needs again and rate them according to the extent to which opportunities exist in their current work situation to satisfy each need. The following five-point scale was used: definitely no opportunity, no opportunity, uncertain (I cannot decide whether there are opportunities), opportunities, and, definitely there are opportunities.

For the purpose of this research and further elucidation of the needs described in the questionnaire, the 20 needs in tables 3.1 to 3.13 and in the accompanying discussions have been shortened as follows (cf Appendix A):

Needs description	Shortened form
1. To be given the chance to do something that makes use of your ability	1. Ability utilization
2. To feel that you have achieved something in your job	2. Achievement
3. To be able to keep busy all the time	3. Activity
4. To be provided with a chance for advancement in your job.	4. Advancement
5. To be afforded the opportunity to tell other people how to do things	5. Authority
6. To be given a chance to comment about the way department policies are put into practice	6. Department policies and practices
7. To experience harmony between your pay and the amount of the work you do.	7. Compensation
8. To be afforded a chance to improve the way your colleagues get along with each other.	8. Colleagues
9. To be afforded the chance to try your own method of doing the job.	9. Creativity
10. To be given the chance to work alone on an assigned job.	10. Independence
11. To be able to do things that don't go against your conscience	11. Moral values
12. To be praised for doing a good job	12. Recognition
13. To be afforded the freedom to use your own judgement	13. Responsibility
14. To feel that your job provides for a steady, permanent employment	14. Security
15. To be given the chance to do things for other people	15. Social service
16. The chance to be "someone" in the community.	16. Social Status
17. To maintain good relationships with your supervisor.	17. Supervision- human relations
18. To improve the competence of your supervisor in making decisions	18. Supervision- technical
19. The chance to do different things from time to time.	19. Variety
20. To work in a situation where the physical conditions are conducive to teaching and learning	20. Working conditions

3.3.2 The target group

The target group comprised educators from 10 randomly selected secondary schools in the Thabo Mofutsanyana education district. The total number of secondary school in this district is 96. The researcher distributed 200 questionnaires to the targeted schools and a total of 184 were recovered and used in the research study.

3.3.3 Computing the research data

The raw data were computed by the department of statistics at the University of the Free State. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Primer (SPSS primer) was used to do the computation. The mean for various combinations of the raw data was calculated and formed the basis of the computation.

3.4 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH DATA

3.4.1 Needs and opportunities to satisfy needs of respondents

Table 3.1 indicates the needs of the target group in comparison with the extent to which their jobs provide opportunities to satisfy the needs.

Table 3.1: Comparison of needs and opportunities to satisfy needs of respondents

Need Description	Need Urgency N = 184		Opportunity Provided N = 184		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1359	6	3,4022	5	0,7337	0,000*
2. Achievement	4,1359	6	3,4076	4	0,7283	0,000*
3. Activity	3,6033	17	3,4891	2	0,1141	0,054
4. Advancement	4,3967	2	3,3696	6	1,0271	0,000*
5. Authority	4,0000	12	3,3587	7	0,6413	0,000*
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,2880	4	2,9565	20	1,3315	0,000*
7. Compensation	4,3859	3	3,0163	19	1,3696	0,000*
8. Colleague	4,0815	11	3,2663	13	0,8152	0,000*
9. Creativity	3,9891	14	3,2011	16	0,7880	0,000*
10. Independence	3,4511	19	3,2391	14	0,2120	0,080
11. Moral values	3,3261	20	3,1196	18	0,2065	0,085
12. Recognition	3,9946	13	3,3533	8	0,6413	0,000*
13. Responsibility	4,0978	10	3,2337	15	0,8641	0,000*
14. Security	4,1141	8	3,4185	3	0,6956	0,000*
15. Social service	3,5652	18	3,2935	11	0,2717	0,007*
16. Social status	3,9674	15	3,3478	9	0,6196	0,000*
17. Supervision-human relation	4,2609	5	3,7011	1	0,5598	0,000*
18. Supervision-technical	4,1087	9	3,2772	12	0,8315	0,000*
19. Variety	3,9076	16	3,1685	17	0,7391	0,000*
20. Working conditions	4,5761	1	3,3043	10	1,2717	0,000*
TOTAL	80,3859		65,9239		14,4620	0,000*

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.1 indicates that the mean for each of the 20 described needs is above 3,0000, with 12 of the means above 4,0000. This implies that all the respondents regard the described needs as their personal needs as educators and therefore as important for their well-being. Accordingly, the table shows that the least urgent need is the one for moral values (mean = 3,3261). It also reveals that the most urgent need with which the target group identifies is the need to work in a situation

where the physical conditions are conducive for teaching and learning (mean = 4,5761). The table further shows that four other important needs following the most urgent one are respectively the need to: be provided with a chance for advancement in the job (mean = 4,3967), experience harmony between compensation and the amount of work done (mean = 4,3859), comment about the way departmental policies are put into practice (mean = 4,2880) and maintaining good relationships with the supervisors (mean = 4,2609).

The table shows that whereas compensation (mean = 4,3859) and departmental policies and practices (mean = 4,2880) fall within the top five most desired needs, they are however the least provided for in terms of opportunities for satisfying. This implies that there exists a wide gap between what respondents need with regard to the two described needs and what their schools have to offer to satisfy these needs.

Table 3.1 also indicates that the top five needs that are afforded opportunities for satisfaction are respectively : the need to maintain good relationship with one's supervisor (mean = 3,7011), the need to be able to keep busy all the time (mean = 3,4891), the need for job security (mean = 3,4185), the need for achievement (mean = 3,4076) and the need for ability utilization (mean = 3,4022). The mean for the least satisfied need-departmental policies and practices-is 2,9565.

Table 3.1 also clearly indicates an overall significant disparity between what the respondents regard as their personal needs and the opportunities their schools offer for the satisfaction of these needs. This is clearly evident from the fact that the differences between the urgency of needs and the opportunity to satisfy them are in 17 of the 20 cases statistically significant.

Finally, Table 3.1 indicates that only one of the top five ranked needs (supervisor: human relations, ranked 5) is also in the top group of five with regard to opportunities for satisfaction (supervision : human relations, ranked 1).

3.4.2 Comparison of needs of respondents according to gender

Table 3.2 contains a comparison of the needs of female and male respondents.

Table 3.2 : Comparison of needs of respondents according to gender.

Need Description	Male N = 109		Female N = 75		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1376	8	4,1333	7	0,0043	0,973
2. Achievement	4,1560	7	4,1067	8	0,0493	0,669
3. Activity	3,5596	18	3,6667	17	-0,1071	0,455
4. Advancement	4,4495	2	4,3200	3	0,1295	0,244
5. Authority	4,0275	12	3,9600	13	0,0675	0,616
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,2752	4	4,3067	4	-0,0315	0,786
7. Compensation	4,3670	3	4,4133	2	-0,0463	0,682
8. Colleagues	4,1009	10	4,0533	11	0,0476	0,738
9. Creativity	3,9817	14	4,0000	12	-0,0183	0,899
10. Independence	3,4404	19	3,4667	19	-0,0263	0,884
11. Moral values	3,4220	20	3,1867	20	0,2353	0,193
12. Recognition	3,9358	15	4,0800	10	-0,1442	0,343
13. Responsibility	4,1927	6	3,9600	13	0,2327	0,027*
14. Security	4,0826	11	4,1600	6	-0,0774	0,585
15. Social services	3,6239	17	3,4800	18	0,1439	0,399
16. Social status	4,0092	13	3,9067	16	0,1025	0,477
17. Supervision -human relations	4,2385	5	4,2933	5	-0,0548	0,644
18. Supervision-technical	4,1101	9	4,1067	8	0,0034	0,980
19. Variety	3,8991	16	3,9200	15	-0,0209	0,867
20. Working conditions	4,5505	1	4,6133	1	-0,0628	0,581
TOTAL	80,5596		80,1333		0,4263	0,722

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.2 shows similarities between the five most urgent needs of the two groups. These similarities are evident from the information in Table 3.2 (a) below.

Table 3.2(a) : Comparison between the five most urgent needs of males and females

Need Description	Rank order (Need urgency) Male	Mean	Rank order (Need urgency) Female	Mean
Working conditions	1	4,5505	1	4,6133
Advancement	2	4,4495	3	4,3200
Compensation	3	4,3670	2	4,4133
Departmental policies and practices	4	4,2752	4	4,3067
Supervision - human relations	5	4,2385	5	4,2933

Table 3.2 also shows that both groups consider the need for independence and the need for moral values as their least urgent needs. Table 3.2 further indicates that while there are differences between the needs of males and females, these differences are not statistically significant except in the case of the responsibility where male respondents have a significantly higher need (mean = 4,1927) than females (mean = 3,9600)

3.4.3 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to gender groups

Table 3.3 contains a comparison of the opportunities of male and female respondents to satisfy their needs.

Table 3.3 : Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to gender.

Need Description	Male N = 109		Female N = 75		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,6330	2	3,0667	13	0,5664	0,003*
2. Achievement	3,4954	8	3,2800	3	0,2154	0,260
3. Activity	3,6055	3	3,3200	2	0,2855	0,078
4. Advancement	3,5229	6	3,1467	6	0,3762	0,049*
5. Authority	3,5413	5	3,0933	11	0,4480	0,011*
6. Departmental policies and practices	3,2018	18	2,6000	20	0,6018	0,005*
7. Compensation	3,1651	20	2,8000	19	0,3651	0,064
8. Colleagues	3,4404	11	3,0133	14	0,4271	0,021*
9. Creativity	3,4128	13	2,8933	17	0,5195	0,010*
10. Independence	3,4862	10	2,8800	18	0,6062	0,001*
11. Moral values	3,1927	19	3,0133	14	0,1794	0,291
12. Recognition	3,5046	7	3,1333	7	0,3713	0,073
13. Responsibility	3,4312	12	2,9467	16	0,4845	0,013*
14. Security	3,5505	4	3,2267	4	0,3238	0,096
15. Social services	3,4037	14	3,1333	7	0,2704	0,116
16. Social status	3,4954	8	3,1333	7	0,3621	0,056
17. Supervisor -human relation	3,8716	1	3,4533	1	0,4183	0,012*
18. Supervision-technical	3,3761	16	3,1333	7	0,2428	0,234
19. Variety	3,2202	17	3,0933	11	0,1269	0,478
20. Working conditions	3,3945	15	3,1733	5	0,2212	0,298
TOTAL	68,9450		61,5333		7,4117	0,009*

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.3 indicates that male respondents rated their present jobs as providing more opportunities than their female colleagues. This is supported by the fact that for every described need in the table the means of the males are higher than those of the females. Furthermore, in nine cases of the described needs, the difference between the means is statistically significant. The same applies to the difference between the sums of the means.

Table 3.3 also reveals that both males and females regard the need for supervision: human relations as being satisfied by their jobs more than any other need. The differences of their means, however, is statistically significant. Furthermore, table 3.3 shows that both male and female groups regard departmental policies and practices and compensation as forming part of the needs that are provided with the least opportunities for satisfying by their jobs.

3.4.4 Comparison of needs of respondents according to age group

Table 3.4 shows a comparison of the needs of the respondents according to age group. Group 1 represents respondents who are 40 years old or younger while group 2 represents respondents who are older than 40 years.

Table 3.4 : Comparison of needs of respondents according to age group

Need Description	Group 1 N = 123		Group 2 N = 61		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1545	6	4,0984	11	0,0561	0,674
2. Achievement	4,1138	7	4,1803	7	-0,0665	0,581
3. Activity	3,5772	18	3,6557	17	-0,0785	0,600
4. Advancement	4,4225	2	4,3443	3	0,0782	0,499
5. Authority	4,0407	13	3,9180	13	0,1227	0,382
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,2927	4	4,2787	4	0,0140	0,908
7. Compensation	4,3984	3	4,3607	2	0,0377	0,750
8. Colleagues	4,0650	10	4,1148	9	-0,0498	0,738
9. Creativity	3,9756	15	4,0164	12	-0,0408	0,788
10. Independence	3,5691	19	3,2131	20	0,3560	0,057
11. Moral values	3,3659	20	3,2459	19	0,1200	0,525
12. Recognition	4,0732	9	3,8361	15	0,2371	0,135
13. Responsibility	4,0569	11	4,1803	7	-0,1234	0,263
14. Security	4,0488	12	4,2499	6	-0,1971	0,182
15. Social services	3,6098	17	3,4754	18	0,1344	0,451
16. Social status	4,0000	14	3,9016	14	0,0984	0,513
17. Supervisor -human relation	4,2520	5	4,2787	4	-0,0267	0,830
18. Supervision-technical	4,1057	8	4,1148	9	-0,0091	0,949
19. Variety	3,9593	16	3,8033	16	0,1560	0,230
20. Working conditions	4,5122	1	4,7049	1	-0,1927	0,104
TOTAL	80,5935		79,9672		0,6263	0,616

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.4 indicates a similarity between the five most urgent needs for both group 1 and group

2. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.4(a).

Table 3.4 (a) : Comparison between the five most urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 2	Mean
Working conditions	1	4,5122	1	4,7049
Advancement	2	4,4225	3	4,3443
Compensation	3	4,3984	2	4,3607
Departmental policies and practices	4	4,2927	4	4,2787
Supervision - human relations	5	4,2520	4	4,2787

Table 3.4 further shows a similarity between the five least urgent needs for both group 1 and group 2. This similarity is shown in Table 3.4(b)

Table 3.4 (b) Comparison between the five least urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,9593	16	3,8033
Social service	16	3,6098	18	3,4754
Activity	18	3,5772	17	3,6557
Independence	19	3,5691	20	3,2131
Moral value	20	3,3659	19	3,2459

From the information recorded in tables 3.4, 3.4(a) and 3.4 (b), one can conclude that in most cases educators older than 40 years experience the same needs as educators younger than them. This is supported by the fact that the difference between the means of the groups are not statistically significant.

3.4.5 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to age group

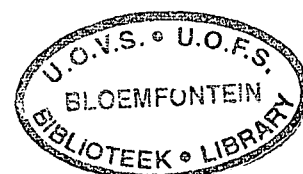
Table 3.5 contains a comparison of the opportunities of respondents of different age groups to satisfy their needs. Group 1 represents respondents 40 years or younger and group 2 represents respondents who are older than 40 years.

Table 3.5 : Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to age groups

Need Description	Group 1 N = 123		Group 2 N = 61		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,4065	4	3,3934	5	0,0131	0,948
2. Achievement	3,3902	5	3,4426	3	-0,0524	0,794
3. Activity	3,3902	5	3,6885	2	-0,2983	0,078
4. Advancement	3,3902	5	3,3279	9	0,0624	0,756
5. Authority	3,3333	10	3,4098	4	-0,0765	0,681
6. Departmental policies and practices	2,9756	20	2,9180	20	0,0576	0,800
7. Compensation	2,9837	19	3,0820	18	-0,0982	0,835
8. Colleagues	3,2683	14	3,2623	11	0,0060	0,975
9. Creativity	3,3171	11	2,9672	19	0,3499	0,098
10. Independence	3,1789	17	3,3607	8	-0,1818	0,354
11. Moral values	3,1220	18	3,1148	16	0,0072	0,968
12. Recognition	3,3415	8	3,3770	7	-0,0356	0,870
13. Responsibility	3,2683	14	3,1639	14	0,1044	0,612
14. Security	3,4309	3	3,3934	5	0,0375	0,854
15. Social services	3,2927	13	3,2951	10	-0,0024	0,989
16. Social status	3,4472	2	3,1475	15	0,2996	0,130
17. Supervisor -human relation	3,6829	1	3,7377	1	-0,0548	0,754
18. Supervision-technical	3,3171	11	3,1967	13	0,1204	0,573
19. Variety	3,1951	16	3,1148	16	0,0804	0,667
20. Working conditions	3,3415	8	3,2295	12	0,1120	0,514
TOTAL	66,0732		62,6230		0,4502	0,880

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.5 indicates a high degree of similarity with regard to the opportunity for needs satisfaction between the two groups. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.5(a) where the highest ranked need satisfaction opportunities of the two groups are compared.



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Table 3.5 (a) Comparison of the highest ranked opportunities for need satisfaction: group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Supervision-human relation	1	3,6829	1	3,7377
Social status	2	3,4472	15	3,1475
Security	3	3,4309	5	3,3934
Ability utilization	4	3,4065	5	3,3934
Achievement	5	3,3902	3	3,4426
Activity	6	3,3902	2	3,6885
Authority	10	3,3333	4	3,4098

Table 3.5 further shows that there exists a similarity between the two groups with regard to the lowest ranked need satisfaction opportunities. This fact is illustrated in table 3.5(b)

Table 3.5 (b) : Comparison of the lowest ranked opportunities for need satisfaction : group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,1951	16	3,1148
Independence	17	3,1789	8	3,3607
Moral value	18	3,1220	16	3,1148
Compensation	19	2,9837	18	3,0820
Departmental policies and practices	20	2,9756	20	2,9180
Creativity	11	3,3171	19	2,9672

The similarity between the responses of the two groups is finally illustrated by the fact that none of the differences in mean scores of the two groups is statistically significant.

3.4.6 Comparison of needs of respondents according to teaching experience

Table 3.6 shows the comparison of the needs of the respondents according to years of teaching experience. Group 1 represents respondents with 40 years or less teaching experience, while group 2 has more than 40 years teaching experience.

Table 3.6 : Comparison of needs of respondents according to teaching experience

Need Description	Group 1 N = 152		Group 2 N = 32		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1908	6	3,8750	12	0,3158	0,055
2. Achievement	4,1382	7	4,1250	6	0,0132	0,930
3. Activity	3,5789	18	3,7188	15	-0,1398	0,452
4. Advancement	4,4013	3	4,3750	2	0,0263	0,855
5. Authority	4,0132	15	3,9375	11	0,0757	0,664
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,2895	4	4,2813	3	0,0082	0,956
7. Compensation	4,4079	2	4,2813	3	0,1266	0,388
8. Colleagues	4,0789	11	4,0938	8	-0,0148	0,936
9. Creativity	4,0329	13	3,7813	13	0,2516	0,180
10. Independence	3,5197	19	3,1250	20	0,3947	0,090
11. Moral values	3,3355	20	3,2813	19	0,0543	0,817
12. Recognition	4,0461	12	3,7500	14	0,2961	0,133
13. Responsibility	4,0921	10	4,1250	6	-0,0329	0,810
14. Security	4,1184	9	4,0938	8	0,0247	0,893
15. Social services	3,6053	17	3,3750	18	0,2303	0,298
16. Social status	4,0197	14	3,7188	15	0,3010	0,106
17. Supervisor -human relation	4,2566	5	4,2813	3	-0,0247	0,873
18. Supervision-technical	4,1250	8	4,0313	10	0,0938	0,596
19. Variety	3,9605	16	3,6563	17	0,3043	0,059
20. Working conditions	4,5789	1	4,5625	1	0,0164	0,911
TOTAL	80,7895		78,4688		2,3207	0,134

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.6 Shows that in 16 sets of needs described, the means for group 1 are higher than the means for group 2. There are therefore only four cases in which the means of group 2 are higher than in group 1. However in both cases the differences of the means are not statistically significant. Table 3.6 also shows that there is a strong similarity between most urgent needs experienced by group 1 and those experienced by group 2. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.6(a).

Table 3.6 (a) Comparison between the first five urgent needs of group 1 and those of group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 2	Mean
Working conditions	1	4,5789	1	4,5625
Compensation	2	4,4079	3	4,2813
Advancement	3	4,4013	2	4,3750
Departmental policies and practices	4	4,2895	3	4,2813
Supervision- human relations	5	4,2566	3	4,2813

There also exists a similarity between the least urgent needs of both groups. Table 3.6 (b) is used to illustrate this fact.

Table 3.6 (b) Comparison between the least urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need urgency) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,9605	17	3,6563
Social service	17	3,6053	18	3,3750
Activity	18	3,5789	15	3,7188
Independence	19	3,5797	20	3,1250
Moral values	20	3,3355	19	3,2813
Social Status	14	4,0197	15	0,3010

Table 3.6 Further reveals that the differences between the means of the two groups are not statistically significant.

3.4.7 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to teaching experience

Table 3.7 contains a comparison of the opportunities to satisfy needs of the respondents according to their teaching experience. Group 1 represents respondents with 40 years or less teaching experience and group 2 respondents with more than 40 years teaching experience.

Table 3.7 : Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to teaching experience

Need Description	Group 1 N = 152		Group 2 N = 32		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,3816	5	3,5000	4	-0,1184	0,631
2. Achievement	3,3750	6	3,5625	3	-0,1875	0,450
3. Activity	3,4408	2	3,7188	2	-0,2780	0,184
4. Advancement	3,3882	4	3,2813	10	0,1069	0,668
5. Authority	3,3355	8	3,4688	6	-0,1332	0,564
6. Departmental policies and practices	2,9605	20	2,9375	19	0,0230	0,935
7. Compensation	3,0329	19	2,9375	19	0,0954	0,710
8. Colleague	3,2632	12	3,2813	10	-0,0181	0,940
9. Creativity	3,2368	15	3,0313	18	0,2056	0,435
10. Independence	3,2171	16	3,3438	9	-0,1266	0,603
11. Moral values	3,0987	18	3,2188	14	-0,1201	0,586
12. Recognition	3,3224	9	3,5000	4	-0,1776	0,511
13. Responsibility	3,2500	14	3,1563	15	0,0938	0,714
14. Security	3,4342	3	3,3438	9	0,0905	0,720
15. Social service	3,2566	13	3,4688	6	-0,2122	0,342
16. Social status	3,3684	7	3,2500	13	0,1184	0,631
17. Supervision-human relation	3,6842	1	3,7813	1	-0,0970	0,655
18. Supervision-technical	3,3158	10	3,0938	17	0,2220	0,402
19. Variety	3,1776	17	3,1250	16	0,0526	0,820
20. Working conditions	3,2763	11	3,4375	8	-0,1612	0,559
Total	65,8158		66,4375		-0,6217	0,866

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.7 reveals that the means of 11 opportunities in group 2 are higher than the means in group 1. Consequently the sum total of means of group 2 (mean = 66,4375) is higher than that of group 1 (mean = 65,8158). However the differences between the means of group 1 and group 2 are not statistically significant. The same applies to the difference between the totals of their means.

Table 3.7 also shows that there are similarities between the highest ranked needs satisfaction opportunities of the two groups. This is shown in table 3.7 (a).

Table 3.7 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Supervision-human relations	1	3,6842	1	3,7813
Activity	2	3,4408	2	3,7188
Security	3	3,4342	9	3,3438
Advancement	4	3,3882	10	3,2813
Ability utilization	5	3,3816	4	3,5000
Achievement	6	3,3750	3	3,5625
Recognition	9	3,3224	4	3,5000

Table 3.7 further reveals similarities between the least satisfied needs of the groups. This is illustrated in table 3.7 (b).

Table 3.7 (b) : Comparison of the lowest ranked opportunities for need satisfaction : group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Independence	16	3,2171	9	3,3438
Variety	17	3,1776	16	3,1250
Moral values	18	3,0987	14	3,2188
Compensation	19	3,0329	19	2,9375
Departmental policies and practices	20	2,9605	19	2,9375
Supervision: Technical	10	3,3158	17	3,0938
Creativity	15	3,2368	18	3,0313

Finally, the information in table 3.7 shows that none of the differences in mean scores is statistically significant.

3.4.8 Comparison of needs of respondents according to professional qualifications

Table 3.8 Contains a comparison of the needs of the respondents according to their professional qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with a first teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification while group 2 has other higher professional qualifications.

Table 3.8 : Comparison of needs of respondents according to professional qualifications.

Need Description	Group 1 N = 126		Group 2 N = 58		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1746	6	4,0517	11	0,1229	0,363
2. Achievement	4,1746	6	4,0517	11	0,1229	0,314
3. Activity	3,5873	18	3,6379	17	-0,0506	0,739
4. Advancement	4,3889	2	4,4138	3	-0,0249	0,833
5. Authority	3,9286	15	4,1552	8	-0,2266	0,110
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,2222	5	4,4310	2	-0,2088	0,086
7. Compensation	4,3810	3	4,3966	4	-0,0156	0,896
8. Colleagues	4,0079	11	4,2414	6	-0,2334	0,120
9. Creativity	3,9444	14	4,0862	9	-0,1418	0,355
10. Independence	3,4365	19	3,4828	19	-0,0463	0,808
11. Moral values	3,4048	20	3,1552	20	0,2496	0,191
12. Recognition	4,0000	13	3,9828	13	0,0172	0,915
13. Responsibility	4,1587	8	3,9655	14	0,1932	0,083
14. Security	4,1349	9	4,0690	10	0,0660	0,660
15. Social services	3,5952	17	3,5000	18	0,0952	0,598
16. Social status	4,0079	11	3,8793	16	0,1286	0,399
17. Supervisor -human relation	4,2381	4	4,3103	5	-0,0722	0,565
18. Supervision-technical	4,0794	10	4,1724	7	-0,0930	0,518
19. Variety	3,9048	16	3,9138	15	-0,0090	0,945
20. Working conditions	4,5159	1	4,7069	1	-0,1910	0,112
TOTAL	80,2857		80,6034		-0,3177	0,802

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.8 indicates that group 2 has the means of 12 sets of needs higher than those of group 1. In all the eight remaining sets of needs, the means in group 1 are higher than those in group 2. However in all the above cases, the differences between the means of group 1 and group 2 are not statistically significant.

Table 3.8 also reveals a similarity between the most urgent needs of group 1 and group 2. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.8(a).

Table 3.8 (a) : Comparison between the most urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Description of Need	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 2	Mean
Working conditions	1	4,5159	1	4,7059
Advancement	2	4,3889	3	4,4138
Compensation	3	4,3810	4	4,3966
Supervision- human relations	4	4,2381	5	4,3103
Departmental policies and practices	5	4,2222	2	4,4310

Table 3.8 further reveals that there exists a similarity between the lowest needs of group 1 and group 2. This information is illustrated in table 3.8 (b).

Table 3.8 (b) : Comparison between the five least urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Description of Need	Rank order (Need Urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,9048	15	3,9138
Social service	17	3,5952	18	3,5000
Activity	18	3,5873	17	3,6379
Independence	19	3,4365	19	3,4828
Moral values	20	3,4048	20	3,1552

Finally, the fact that the differences between the means in group 1 and those in group 2 are not statistically significant in table 3.8, implies that respondents with further professional qualifications experience the same needs as those of respondents with only a teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification.

3.4.9 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to professional qualifications of respondents

Table 3.9 contains a comparison of the opportunities to satisfy needs of the respondents according to their professional qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with a first teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification while group 2 has other higher professional qualifications.

Table 3.9 : Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to professional qualifications

Need Description	Group 1 N = 126		Group 2 N = 58		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,4762	2	3,2414	6	0,2348	0,243
2. Achievement	3,4127	7	3,3966	3	0,0161	0,937
3. Activity	3,4127	7	3,6552	2	-0,2455	0,158
4. Advancement	3,4444	4	3,2069	7	0,2375	0,242
5. Authority	3,3810	10	3,3103	4	0,0706	0,708
6. Departmental policies and practices	3,0556	20	2,7414	20	0,3142	0,172
7. Compensation	3,1190	18	2,7931	19	0,3259	0,119
8. Colleagues	3,3175	13	3,1552	11	0,1623	0,410
9. Creativity	3,3095	15	2,9655	17	0,3440	0,109
10. Independence	3,3651	11	2,9655	17	0,3996	0,043*
11. Moral values	3,0952	19	3,1724	9	-0,0772	0,668
12. Recognition	3,4365	5	3,1724	9	0,2641	0,230
13. Responsibility	3,2857	16	3,1207	14	0,1650	0,428
14. Security	3,4762	2	3,2931	5	0,1831	0,374
15. Social services	3,3651	11	3,1379	13	0,2271	0,212
16. Social status	3,4365	5	3,1552	11	0,2813	0,161
17. Supervisor -human relation	3,6905	1	3,7241	1	-0,0337	0,849
18. Supervision-technical	3,3175	13	3,1897	8	0,1278	0,554
19. Variety	3,2381	17	3,0172	16	0,2209	0,242
20. Working conditions	3,3968	9	3,1034	15	0,2934	0,191
TOTAL	67,0317		63,5172		3,5145	0,242

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.9 indicates that there are 17 needs in group 1 whose means are higher than those in group 2. This implies that respondents with only a teacher's diploma as their highest professional qualification consider the 17 needs as given opportunities to satisfy more than group 2 does.

However, table 3.9 also shows that of the 20 described needs, the differences between the means of group I and group 2 are not statistically significant except only in the need for independence where the difference between the means is statistically significant. Furthermore, table 3.9 shows that there is little similarity between the two groups with regard to the highest ranked need satisfaction opportunities. This situation is illustrated in table 3.9(a).

**Table 3.9(a) : Comparison between the highest ranked need satisfaction opportunities :
group 1 and group 2**

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Supervisor- human relations	1	3,6905	1	3,7241
Security	2	3,4762	5	3,2931
Ability utilization	2	3,4762	6	3,2414
Advancement	4	3,4444	7	3,2069
Recognition	5	3,4365	9	3,1724
Activity	7	3,4127	2	3,6552
Achievement	7	3,4127	3	3,3966
Authority	10	3,3810	4	3,3103

Table 3.9 also reveals similarities between the least satisfied needs of the groups. This is illustrated in table 3.9(b)

Table 3.9(b) : Comparison of the lowest ranked opportunities for need satisfaction : group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group2	Mean
Responsibility	16	3,2857	14	3,1207
Variety	17	3,2381	16	3,0172
Compensation	18	3,1190	19	2,7931
Moral values	19	3,0952	9	3,1724
Departmental policies and practices	20	3,0556	20	2,7414
Working Conditions	9	3,3968	15	3,1034
Independence	11	3,3651	17	2,9655
Creativity	15	3,3095	17	2,9655

3.4.10 Comparison of needs of respondents according to academic qualifications

Table 3.10 contains a comparison of the needs of the respondents according to their academic qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with matric as their highest academic qualification while group 2 has academic qualifications higher than matric.

Table 3.10 : Comparison of needs of respondents according to academic qualifications

Need Description	Group 1 N = 109		Group 2 N = 75		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1468	7	4,1200	7	0,0268	0,834
2. Achievement	4,1468	7	4,1200	7	0,0268	0,817
3. Activity	3,5688	18	3,6533	17	-0,0845	0,556
4. Advancement	4,3853	3	4,4133	2	-0,0280	0,801
5. Authority	3,9817	14	4,0267	11	-0,0450	0,738
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,3211	4	4,2400	5	0,0811	0,483
7. Compensation	4,4037	2	4,3600	3	0,0437	0,700
8. Colleagues	4,1193	9	4,0267	11	0,0926	0,516
9. Creativity	4,0275	13	3,9333	15	0,0942	0,516
10. Independence	3,4771	19	3,4133	19	0,0637	0,723
11. Moral values	3,3028	20	3,3600	20	-0,0572	0,752
12. Recognition	4,0826	12	3,8667	16	0,2159	0,155
13. Responsibility	4,1009	10	4,0933	9	0,0076	0,943
14. Security	4,0917	11	4,1467	6	-0,0549	0,699
15. Social services	3,5780	17	3,5467	18	0,0313	0,855
16. Social status	3,9541	15	3,9867	13	-0,0325	0,822
17. Supervisor -human relation	4,2477	5	4,2800	4	-0,0323	0,785
18. Supervision-technical	4,1560	6	4,0400	10	0,1160	0,394
19. Variety	3,8716	16	3,9600	14	-0,0884	0,478
20. Working conditions	4,5963	1	4,5467	1	0,0496	0,663
TOTAL	80,5596		80,1333		0,4263	0,722

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.10 reveals that the mean scores of 12 needs of group 1 are higher than those of group 2. The mean scores of the remaining 8 needs are higher in group 2 than in group 1. Nevertheless, in both cases the differences between the mean scores of group 1 and group 2 are not statistically significant.

Table 3.10 also indicates that there is a similarity between the top urgent needs of group 1 and group 2. This information is presented in table 3.10(a)

Table 3.10(a) : Comparison between the first five urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 2	Mean
Working Conditions	1	4,5963	1	4,5467
Compensation	2	4,4037	3	4,3600
Advancement	3	4,3853	2	4,4133
Departmental Policies and Practices	4	4,3211	5	4,2400
Supervision - Human Relation	5	4,1560	4	4,2800

Table 3.10 further indicates that there is a similarity between the least urgent needs of group 1 and group 2. This fact is illustrated in table 3.10 (b).

Table 3.10 (b) : Comparison between the least urgent needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,8716	14	3,9600
Social Service	17	3,5780	18	3,5467
Activity	18	3,5688	17	3,6533
Independence	19	3,4771	19	3,4133
Moral values	20	3,3028	20	3,3600
Recognition	12	4,0826	16	3,8667

Lastly, the information in tables 3.10, 3.10(a) and 3.10(b) implies that respondents with academic qualifications higher than matric experience the same needs as those with matric as their highest academic qualification. This is supported by the fact that none of the differences in mean scores of the two groups is statistically significant.

3. 4.11 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to academic qualifications of respondents

Table 3.11 contains a comparison of the opportunities to satisfy needs of the respondents according to their academic qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with matric as their highest academic qualification while group 2 has academic qualifications higher than matric.

Table 3.11: Comparison of opportunities, to satisfy needs according to academic qualifications

Need Description	Group 1 N = 109		Group 2 N = 75		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,4679	3	3,3067	7	0,1612	0,397
2. Achievement	3,4587	5	3,3333	6	0,1254	0,513
3. Activity	3,4220	6	3,5867	1	-0,1646	0,311
4. Advancement	3,3853	8	3,3467	5	0,0387	0,841
5. Authority	3,3486	10	3,3733	3	-0,0247	0,890
6. Departmental policies and practices	3,0826	20	2,7733	20	0,3092	0,155
7. Compensation	3,1009	19	2,8933	19	0,3092	0,155
8. Colleagues	3,3394	11	3,1600	14	0,2076	0,294
9. Creativity	3,2385	15	3,1467	15	0,0919	0,335
10. Independence	3,1927	17	3,3067	7	-0,1140	0,651
11. Moral values	3,2294	16	2,9600	18	0,2694	0,544
12. Recognition	3,4679	3	3,1867	12	0,2812	0,112
13. Responsibility	3,3119	13	3,1200	16	0,1919	0,176
14. Security	3,4954	2	3,3067	7	0,1887	0,333
15. Social services	3,3119	13	3,2667	10	0,0453	0,793
16. Social status	3,3394	11	3,3600	4	-0,0206	0,914
17. Supervisor -human relation	3,8440	1	3,4933	2	0,3507	0,035*
18. Supervision-technical	3,3945	7	3,1067	17	0,2878	0,158
19. Variety	3,1560	18	3,1867	12	-0,0307	0,864
20. Working conditions	3,3761	9	3,2000	11	0,1761	0,407
TOTAL	66,9633		64,4133		2,5500	0,370

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.11 reveals that of the 20 opportunities of needs satisfaction, group 1 has 15 mean scores of these opportunities higher than those of group 2. The mean scores of the remaining five opportunities are higher in group 2 than in group 1. However, the differences between the means of opportunities in group 1 and group 2 are not statistically significant except in the difference

between the means of the need for maintaining good relations with supervisors where the difference is less than 0,05.

Table 3.11 also shows that there is little similarity between the most satisfied needs of the two groups. This fact is illustrated in table 3.11(a).

Table 3.11(a): Comparison of the highest ranked needs satisfaction opportunities: group 1 and group 2

Need description	Rank order need satisfaction opportunity group 1	Mean	Rank order need satisfaction opportunity group 2	Mean
Supervision- human relation	1	3,8440	2	3,4933
Security	2	3,4954	7	3,3067
Ability utilization	3	3,4679	7	3,3067
Recognition	3	3,4679	12	3,1867
Achievement	5	3,4587	6	3,3333
Activity	6	3,4220	1	3,5867
Authority	10	3,3486	3	3,3733
Social status	11	3,3394	4	3,3600
Advancement	8	3,3853	5	3,3467

Table 3.11 further shows that there is a similarity between the least satisfied needs of the two groups. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.11 (b).

**Table 3.11(b) : Comparison between the lowest ranked need satisfaction opportunities:
group 1 and group2**

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Satisfaction opportunity) Group 2	Mean
Moral values	16	3,2294	18	2,9600
Independence	17	3,1927	7	3,3067
Variety	18	3,1560	12	3,1867
Compensation	19	3,1009	19	2,8933
Departmental policies and practices	20	3,0826	20	2,7733
Responsibility	13	3,3119	16	3,1200
Supervision: Technical	7	3,3945	17	3,1067

Finally, table 3.11 indicates that both group 1 and group 2 regard the need for compensation and the need for commenting on departmental policies and practices as being the two least satisfied needs.

3.4.12 Comparison of needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents

Table 3.12 contains a comparison of the needs of respondents according to the nature of their employment. Group 1 represents respondents who are permanently employed while group 2 represents temporarily employed respondents.

Table 3.12: Comparison of the needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents

Need Description	Group 1 N = 173		Group 2 N = 11		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4,1561	6	3,8182	9	0,3379	0,201
2. Achievement	4,1329	7	4,1818	5	-0,0489	0,828
3. Activity	3,6185	17	3,3636	15	0,2589	0,391
4. Advancement	4,4046	2	4,2727	2	0,1319	0,568
5. Authority	4,0289	13	3,5455	14	0,4834	0,082
6. Departmental policies and practices	4,3064	4	4,0000	6	0,3064	0,200
7. Compensation	4,3931	3	4,2727	2	0,1204	0,608
8. Colleagues	4,1272	9	3,3636	15	0,7636	0,009*
9. Creativity	4,0520	12	3,0000	17	1,0520	0,000*
10. Independence	3,4798	19	3,0000	17	0,4798	0,198
11. Moral values	3,3295	20	3,2727	19	0,0568	0,880
12. Recognition	4,0000	14	3,9091	7	0,0909	0,773
13. Responsibility	4,1214	10	3,7273	10	0,3941	0,071
14. Security	4,1040	11	4,2727	2	-0,1687	0,566
15. Social services	3,5838	18	3,2727	19	0,3111	0,379
16. Social status	3,9711	15	3,9091	7	0,0620	0,836
17. Supervisor -human relation	4,2486	5	4,4545	1	-0,2060	0,402
18. Supervision-technical	4,1329	7	3,7273	10	0,4057	0,150
19. Variety	3,9249	16	3,6364	13	0,2885	0,264
20. Working conditions	4,6301	1	3,7273	10	0,9028	0,000*
TOTAL	80,7457		74,7273		6,0184	0,015*

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.12 Indicates that the means of 17 needs in group 1 are higher than those in group 2. The mean scores of the remaining three needs are higher in group 2 than in group 1. The table also shows that there are three sets of needs in which the differences between the mean scores of the two groups are statistically significant. The difference between the totals of the means for group 1 (mean = 80,7457) and group 2 (mean = 74,7273) is also statistically significant.

Table 3.12 further shows that there exists a similarity between the highest ranked needs of group 1 and group 2. Table 3.12(a) illustrates these similarities.

Table 3.12 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group2	Mean
Working Conditions	1	4,6301	10	3,7273
Advancement	2	4,4046	2	4,2727
Compensation	3	4,3931	2	4,2727
Departmental Policies and Practices	4	4,3064	6	4,0000
Supervisor- Human relation	5	4,2486	1	4,4545
Security	11	4,1040	2	4,2727
Achievement	7	4,1329	5	4,1818

Table 3.12 reveals that there are also similarities between the lowest ranked needs of the two groups. This similarity is illustrated in table 3.12 (b).

Table 3.12 (b): Comparison between the lowest ranked needs of group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 1	Mean	Rank Order (Need Urgency) Group 2	Mean
Variety	16	3,9249	13	3,6364
Activity	17	3,6185	15	3,3636
Social service	18	3,5838	19	3,2727
Independence	19	3,4798	17	3,0000
Moral values	20	3,3295	19	3,2727
Colleagues	9	4,1272	15	3,3636
Creativity	12	4,0520	17	3,0000

Finally, tables 3.12, 3.12 (a) and 3.12 (b) show that even though there are similarities between the needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents, the needs of the former group are considerably higher than those of the latter group. This is clearly evident from the fact that the overall difference between the means of the two groups is statistically significant.

3.4.13 Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents

Table 3.13 contains a comparison of the opportunities to satisfy needs of respondents according to the nature of their employment. Group 1 represents permanently employed respondents while group 2 represents those who are temporarily employed.

Table 3.13: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents

Need Description	Group 1 N = 173		Group 2 N = 11		Difference of means	Significance (P)*
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3,3757	6	3,8182	3	-0,4425	0,261
2. Achievement	3,4046	3	3,4545	13	-0,0499	0,900
3. Activity	3,5202	2	3,0000	16	0,5202	0,122
4. Advancement	3,3410	7	3,8182	3	-0,4772	0,231
5. Authority	3,3815	4	3,0000	16	0,3815	0,301
6. Departmental policies and practices	2,9249	20	3,4545	13	-0,5296	0,240
7. Compensation	2,9827	19	3,5455	12	-0,5628	0,170
8. Colleagues	3,3006	11	2,7273	20	0,5733	0,136
9. Creativity	3,1676	16	3,7273	6	-0,5597	0,183
10. Independence	3,2543	13	3,0000	16	0,2543	0,514
11. Moral values	3,1156	18	3,1818	15	-0,0662	0,851
12. Recognition	3,3295	8	3,7273	6	-0,3978	0,356
13. Responsibility	3,2081	15	3,6364	10	-0,4283	0,293
14. Security	3,3873	5	3,9091	2	-0,5218	0,196
15. Social services	3,3121	10	3,0000	16	0,3121	0,382
16. Social status	3,3237	9	3,7273	6	-0,4036	0,305
17. Supervisor -human relation	3,6821	1	4,0000	1	-0,3179	0,360
18. Supervision-technical	3,2428	14	3,8182	3	-0,5754	0,173
19. Variety	3,1387	17	3,6364	10	-0,4977	0,178
20. Working conditions	3,2775	12	3,7273	6	-0,4498	0,307
TOTAL	65,6705		69,9091		-4,2386	0,472

* If P is less than 0,05 the difference is statistically significant.

Table 3.13 indicates that group 1 has the mean scores of 15 opportunities for needs satisfaction higher than those of group 2. In all the remaining five sets of opportunities the mean scores of group 2 are higher than those of group 1. It is interesting to note that table 3.13 reveals that temporarily employed respondents rate both the opportunity for the satisfaction of the need for

advancement and the need for security higher than their permanently employed colleagues. However table 3.13 also indicates that the differences of the mean scores between opportunities of group 1 and group 2 are not statistically significant.

Table 3.13 further shows that there is little similarity between the top most satisfied needs of group 1 and group 2. This fact is illustrated in table 3.13 (a).

Table 3.13 (a): Comparison of the highest ranked need satisfaction opportunities: group 1 and group 2

Need Description	Rank Order Need satisfaction opportunity Group 1	Mean	Rank Order Need satisfaction opportunity Group 2	Mean
Supervision: human relations	1	3,6821	1	4,0000
Activity	2	3,5202	16	3,0000
Achievement	3	3,4046	13	3,4545
Authority	4	3,3815	16	3,0000
Security	5	3,3873	2	3,9091
Advancement	7	3,3410	3	3,8182
Ability utilization	6	3,3757	3	3,8182
Supervision: technical	14	3,2428	3	3,8182

Table 3.13 further reveals that there exists no similarity between the five least satisfied needs of group 1 and group 2. This information is presented in table 3.13 (b).

**Table 3.13 (b) : Comparison between the lowest ranked need satisfaction opportunities:
group 1 and group 2**

Need Description	Rank Order Need satisfaction opportunity Group 1	Mean	Rank Order Need satisfaction opportunity Group 2	Mean
Creativity	16	3,1676	6	3,7273
Variety	17	3,1387	10	3,6364
Moral Values	18	3,1156	15	3,1818
Compensation	19	2,9827	12	3,5455
Departmental policies and practices	20	2,9249	13	3,4545
Activity	2	3,5202	16	3,0000
Authority	4	3,3815	16	3,0000
Independence	13	3,2543	16	3,0000
Social service	10	3,3121	16	3,0000
Colleagues	11	3,3006	20	2,7273

Finally, the information in tables 3.13 and 3.13 (b) reveals that the least satisfied needs in both groups has a mean score less than 3,0000. However it is interesting to observe that group 2 also regards its least satisfied need as one of its least urgent needs (cf. Table 3.12 (b)).

3.5 CONCLUSION

The results of this research study which was aimed at analyzing the level of motivation of secondary school educators of the Thabo Mofutsanyana District of the Eastern Free State, have revealed the areas in which principals and education officials are to concentrate on in their attempts to improve the level of motivation of educators of the selected schools.

It is on the basis of the analysis done in this chapter that the discussion is taken further to the next chapter wherein findings, conclusions and recommendations on what can be done to improve the situation in the targeted schools will be dealt with.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ON IMPROVING THE LEVEL OF MOTIVATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATORS OF THE TARGETED SCHOOLS

4.1 FINDINGS

The findings and conclusions below are based on the results of the analysis of the extent to which the targeted educators experience the needs in chapter 3 as their personal needs in their schools as educators, in comparison with the extent to which their schools provide opportunities for the satisfaction of these needs.

4.1.1 Respondents experienced all 20 described needs as personal needs in their job situations

The respondents to the survey revealed that respondents experienced all 20 described needs as personal needs in their job situations because all 20 mean scores are above three (cf. Table 3.1)

4.1.2 Although their job situations do provide opportunities for satisfaction of their needs, the extent of the provision is significantly less than the urgency of the needs

The respondents do have opportunities to satisfy their needs. The mean scores of opportunities to satisfy 19 of the needs are above 3, while only one (departmental policies and practices) is smaller than 3 (cf. Table 3.1). The needs of respondents are, however, much bigger in comparison with opportunities to satisfy them. This is evident from the fact that the difference between the mean scores of needs and opportunities to satisfy needs are statistically significant in 17 of the 20 cases (cf. Table 3.1). The total mean score of needs (80,3859) is also statistically significantly higher than that of opportunities to satisfy needs (65,9239)(cf. Table 3.1).

4.1.3 There are no statistically significant differences in the needs of male and female respondents

Male and female respondents regard each of the 20 described needs as personal needs in their job situations (means: 3). Although there are differences in the individual needs of the two groups, only one difference, namely that of responsibility, is statistically significant. The difference between the total means scores is also, like the other 19 differences, not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.2)

4.1.4 Male respondents enjoy significantly higher opportunities to satisfy their needs than their female colleagues

The overall extent to which the jobs of the male respondents provides for opportunities to satisfy their needs is statistically significantly higher than that of their female colleagues (cf. Table 3.3). With regard to opportunities to satisfy each of the individual needs, the mean scores of males are higher than those of females in each of the 20 cases. In nine of these cases the differences between the means are statistically significant (cf. Table 3.3).

4.1.5 There is no significant difference between the needs of respondents according to age groups

Although both age groups experienced all 20 described needs as personal needs, the mean scores of the older group (40 years and older) recorded more urgent needs in 11 of the 20 described needs. None of these differences in mean scores, as well as the differences in total means, are however statistically significant (cf. Table 3.4).

4.1.6 There is no significant difference according to the age group of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy needs

Although the older age group (40 years and older) indicated more opportunities to satisfy their needs in 12 of the 20 described needs, none of the differences in opportunities is statistically significant (cf. Table 3.5). The same applies to the difference in total mean scores of the two groups (cf. Table 3.5).

4.1.7 There is no significant difference between the needs of respondents according to teaching experience

A comparison of needs of respondents according to teaching experience revealed that both groups of educators experienced the 20 described needs as personal needs. Although educators with 40 years or less teaching experience recorded more urgent needs in 16 of the 20 described needs, none of these differences in mean scores are statistically significant. The difference between the total mean scores of the two groups is also not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.6).

4.1.8 There is no significant difference according to teaching experience of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy needs

Although the more experienced group (more than 40 years) recorded more opportunities to satisfy their needs in 11 of the 20 described needs, none of the differences in opportunities is statistically significant (cf. Table 3.7). The difference in the total mean scores of the two groups is also not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.7).

4.1.9 There is no significant difference between the needs of respondents according to professional qualifications

Whereas both professionally qualified groups experienced all the 20 described needs as personal needs, the mean scores of the better qualified group recorded more urgent needs in 12 of the 20 described needs. Nevertheless none of these differences in mean scores, including the difference between the totals of the mean scores of the two groups are statistically significant (cf. Table 3.8)

4.1.10 There is no significant difference according to professional qualifications of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy needs

Although the professionally less qualified group (those with only one diploma) indicated more opportunities to satisfy their needs in 17 of the 20 described needs, none of the differences in opportunities is statistically significant (cf. Table 3.9). The same applies to the difference in total mean scores of the groups (cf. Table 3.9).

4.1.11 There is no significant difference in the needs of respondents according to academic qualifications

A comparison of needs of respondents according to academic qualifications indicated that both groups experienced the 20 described needs as personal needs. Although respondents with matric as their highest academic qualification (group 1) indicated more urgent needs in 12 of the described needs, the differences in mean scores of the two groups are not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.10). Furthermore, the difference in the total means is also not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.10).

4.1.12 There is no significant difference according to academic qualifications of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy needs

Although the academically less qualified group (those with matric only) recorded more opportunities to satisfy their needs in 15 of the 20 described needs, none of the differences in opportunities to satisfy needs is statistically significant (cf. Table 3.11). That also goes for the difference in the total mean scores of the two groups (cf. Table 3.11).

4.1.13 There is an overall statistically significant difference between the needs of permanently and temporarily employed respondents

Although both groups experience the 20 described needs as personal needs (mean above 3.0000), the group representing permanently employed respondents experienced more urgent needs in 18 of the 20 described needs (cf. Table 3.12). Furthermore in 3 of the 18 needs the differences in the mean scores are statistically significant (cf. Table 3.12). Finally the difference in the totals of the mean scores of two groups is also statistically significant (cf. 3.12).

4.1.14 There is no significant difference between permanently and temporarily employed respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy needs

Whereas temporarily employed respondents (group 2) recorded more opportunities to satisfy their needs in 15 of the 20 described needs none of the differences in opportunities to satisfy is however statistically significant (cf. Table 3.13). Furthermore the difference between the totals of the mean scores of the two groups is also not statistically significant (cf. Table 3.13).

4.2 CONCLUSIONS

From the above findings, two major conclusions can be drawn:

- The overall level of motivation of the respondents is low because they have urgent needs but, in comparison, few opportunities are created by their job situations to satisfy these needs (cf. 4.1.2). The needs indicate both the so-called motivating

and hygiene factors of Herzberg (cf. 2.4.1.2). The satisfaction of the motivational needs of Herzberg is essential to motivate people, while the lack of satisfaction of hygiene needs prevents people from being motivated (cf. 2.4.1.2).

- Although there are no statistically significant differences in the urgency of needs of male and female respondents, females have significantly fewer opportunities in their work situations to satisfy their needs than their male colleagues (cf. 4.1.3 and 4.1.4).

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

To improve the level of motivation of the respondents, the following recommendations are made:

4.3.1 Recommendations regarding the motivators of Herzberg

The motivating factors of Herzberg which were included in the questionnaire are the following (cf. 2.4.1.2 and 3.3.1):

- Achievement
- Advancement
- Recognition
- Responsibility

The survey showed that, with regard to each of these, there is a statistical difference between the urgency of the need and the opportunities to satisfy the need (cf. Table 3.1).

The following is recommended with regard to each of these needs:

4.3.1.1 Achievement

The following issues should receive attention:

- Principals and school management teams should come to an agreement with educators on each educator's main targets and responsibilities including indicators of performance so that everybody involved can recognize achievement.
- Principals should set clear goals that are realistic and achievable because successful achievement of one's goals is rewarded by a strong feeling of achievement (cf. 2.5).
- School management teams should gradually give educators more mentally challenging and meaningful tasks so that educators should feel that they are developing and that they are advancing in experience and ability.

4.3.1.2 Advancement

- Industrious educators should be afforded opportunities for promotion in the department by utilizing available career opportunities.
- Intensive in- service training programmes for educators should be employed by the department in an effort to make provision for a continuous, incremental and active professional support that ensures educators' advancement in the job in terms of acquiring new teaching skills that enable them to adapt easily to new, challenging education changes.
- Diligent and dedicated educators should be accorded preference in any departmental empowerment strategies and opportunities for professional growth. This includes awarding study bursaries to such educators.

4.3.1.3 Recognition

- Recognition derives from successful performance. It is therefore critically important that educational managers give recognition for outstanding performance by teachers. All stakeholders should be obliged to give sincere praise to educators who perform optimally.
- Principals should openly and directly discuss important school matters with those educators who are diligent and hardworking. In this way educators feel that their contribution is recognized and appreciated.
- Educators should also be shown recognition by educational managers by being given rewards for their outstanding contribution. The rewards should be made

contingent on performance and used to reinforce performance and effort. Principals should refrain from claiming credit for themselves after a success (cf.2.5).

4.3.1.4 Responsibility

With regard to responsibility, the following issue should be attended to:

- Principals should increasingly delegate duties to educators. When principals intentionally invite educators and entrust authority to them to act on their behalf, they are likely to succeed in increasing the level of responsibility in educators.
- Principals should ensure that educators are actively involved in the drawing up of school developmental plans, school improvement plans and school action plans to inculcate a spirit of ownership and responsibility in educators. Teamwork should be continually emphasized.
- Teams assigned to complete specific tasks or projects should be instructed to give regular feedback to the staff.

4.3.2 Recommendations regarding the hygiene factors of Herzberg

The survey showed that the following hygiene factors were ranked as the most urgent needs of the respondents (cf. Table 3.1).

- Working conditions (Ranked 1)

- Compensation (Ranked 3)
- Departmental policies and practices (Ranked 4)
- Supervision: human relations (Ranked 5)

Each of these also shows a statistically significant difference between the urgency of the need and the opportunities to satisfy the need (cf. Table 3.1). The following is recommended with regard to each of these needs:

4.3.2.1 Working conditions

The department of education can improve educators' working conditions by:

- Reducing class sizes where classes are too big to manage and ensuring manageable educators workloads;
- building new schools and doing away with platooning and twinning schools;
- renovating uninviting, vandalized schools;
- supplying schools with adequate books and equipment and gradually increasing the number of schools accorded the Section 21 status;
- embarking on improving and intensifying HIV / AIDS awareness programs in schools;
- putting in place measures aimed at creating a crime-free and safe school environment;

- continuing with the agreed upon redeployment of educators aimed at ensuring a balanced teacher-pupil ratio in all schools.

It still remains the responsibility of principals, school governing bodies, school management teams, educators, parents and learners to ensure that, as far as possible, the physical conditions of the school are inviting and conducive for teaching and learning.

Schools are also encouraged to embark on fund-raising campaigns in order to significantly contribute towards the general improvement of their physical surroundings.

4.3.2.2 Compensation

- Continued negotiations between unions and the Minister for the Public Service and Administration Department are encouraged as they are essential for the equitable salary adjustments of educators. Any reviews of the salary structure should, however, take into account the financial and fiscal realities of the country.
- Hardworking educators should be identified and rewarded in recognition of their good performance (cf. 2.5, 4.3.1.2 and 4.3.1.3).

4.3.2.3 Departmental policies and practices

All the relevant stakeholders should be involved in the development and formulation of policies. This implies that parents, educators, learners, the business sector, churches and

non-governmental organizations should be represented in the formulation of departmental policies. The involvement of educators and other stakeholders is important because:

- They experience a sense of ownership and commitment to the policies;
- their commitment to departmental policies urges them to accept responsibility for these policies and thus increases the likelihood that these policies will be protected and implemented;
- educators can experience a sense of achievement and recognition of their potential, which may in turn increase their level of motivation.

It is critically important that effective and open communication channels be established to ensure that departmental policies are communicated to all stakeholders. It is therefore important that principals should ensure that departmental circulars reach educators without any unnecessary delay. Principals should continuously urge educators and other stakeholders at school level, to familiarize themselves fully with developments regarding departmental policies and practices.

4.3.2.4 Supervision: Human relations

It is of paramount importance for principals and school management teams, as well as other educational managers outside the school to be intentionally inviting to educators in order to foster good relations between themselves and educators in schools. Educational

managers can be regarded as being intentionally inviting to others when they do the following;

- Recognizing the needs of educators and treating such educators as individuals and not as labels or groups;
- avoiding discriminatory and insulting behaviors and attitudes that relegate educators to the level of sub-humans;
- recognizing that educators are valuable, capable and responsible professionals who should be respected and treated in a manner befitting their status;
- giving educators all the necessary professional support and doing their best to cultivate the boundless potential in educators by sharing knowledge and creating a spirit of collegiality amongst educators;
- being accessible to educators, offering guidance where necessary and always being optimistic about the realization of school goals;
- honestly evaluating the performance of educators with a view to professional development.

4.3.3 Recommendations regarding opportunities of females to satisfy their needs

The Free State Department of Education, in keeping with national policy and the country's constitution, provides for equal opportunities for self-realization to both male and female educators in their workplace. The department is also an affirmative action employer. It is therefore important for district directors, chief education specialists,

school management developers and other officials of the department to continuously articulate and communicate these ideals to principals and other stakeholders at school level.

The following can be done at school level to enhance the motivation of female educators;

- Principals should ensure the active involvement of female educators in all school activities.
- Principals should increasingly demonstrate their trust and respect for female educators by delegating to them more challenging duties that go along with increased responsibility.
- Female educators should be given more authority to have control over those aspects of their work that have been delegated to them.
- Female educators should increasingly be made to feel that as individuals, they are being supported, and developed, and that they are advancing in experience and ability.
- Principals should ensure that female educators' dignity is maintained by ensuring that they are not being harassed in any way.

4.3.4 Additional recommendations

In addition to the recommendations mentioned above, the following general recommendations are suggested to enhance the level of motivation of educators:

- Principals should ensure active participation of educators in challenging activities such as development of school policies, drawing up school developmental plans, school improvement plans and school action plans. Cultivating a sense of ownership in educators effectively reduces the possibility of them engaging in counter productive behavior.
- The phasing in of outcomes based education in Grades 10 to 12 should be completed as soon as possible. Any delay in this regard tends to frustrate both educators and learners at the entry level of Further Education and Training (FET) institutions.
- More in-service training sessions should be conducted to fully acquaint educators with the new outcomes based education.

4.4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the current level of motivation of educators with a view to increasingly improving on it in order to ensure effective teaching and learning in schools. The study has revealed that although schools satisfy the needs of educators, the degree of the satisfaction of needs does not correspond with their urgency. Opportunities provided for the satisfaction of the needs are very few. The study has also

revealed that female educators are provided with fewer opportunities for needs satisfaction than their male colleagues.

Although the groups selected ranked and rated needs urgency differently, they, however, agreed to a large extent on the most urgent and least urgent needs. The same applied to their ranking and rating of opportunities provided for satisfaction of their needs. The survey has also revealed that these needs largely correspond with the so-called motivating and hygiene factors of Herzberg. Furthermore the study has shown that the following needs of educators deserve urgent attention: achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, working conditions, compensation, departmental policies and practices and supervision: human relations. It is therefore important for the Free State Department of Education to attend to these educators' needs and seriously consider the given recommendations.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES
P.O. BOX 399
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

PHONE:

ENQUIRIES: PROF R. R. BRAZELLE

DEPARTMENT OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION AND EDUCATION MANAGEMENT 01 MAY
2002

THE DIRECTOR
THABO MOFUTSANYANA DISTRICT OFFICE
PRIVATE BAG
WITSIESHOEK
9870

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE THABO MOFUTSANYANA EDUCATION
DISTRICT FOR COMPLETION OF M. ED DEGREE
RESEARCH TITLE: LEVEL OF MOTIVATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATORS IN THE
THABO MOFUTSANYANA EDUCATION DISTRICT OF THE EASTERN FREE STATE REGION

I hereby make a humble request to be granted permission to conduct research on the current level of motivation of secondary school educators in your education district. The results of the study will help me to successfully complete my M. Ed studies at the university and may help the department of education to identify problem areas if any and to take remedial action if and where necessary.

Ten secondary schools will be randomly selected to participate in the research process. If permission is granted questionnaires will be sent to the selected schools for completion by all educators, including principals, deputy principals and heads of department. Participation by respondents will be voluntary and completion of questionnaires will take place outside normal tuition time of the school.

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. The results and summary of the research will be sent to the district if your office so desires.

Thank you for your co-operation.

A. Mosikidi (Student)

Student Number: 1998718611

Questionnaire: Needs Satisfaction

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PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY MARKING THE APPROPRIATE ANSWER BOX WITH AN (X).

1. Current Total Learner Enrolment of School

1.1. Below 500

	1
	2

1.2. 500 and More

2. Your Current Post Level

2.1. Principal

	1
	2
	3
	4

2.2. Deputy Principal

2.3. Head of Department

2.4. Teacher

3. Your Gender

3.1. Male

	1
	2

3.2. Female

4. Your Present Age

4.1. 40 years or younger

	1
	2
	3

4.2. 40 years to 60 years

4.3. Older than 60 years

5. Your Total Teaching Experience in Years

5.1. 40 years or less

	1
	2

5.2. More than 40 years

6. Your Highest Professional Qualification

6.1. Teachers Certificate (e.g. PTC; JSTC)

	1
	2
	3

6.2. Teachers Diploma (e.g. PTD, SED, STD)

6.3. Further Diploma (e.g. FDE, H.E.D)

7. Your Highest Academic Qualification

- 7.1. Matric
- 7.2. Bachelors Degree (e.g. BA, B. Comm, B. Sc)
- 7.3. Honours Degree
- 7.4. Masters Degree
- 7.5. Doctorate
- 7.6. Other (Specify)

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5
	6

8. Your Type of Employment

- 8.1. Permanent
- 8.2. Temporary for 1 year or less
- 8.3. On contract for specific period
- 8.4. Other (Specify)

	1
	2
	3
	4

9. Your Home Language

- 9.1. Isizulu
- 9.2. Sesotho
- 9.3. Other (Specify)

	1
	2
	3

PART B**Needs Satisfaction Questionnaire**

- The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you an opportunity to tell :
 - (a) How you feel about the described needs in your job as an educator in accordance with how urgent you experience them as personal needs.
 - (b) About the extent to which your current job as educator provides for opportunities to satisfy your own needs.
- The questionnaire is therefore divide into two sections:
 - (a) Accordingly, in section A you tell us about how you feel about the described needs, and
 - (b) in section B you tell us about the extent to which your job provides for opportunities to satisfy your needs.
- On the basis of your answers and those of educators like you, we hope to get a better understanding of what people need in their jobs, and the extent to which these personal needs are gratified by factors in their job situation.
- On the following page you will find statements about the description of needs in your present job.
- Read each statement carefully)
- Decide how urgent you experience the described need as a personal need.
- Decide on the extent to which your present job provides opportunities to satisfy the described need.
- Keep statement in mind as you respond to each item in the questionnaire.

SECTION A

Please indicate how urgent you experience the needs described by the statement below as personal needs in your job situation as an educator. Beside each statement put a cross in the most suitable box on the RIGHT HAND COLUMN.

The abbreviations used in the boxes on the RIGHT HAND COLUMN are explained below.

Def No Ne: means there is **DEFINITELY NO NEED.**

No Ne: means there is **NO NEED.**

Uncer: means **UNCERTAIN,** I cannot decided whether there is a need or not

Ne: means there is a **NEED**

Urg Ne: means there is **URGENT NEED**

NEED DESCRIPTION	Def No Ne	No Ne	Uncer	Ne	Urg Ne
1. To be given the chance to do something that makes use of your abilities					
2. To feel that you have achieved something in your job					
3. To be able to keep busy all the time.					
4. To be provided with a chance for advancement in your job.					
5. To be afforded the opportunity to tell other people how to do things.					
6. To be given a chance to comment about the way department policies are put into practice.					
7. To experience harmony between your pay and the amount of the work you do.					
8. To be afforded a chance to improve the way your colleagues get along with each other.					
9. To be afforded the chances to try your own method of doing the job.					
10. To be given the chance to work alone on an assigned job.					
11. To be able to do things that don't go against your conscience.					
12. To be praised for doing a good job.					
13. To be afforded the freedom to use your own judgement.					

NEED DESCRIPTION	Def No Ne	No Ne	Uncer	Ne	Urg Ne
14. To feel that your job provides for a steady, permanent employment.					
15. To be given to chance to do things for other people.					
16. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.					
17. To maintain good relationships with your supervisor.					
18. To improve the competence of your supervisor in making decisions.					
19. The chance to do different things from time to time.					
20. To work in a situation where the physical conditions are conducive for teaching and learning.					

SECTION B

In this section you are cordially requested to indicate the extent to which your present job provides opportunities to satisfy the needs described in Section A. The statements in Section A are re-written. Beside each statement put a cross in the most suitable box on the RIGHT HAND COLUMN.

The abbreviations used in the boxes on the RIGHT HAND COLUMN are explained below.

Def No Opp: means there is **DEFINITELY NO OPPORTUNITY.**

No Opp: means there is **NO OPPORTUNITY.**

Uncer: means **UNCERTAIN,** I cannot decided whether there are or no opportunities.

Opp: means there are **OPPORTUNITIES** to satisfy the need.

Def Opp: means there **DEFINITELY ARE OPPORTUNITIES** to satisfy the need.

NEED DESCRIPTION	Def No Opp	No Opp	Uncer	Opp	Def Opp
1. To be given the chance to do something that makes use of your abilities.					
2. To feel that you have achieved something in your job					
3. To be able to keep busy all the time.					
4. To be provided with a chance for advancement in your job.					
5. To be afforded the opportunity to tell other people how to do things.					

NEED DESCRIPTION	Def No Opp	No Opp	Uncer	Opp	Def Opp
6. To be given a chance to comment about the way department policies are put into practice.					
7. To experience harmony between your pay and the amount of the work you do.					
8. To be afforded a chance to improve the way your colleagues get along with each other.					
9. To be afforded the chances to try your own method of doing the job.					
10. To be given the chance to work alone on an assigned job.					
11. To be able to do things that don't go against your conscience.					
12. To be praised for doing a good job.					
13. To be afforded the freedom to use your own judgement.					
14. To feel that your job provides for a steady, permanent employment.					
15. To be given to chance to do things for other people.					
16. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.					
17. To maintain good relationships with your supervisor.					
18. To improve the competence of your supervisor in making decisions.					
19. The chance to do different things from time to time.					
20. To work in a situation where the physical conditions are conducive for teaching and learning.					

