THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LECTURERS' LOCI OF CONTROL, JOB SATISFACTION AND TEACHING APPROACHES

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted by me for the Philosophiae Doctor degree in Higher Education Studies at the University of the Free State is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at any other university/faculty. I furthermore cede copyright of the thesis to the University of the Free State.

_____ _____

ML Geldenhuis **Date**

To God, the Father, all the glory
and Jesus Christ who provides "God-given dreams"

Dedicated to my husband, Tinus

Who inspires and supports me to live my God-given dream

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

It is a generally accepted fact that employees in Higher Education are currently experiencing difficult times in their work situation. Schulze (2006:322) cites the study done by Webster and Masoeta (2002) which indicated that “a deep pessimism” had been identified among many South African academics.

Problems in a work environment often lead to low job satisfaction. However, observation of colleagues at a higher education institution indicates that certain people maintain a high level of motivation and enjoyment of their work which is visible at a behavioural and an emotional level. These observations lead to the question as to whether or not job satisfaction may be an innate trait. A consequent literature search revealed that job satisfaction had been linked to locus of control on a conceptual as well as an empirical basis (Bono & Judge, 2003:55). The research indicated that people with an internal locus of control had greater job satisfaction and job performance. This finding was one of a growing body of studies conducted over the past ten years’ researching the foundation of what is known as the Core Self-evaluations Model. According to this theory people have several Core-Self-evaluations that influence how they perform in the work place and how satisfied they are in their jobs. The most important of these evaluations are emotional stability, self-esteem and locus of control (Bono & Judge, 2003:55). The research regarding these core self traits has revealed a significant correlation between an internal locus of control, high self-esteem and emotional stability.

From the above proposition the researcher developed the premise that people with an internal locus of control have high job satisfaction (intrinsic job satisfaction) and high job efficiency. As the study is in the realm of higher education, the term high job efficiency will translate to high quality teaching.

The research cited by Bono and Judge (2003:9) provides several examples of proven relationships between Locus of control as a core self trait, job satisfaction and job performance.

Locus of control is based on the premise that one's own actions (internal locus of control) or other forces (external locus of control) will determine the rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in one's life (Labuschagne, Bosman and Buitendach, 2005:27). The reasoning thus follows that people with the core self value of internal locus of control, will have a belief that they are in control of their environment. According to the theory they will have a high self-esteem and be emotionally stable. This then leads to people who have high job satisfaction (intrinsic satisfaction) and high job performance. In following this reasoning it is assumed that people with an internal locus of control would be less likely to allow adverse working conditions to affect their motivation and job satisfaction.

Regarding job performance in higher education the question to be answered is "What is regarded as good teaching?" (Eley, 2006:91). In a paper published in 1994, Trigwell describes how a phonographic research approach was used to determine and categorise different teaching strategies or practices and teaching intentions into a body of knowledge from which the Approaches to Teaching Inventory was developed. Subsequently the inventory was subjected to numerous studies in which positive associations were found between the inventory outcome results and performance indicators. The performance indicators for this research are described as "... higher quality student learning processes or outcomes" (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004:412).

Efficient teaching, also described as "quality of teaching" is defined by Trigwell and Prosser (2004:416) "Conceptual Change Student Focussed Approach". This approach is known in general literature terms as "deep teaching".

In describing deep teaching Campbell (1998:1) explains that it is teaching that reaches below the surface of the mere imparting of information or facts and that it is that form of teaching which is most intense or profoundly involved.

Typically, deep teaching uses good teaching, openness, freedom to learn, clear goals and standards and vocational relevance to promote deep learning (Everett, 2005:1).

The supposition of this thesis is that lecturers that have an internal locus of control tend to experience job satisfaction and be effective teachers. Effective teachers are teachers who ask challenging questions, who stimulate lively discussions and debate in class, who lead students to think about and to apply their recently acquired knowledge, that is, teachers who apply deep teaching.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on the theory and supposition as outlined above this study will endeavour to answer the following research question:

Do lectures with an internal locus of control experience higher job satisfaction and apply a deep teaching approach than lecturers with an external locus of control. Subsidiary questions that emerged from the above research question are:

- Is there a relationship between locus of control, job satisfaction and a deep teaching approach?
- Is there a relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction?
- Is there a relationship between locus of control and a deep teaching approach?
- Is there a relationship job satisfaction and a deep teaching approach?

1.3 HYPOTHESES

Null Hypothesis (H_0a): No relationship exists between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1a): A significant positive relationship exists between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.

Null hypothesis (H_0b): No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and the job satisfaction the lecturers' experience

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1b): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and the job satisfaction they experience exists.

Null Hypothesis (H_0c): No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and their teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1c): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and their teaching approach.

Null Hypothesis (H_0d): No relationship exists between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1d): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach.

The level of significance is set at 0.05.

1.4 AIM OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

The aim of the research study was to determine whether lecturers with an internal locus of control experience higher job satisfaction and apply a deep teaching approach as compared with lecturers with an external locus of control.

The following were identified as the core objectives that flow from the principal aim:

- To conduct a literature review regarding the theories and assumptions of the three variables, locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach;
- To select a sample;
- To administer the tests;
- To analyse and interpret the data; and
- To discuss the test results and provide recommendations.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In discussing the research design and methodology of the study it is firstly necessary to identify the variables.

1.5.1. Identifying the variables

To identify the different forms of variables used in this study the term must be identified as well. A variable is: “A characteristic that can assume anyone of several values” Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:8) as cited by Joubert (2010:12). Cresswell (2009:49) defines a variable as an element or anything that has the ability to change.

1.5.1.1 The dependent variable

In this study the dependent variable is teaching approach. For the purpose of this study teaching approaches is operationally defined as a score on the Approach to Teaching Inventory.

1.5.1.2 The independent variable

This study has two independent variables. The fist independent variable is locus of control and second independent variable is job satisfaction.

For the purpose of this study locus of control is operationally defined as a score on Rotter's Locus of Control Scale.

The second independent variable is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be defined as a score on the Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

1.5.1.3 The confounding variables

The confounding variables in this study were age, gender, ethnicity and the Psycho-Social Background factors of the lecturers. Confounding variables (age, gender and ethnicity) were measured on a biographical questionnaire. In this study the confounding variable psycho-social background factors were measured on the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire. Psycho-social factors will be defined as a score on the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire.

1.5.2 Research design

The study was executed by means of a quantitative, non-experimental, multivariate survey-type research design. This design is founded on a post positivistic paradigm. Post-positivism research principles emphasise meaning and the creation of new knowledge and are able to support committed social movements (Ryan, 2006:1-2).

According to the above author post-positivism has the following characteristics:

- Theory and practice cannot be kept separate.
- Research is broad rather than specialised.
- It is crucial that the researcher is motivated and committed to research. Therefore it is not sufficient if research is directed only towards correct techniques for collecting and categorising information (Ryan, 2006:2).

1.5.2.1 Sampling

The research data was collected from the Academic Staff of Ikhala FET College in the Eastern Cape. The main campus is situated in Queenstown and has the following satellite campuses: Aliwal North, Sterkspruit, Queennosesi, Ezibeleni and Dordrecht.

Sampling was conducted by means of convenience sampling since the lecturers of Ikhala FET College were available and willing to participate in the research survey. Because the whole population of lecturers in the Ikhala satellite campus district were used as participants, the form of sampling might also be referred to as whole-frame sampling based on the convenience principle.

1.5.2.2 Data collection

A comprehensive literature study was undertaken to explore the constructs locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach. The literature study also serves to inform about the influence that lecturers' locus of control has on their experience of job satisfaction as well as the teaching approach they adopt in the classroom.

A list of all academic staff members was requested from Human Resources Department to be used as a check list. The questionnaires were placed in separate envelopes, one for each satellite campus.

These envelopes where handed over to the various campus heads, at a meeting of campus heads by the head of Aliwal North campus.

The completed questionnaires were returned to each campus head. The Aliwal North Campus head collected them. The questionnaires were coded by the researcher and recorded by the Department of Information and Technology Services at the UFS. A quantitative analysis was also done by the Department of Information and Technology Services.
The measuring instruments used will be discussed in the following section.

1.5.2.3 Measuring instruments

The data was gathered by means of existing or adapted questionnaires that were completed by the respondents. The following questionnaires served as measuring instruments:

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (developed by Rotter, 1960)
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967)
Approach to Teaching Inventory (ATI) (developed by Trigwell and Prosser, 1996)
Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (developed by Viljoen, 2007).
Biographic questionnaire determining variables such as age, gender, ethnicity and years of experience.
The measuring instruments were adapted only to such extent as was necessary to simplify the language with a view to making it understandable and accessible to second and third language English speakers.

1.5.2.3.1 Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

In the 1960s Dr Julian Rotter developed a 29-item scale which contains six filler items. Recorded test-retest reliabilities of the scale is given as .09 - .83 (Zerega, Tweng & Greever, 1976:2). Concurrent validity between the Rotter and the MacDonald-Tseng scale was established.

1.5.2.3.2 Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). It was designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with their work. Three forms are available: two long forms (1977 version and 1967 version) and a short form. The MSQ makes it possible to acquire a picture of each individual worker's job satisfaction. The reliability of this questionnaire is .80 for extrinsic satisfaction and .86 for in intrinsic satisfaction. The validity of the short form of the MSQ is based on the relationship between satisfaction and satisfactoriness as specified by the Theory of Work Adjustment.

1.5.2.3.3 Approach to Teaching Inventory

The Approach to Teaching Inventory (ATI) was developed by Trigwell and Prosser (1996). The Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) is the result of a phenomenological study of 24 first-year university science teachers in Australia by Trigwell & Prosser. The researchers believed that more student-focused approaches to teaching would lead students to adopting a deep approach to learning. The Approaches to Teaching Inventory classifies instructors according to five types, ranging from teacher-focused emphasising transmission of knowledge, to student-focused which emphasises developing and changing concepts (Trigwell & Prosser, 1996 as cited by Schellhase 2009:30).

The original qualitative study identified a need to develop a quantitative instrument which could examine, on a larger scale, questions related to

teacher approach and student learning. The instrument consists of 74 statements given by the original qualitative respondents. It was then systematically reduced to the 22 items on the current ARI-R. (Schellhase, 2009:30). Cronbach's alpha values of the 2-scale inventory were acceptable for scale reliability (Schellhase 2009:30).

1.5.2.3.4 Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire

This questionnaire, developed by Viljoen in 2007, is used to measure psycho-social background factors of the subjects' childhood and present situation. It obtains information on a semantically differentiated 19 point scale which gathers information on the emotional support and the socio-economic situation of the subject's childhood. The respondent's present life situation is measured with regard to financial situation, love life, family life, depression and fear of having contracted HIV/AIDS (Joubert, 2010:16).

The measuring instruments will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

1.5.2.4 Data analysis and reporting

Data analysis refers to the "categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions and to test research hypotheses" (Kerlinger, 1986:125). The data was coded by the researcher and then captured by the Department of Information and Technology Services at the UFS. A quantitative analysis of the data was also done by the above department according to the Statistical Analysis Plan developed by Professor Schall from the University's Statistics Department (Schall Personal Communication, 2009).

Firstly the reliability of each measuring instrument was determined. Following this univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were reported. A 0.5 level of significance was used.

1.6 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The study pertains to the field of Further Education and Training and deals specifically with the issue of academic excellence, because the research was based on the factors that influence the teaching approach of lecturers of Ikhala FET College in the northern region of the Eastern Cape Province (Tight, 2003:257).

1.7 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

There is evidence that locus of control is imbedded within the personality (Arogundade, 2010:1). In this way locus of control is not considered a malleable entity and this affects the practical significance of the research. It is proposed, however, that people with an external locus of control could be motivated by external reward systems especially since they are described as having lower levels of self motivation and lower levels of self-esteem so that they do not function well under pressure (Carrim, Basson & Coetzee, 2006:69). It is envisaged that the findings of this study may serve to have management in higher education reconsider their stance on becoming involved in the day to day performance of educators. The study is also significant because it focuses on strategies that lecturers could apply that would lead to a deep approach to learning by the students.

1.8 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

A number of key words, terms and concepts are used throughout the study. The definitions below are presented for ease of interpretation. Other concepts used in the study that may need clarification are explained in more detail as the specific concept arises.

Continuum A series of gradual ratings or steps each of which differs slightly from the item next to it. So that the last one differs vastly from the first (Hornby, 2010: 316).

Deep Teaching Approach	A lecturer who applies a deep teaching approach is a lecturer who encourages self-directed learning, interacts with students and discusses difficulties they encounter, who assesses to reveal conceptual change, and takes time to question the students' ideas. Lecturers that apply a deep approach to teaching are passionate and enthusiastic about their subject (Trigwell, Prosser & Waterhouse, 1999:57)
Expectancy Theory	In work motivation this theory was primarily developed by Vroom (1964) based on theories of Lewin and Tolman. It emphasizes that the drive to perform a certain act is the total of the products of the "valences" of the outcomes of the act and the degree of expectancy that a given act will be followed by those outcomes (Harré & Lamb, 1988:225).
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	Extrinsic job satisfaction is experienced when workers are satisfied and happy with the conditions of work such as their remuneration, fellow-workers, and supervisor(s) (Jones, 2011:1).
Feedback	Feedback provides employees with specific information about how well they are performing a task or series of tasks. This positive feedback will enhance the quality of future behaviour. Negative feedback takes place when the consequences diminish the level of performance of, or probability of, future behaviour (Harré & Lamb, 1988:233).
FET	Further Educational and Training. Further Education and Training (comprising vocational and

	occupational education and training offered at colleges as well as in general school education). Adapted from the Official Website of Western Cape Colleges.
Genetics	The units in the cells of a living being that control its physical characteristics. Genetics influences human behaviour (Harré & Lamb, 1988:251)
Goal setting	A method of increasing performance in which employees are given specific performance goals to aim for. The theory is that specific and difficult goals lead to higher performance (Robbins, 1989:161).
Hierarchy	A system arranged by rank or a classification according to various criteria into successive levels or layers (Hornby, 2010:705).
High job satisfaction	High job satisfaction is when employees believe they experience in high measure of what they expect they should receive from the job (Robbins, 1989:30).
Hygiene factors	In Herzberg's two factor theory, job-related elements that result from, but do not involve, the job itself. Those factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, and salary –when present in a job, placate workers. When these factors are present people will, however, not be motivated by them (Robbins, 1989:153).

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	The degree to which we are satisfied by a job or motivated to perform in the absence of external factors such as pay, promotion, and a good relationship with co-workers. Intrinsic job satisfaction is also when workers enjoy the kind of work they do and, the tasks that make up the job. (Jones, 2011:1).
Job satisfaction	The attitude employees have towards their jobs; the diversity between the total rewards workers receive and the total they believe they should receive (Robbins, 1989:30).
Locus of Control	The place where control is perceived to be. This is internal for independent, self-directed, accountable people. It is external for dependent, other-directed people who have given up accountability for themselves to others, or worse, to circumstances (The Pacific Institute, 1998, as cited by Joubert, 2010:23).
Motivation	The force that drives an employee to perform well. Motivation is also the result of the interaction of the individual and the situation (Robbins, 1989:147).
Needs theory	A theory based on the idea that employees will be satisfied with jobs that satisfy their needs. These needs are the need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation (Aamodt, 1996:340).

Personality	The various aspects of a persons' character that combine to make them different from other people. Hornby (2010:1127)
Reliability	The extent to which a score from a test is stable and free from error or the consistency of measurement (Robbins, 1989:22).
Self-actualization needs	The fifth step in Maslow's needs hierarchy, which concerns the need to realize one's potential. Self-actualization might be defined as: "Be all that you can be." (Aamodt, 1996:443).
Surface Teaching	A surface approach to teaching focuses on short term goals namely immediate academic results (Nakhleh, 1992:192).
Two-factor theory	Herzberg's needs theory that postulates that two factors are involved in job satisfaction: hygiene factors and motivators (Aamodt, 1996:447).
Validity	"Validity refers to the fact that the research study measures what it sets out to measure. Two types of validity exist: Internal Validity refers to the extent to which the differences in the dependent variable have been explained by the differences in the independent variable". External validity is the degree to which the results can be generalized to a larger population (Dalton, 2009:63)..

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher obtained permission from the CEO of Ikhala FET College to do research among the academic staff of the College. After permission was granted a list of all the lecturers was compiled by the Human Resource Department and mailed to the researcher. The questionnaires were distributed to the individual Campus heads and all the lecturers of the different satellite campuses were asked to complete the questionnaire. The academic staff was assured that participation was voluntary and that all data obtained would remain both confidential and anonymous. The lecturers signed a letter of informed consent. The questionnaires were collected after one week by the Campus Head of Aliwal North Campus, Mrs Ronel van der Merwe. (*Cf* Appendix F).

1.10 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Orientation and background

Chapter one provided the reader with an introduction and orientation of the problem addressed in this research study. The research problem and the questions arising from it were outlined. Both the null and alternative hypotheses were formulated to enable the researcher to test the results for significance. Attention was then given to operational definitions of all the relevant concepts related to the research study.

Chapter 2: Locus of Control

Chapter two investigates the construct of locus of control, by starting with the historical background of the concept. The different theories as well as the factors influencing locus of control were discussed. The different characteristics of individuals with an internal locus of control as well as an external locus of control were studied. Locus of control is also a personality construct and is influenced by self-efficacy and motivated behaviour (Neill**,** 2006:1)

Chapter 3: Job satisfaction

Chapter three presents a literature review of job satisfaction and the theories that have an impact on job satisfaction. The researcher investigated the factors influencing educators in the educational environment. The different theories were compared. Features of job satisfaction that determine the employees' attitudes were investigated. The effect of poor job satisfaction, as well as reasons for lecturers' departure from the teaching profession was mentioned.

Chapter 4: Teaching approach

Chapter four presents the different teaching and learning approaches, namely deep and surface teaching or learning, as well as the characteristics of lecturers who apply a deep teaching approach in the classroom. The advantages of deep learning as well as the factors that influence and encourage deep learning were discussed. The characteristics of the deep teaching lecturer were indicated and the personality type and attitude of the lecturer were discussed.

Chapter 5: Method of research

In chapter five the procedures utilised in the research study to examine the relationship between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach was explained. A brief rationale for this research study was supplied. The problem statement as well as the research and null hypotheses was presented, and the independent and dependent variables explained. The measuring instruments, the Rotter's Locus of Control Scale, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Approach to Teaching Inventory and the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire were elucidated. The reliability and validity of the research study was emphasised. In conclusion this chapter provides a full account of the procedures followed to do the research and the methods applied during the analysis of data.

Chapter 6: Results and discussion of results

In Chapter six an analysis and interpretation of results acquired in the research study were provided. A summary of the research results were discussed.

Chapter 7: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations of the study

In Chapter seven the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study were supplied.

1.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an overview of the study. The research hypotheses and questions were discussed against the theoretical background as described in the Introduction. The aims and objectives were outlined. The research design and the paradigm on which it was based were related. This includes discussions of the variables, measuring instruments, sampling method and data collection method used. The ethical considerations were outlined and the concept clarification given.

In the following three chapters the literature regarding locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach will be discussed. The research revealed some international studies regarding these constructs but very few within the South African context.

CHAPTER 2

LOCUS OF CONTROL

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to investigate the construct locus of control. The following concepts relevant to this study will be discussed: Locus of control, the scales to measure locus of control, the difference between internal and external locus of control and the factors influencing locus of control.

The argument of this study is that lecturers with an internal locus of control will, in spite of unfavourable circumstances, experience high job satisfaction and will wish to apply a deep teaching approach. The reasoning behind this hypothesis is that people with internal locus of control take responsibility for how they act, not blaming circumstances and thus finding the drive to excel in teaching. Therefore it becomes necessary to establish which factors influence a person's locus of control and to determine to what extent locus of control is an innate attribute and to what extent it is acquired through experiences that shape who we are.

2.2 DESCRIPTION OF CONCEPTS

In the term, *locus of control,* locus means 'place' or 'location'. The concept locus of control may be divided into two main categories, namely internal locus of control and external locus of control. People with internal locus of control believe their behaviour is determined by their personal decisions and effort. The person with an external locus of control is convinced that his/her conduct is determined by fate, luck or other external circumstances (Neill, 2006:1).

2.2.1 The founder of the concept

Literature contains conflicting information on the founder of the concept locus of control. This concept originated as a result of a combination and derivatives of various theories which had started with the social cognitive theories of Miller & Dollard (1941). The social learning theory (1963) of Albert Bandura ensued. Rotter (1966) further developed the work done by Bandura (1963) and the term locus of control came into being. Bandura also developed the self-efficacy theory in 1977. In order to determine the origin of locus of control, the development of the social learning theory should be discussed first.

2.2.1.1 Social Cognitive Theory

"Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action." -Albert Bandura, **Social Learning Theory**, 1977

The social learning theory was developed by Albert Bandura. Bandura was born in Mundare, a small town in Alberta, Canada, and was the son of a grain farmer. He first studied in British Columbia, but later obtained his PhD at the University of Iowa in America in 1952. On completion of his clinical internship, he was appointed a lecturer at Stanford University, where he produced all his academic work. Bandura's viewpoint, which he initially called social learning theory and later social cognitive learning theory, was that a process of interaction between the person, the environment and the behaviour itself caused the individual's behaviour. He emphasized the acquisition of behaviour which, he believed, was greatly influenced by the imitation of others. (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2008:294).

Bandura's theory has had the strongest impact on the theory of learning and development. Social learning theory originated from studies done by Gabriel Tarde (1843-1904) who maintained that social learning took place through four main stages of imitation, namely: close contact, imitation of elders, understanding of ideas and role model behaviour. Although he accepted many of the basic concepts of traditional learning theory, Bandura believed that direct reinforcement did not cause all types of learning. The theory consists of three parts: observing, imitating, and reinforcements (Cherry, 2011:1).

Bandura's theory added a social dimension, which acknowledged that people acquired new information and behaviours by noticing how other people behaved. Known as observational learning (or modelling), this type of learning accounts for a wide variety of behaviours (Cherry, 2011:1).

Bandura's Social Learning Theory was renamed Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). The SCT attempts to understand the process by which people learn from one another with modelling as a key component of SCT. People learn by observing others' behaviours and observing or experiencing the consequences of that behaviour. Bandura also believed that an individual's personality is formed by behaviour, thought and the environment. He believed the influence of the environment on our behaviour is stronger than genetics (Meyer *et al.*, 2008:299).

2.2.1.2 Locus of Control

Julian Rotter developed his learning theory having diverted from theories based on psychosis and behaviourism. In Social Learning and Clinical Psychology (1945), Rotter proposes that behaviour affects the conduct of people to choose that specific form of behaviour. People wish to prevent negative consequences, but wish for positive results. If someone expects a positive result from an action or thinks there is a good likelihood that the consequence will be positive, then he/she will

be more likely to act in such a way that a positive outcome is a certainty. Such a person will be more likely to feel motivated to persist in behaviour that will produce a positive outcome. This social learning theory believes that conduct is determined also by these environmental factors or stimuli, and not only by psychological factors.

The psychological concept, locus of control, was developed by Julian B. Rotter of the Ohio State University in the 1950s. Julian B. Rotter was born in Brooklyn, New York, the third son of Jewish immigrants. The devastating effect of the Great Depression on his father's flourishing business and the family fortunes, brought home to him the strong influence of environment on people. In high school, Rotter became acquainted with the work of well-known psychotherapists Alfred Adler and Sigmund Freud and his interest in psychology was developed. Having attained his M.A. in Psychology in 1938, Rotter worked as intern psychology at Worcester State Hospital in Massachusetts for one year. In 1941, Rotter received his Ph.D. in Clinical Psychology at Indiana University. During his pre-doctoral internship he had training in the currently acknowledged standard model of locus of control, one of the first clinical psychologists to do so. During World War II Rotter served in the Armed Forces as an aviation psychologist in the Air Force (Doorey, 2011:1).

After the war he joined Ohio State University where he acted as director for its clinical psychology training program from time to time. It was here that Rotter started his research on social learning theory of personality and finally published his work Social Learning and Clinical Psychology in 1954. Rotter was president of Clinical Psychology and Social and Personality Psychology of the American Psychological Association. In 1963 Rotter became Director of the Clinical Psychology Training Program at the University of Connecticut (Doorey, 2011:1).

Rotter's publication in 1966, entitled Generalized Expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement, was the result of his

studies of people's expectancies and whether they know what the rewards for their behaviour may be. Some believe that these rewards come about only because of fate or luck. These people then are seen to have an external locus of control. In contrast to these people there are the ones who believe that rewards are determined by one's own behaviour. These people have an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1990:490). Rotter came to the conclusion that an individual saw a link between behaviour and reinforcement because some individuals responded predictably to reinforcement and some responded unpredictably. Rotter's belief is called the Expectancy Value theory (Anderson, 2001:14) and locus of control is grounded in the expectancy-value theory.

Almajali (2005:69) states that 'internal locus of control' refers to the high general expectancy usually apparent in individuals who trust their behaviour and control the possibility of receiving reinforcements. 'External locus of control' refers to a low general expectancy in individuals who cannot identify the link between behaviour and the possibility of being rewarded.

Rotter's view was that behaviour was changed with reward or punishment and that the individual would develop an understanding of the reason for his/her actions. This understanding forms the basis of a particular belief that would correlate with the attitudes individuals adopted (Neill, 2006:1). The mentioned author (Neill, 2006:1) also believes that Rotter linked the gap between behavioural and cognitive psychology because individuals saw strong and direct connection between behaviour and punishment/reward. In other words, reward and punishment produced the way people interpreted the outcome of their own actions. This affects their behaviour, not their perception of their behaviour.

Raubenheimber, Louw, Van Ede and Louw (1998:614) agree with Rotter and describe locus of control as a dimension of the personality

which entails the degree to which people feel they are in control of their own lives and behaviour (**internal locus of control**), or the degree to which those factors outside themselves determine their life and behaviour (**external locus of control**). Wood (2003:67) describes Rotter's conclusion on locus of control as *"... a generalized expectancy of internal versus external control over behavioural outcomes"*. According to Almajali (2006:69) these expectations are based on past outcomes and the new situation which individuals now confront. In other words, past outcomes create expectancies regarding new situations and will now influence a person's judgment and actions carried out to obtain the desired outcomes for the new situation.

Rotter was also the founder of the internal-external locus of control Scale which measures individual differences in this particular characteristic. In 1966, Rotter published *Generalized Expectancies for internal versus External Control of Reinforcement*, in which he examined people's expectancies as to whether they could influence the reinforcements they received. Rotter also devised the internal-external locus of control scale which measured individual differences in this characteristic. This scale has been very popular, and research on I-E thrived in the 1970s. Internal versus external locus of control came to be seen as a comparatively consistent dimension of personality (Doorey, 2011:2).

Although the majority of studies of locus of control have dealt with applied problems, it is important to recognize that the concept originated both from theoretical and clinical concerns, with social learning theory organizing students' of locus of control thinking in both cases (Rotter, 1989:40).

Rotter's viewpoint may be summarized as follows: Individuals have expectancies about aspects that influence behaviour and the way they judge these expectancies has a fundamental influence on behavioural preferences.

2.2.2 Control

To define the word *control*, words such as *manage*; *to be in charge* of or have the *power* over are used (Hornby, 2005:318) In other words, the intent is to have power over behaviour.

The concept *control* plays a significant role in psychological theories. In this regard, Almajali (2005:67) names the following theories: Rotter's (1954) social-learning theory, Seligman's (1975) probability analysis of control theories of learned helplessness, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory and Weiner's (1986) attribution analysis of motivation and emotion theory. These theories underlined the fact that the authors searched for ways in which behaviour was controlled. These theories aimed to search for a pathway towards changing individual behaviour.

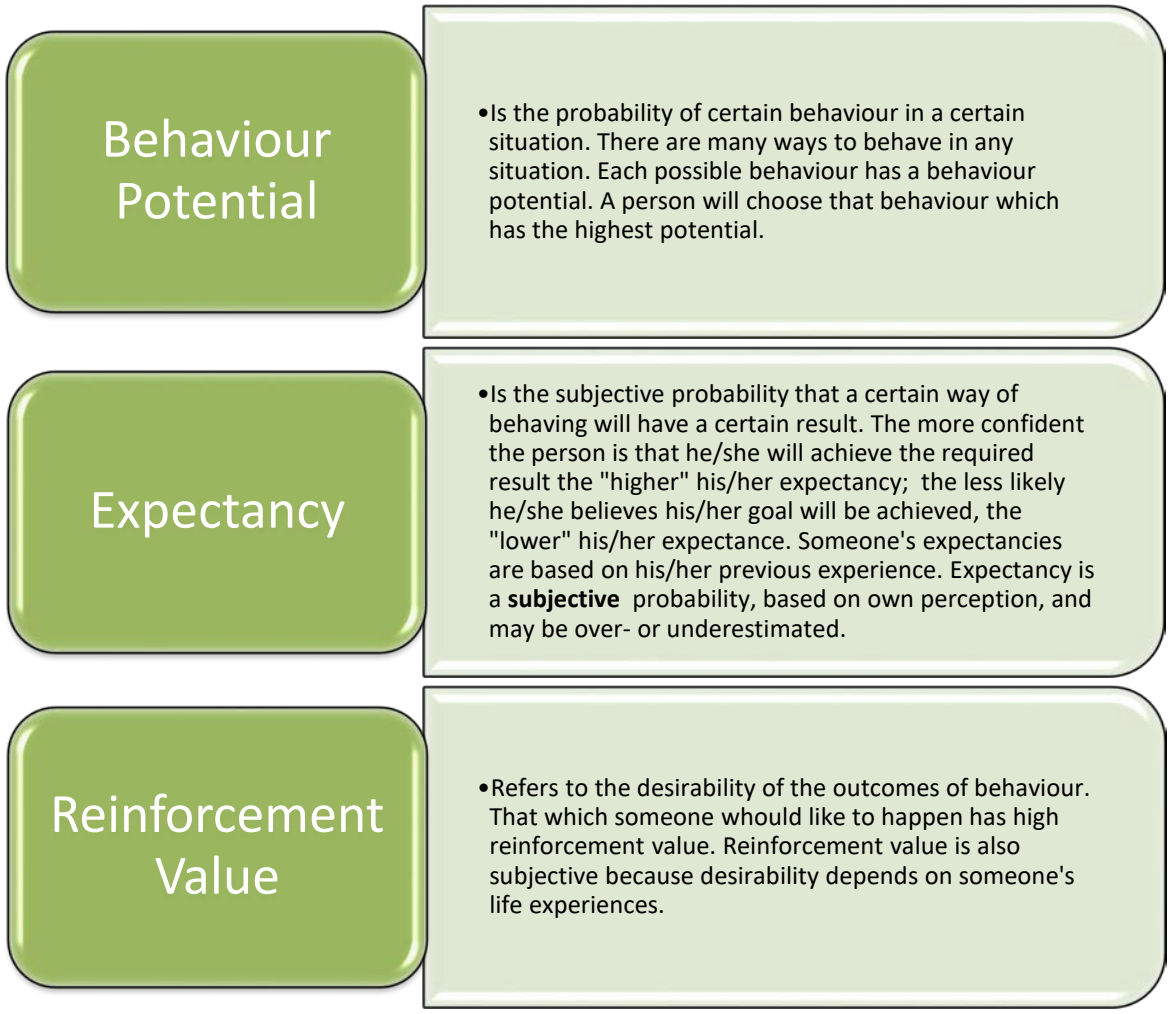
2.2.2.1 Rotter's Social Learning Theory

The publication of *Rotter's Social Learning and Clinical Psychology* set out his social learning theory, which states that *personality* is the result of an interaction between a person and his/her environment. On the one hand personality is never independent of the environment in which the individual finds him-/herself, on the other hand, an individual does not merely react automatically to an objective environment. The behaviour of an individual is not merely a response to a fixed environment which formed part of his/her learning experiences and life history. Behaviour can only be properly understood, if both the individual and his total life history, as well as the individual's environment, are taken into consideration (Almajali, 2005:83).

Rotter's theory holds that behaviour remains changeable throughout the individual's life. Whenever there is a change in the individual's thought processes or in the environment which influences him/her that individual's behaviour will change. The older someone gets, the more set in his beliefs and ways he/she becomes so that a change in personality, although possible, is unlikely (Mearns, 2009:2).

Rotter had an optimistic view of people. He believed that they were stimulated by their objectives, focusing on reinforcement and were less influenced by the threat of punishment. His social learning theory contains four main components, namely: behaviour potential, expectancy, reinforcement value and psychological situation (Mearns, 2009:2).

Fig 2.1: Rotter's Social Learning Theory



Predictive Formula: Behaviour Potential (BP), Expectancy (E) and Reinforcement Value (RV) are combined into a predictive formula for behaviour: BP=ƒ(E & RV). Behaviour potential is a result of expectancy and reinforcement value. In other words, the probability of certain behaviour is a function of the likelihood that behaviour will have a certain outcome and the desirability of that outcome. (Author's diagram).

Psychological situation

- Although Rotter does not include the psychological situation in his formula for predicting behaviour, he believes that it must be remembered that different people interpret the same situation differently, because their subjective interpretation of the environment determines their behaviour.

Generality versus Specificity

- Rotter's social learning theory allows for both specific and general constructs offering the benefits of each. In personality theories general constructs are broad and abstract allowing one to make many predictions, but they are harder to measure and the predictions have a lower level of accuracy. Specific constructs are narrow and concrete, easier to measure, and more accurate in predictions, but limited to specific situations.

Locus of Control

- Refers to what people believe will determine the results they achieve in life. People are classified along a continuum from completely internal to completely external. People with strong internal locus of control believe that they are responsible for the successful achievement of their goals. People with a strong external locus of control believe that their successes or failures are determined by factors beyond their control (luck, chance, other people). They believe they have little influence on their own achievements.

Psychopathology and Treatment

- Rotter did not support the medical treatment of mental disorders as if they were physical diseases. He saw psychological problems as a result of disturbed behaviour caused by unfortunate learning experiences. He said they should be treated in a learning situation in which behaviour and thought processes were corrected.

Adapted from Mearns, 2009:2-3

People's experiences will determine which stimuli they will respond to. In fact, the identical environment may elicit totally different responses in different people. Rotter believed that personality was a relatively stable group of dispositions of the individual who responds to situations in a certain manner.

He also believed that most learning occurred during social situations with other people. Rotter's personality theory was the first to integrate understanding comprehensively as expectancy, and learning and motivation as reinforcement (Mearns, 2009:4). Correlation among relative stable personality characteristics is the rule not the exception, and it is likely that the use of orthogonal factor analysis to build personality tests is misconceived (Rotter, 1990:491).

Almajali (2005:67) sums up *Rotter's Social Learning Theory* as follows: "individuals, in spite of being in the same learning situation will learn different things; some people's response to reinforcement will be predictable, others not at all; some individuals are able to identify a link between the ways they act and the reward and/or punishments they incur". (c*f. 2.2.1*)

2.2.2.2 Seligman's Probability Analysis of Control Theory

'Control' forms the basis of several psychological theories. It is central to Seligman's (1975) probability analysis of control theory. Seligman (1975) cited by Wise (2005:1) has provided a most explicit definition of the concept of control. According to him, an individual has control over an event when he/she is able to determine how his/her response will affect the outcome of that event. If, however, a voluntary response will have no effect on the event, that event is regarded as uncontrollable. Seligman explains his analysis through a mathematical approach. He regards controllability as a result of two parameters. The first parameter relates to the probability that an event will occur when a certain voluntary action is taken. The second parameter relates to the probability that the event will occur in the absence of a particular action. With reference to the two parameters, Seligman explains an event as controllable when the probability of an event in the presence and in the absence of a certain response is equal. Loss of control occurs when there is no connection between behaviours and outcomes. This may lead to motivational, emotional and cognitive deficits. Such deficits may have resulted from the realization that loss of control leads to learned helplessness, a state similar to depression. (Wise, 2005:1).

2.2.2.3 Seligman's Theories of Learned Helplessness

Seligman (1975) also found that loss of control ensued when there is no link between behaviour and effect. This may have an impact on motivational, emotional and intellectual responses. This led Seligman (1975) to his learner helplessness theory (Wise, 2005:2). In other words, depressed persons are likely to expect events to be uncontrollable (Wise, 2005:2) Learned helplessness theory is the view that clinical depression and related mental illnesses may result from a perceived inability to control the outcome of a situation. Seligman (1975) believes that experiences of uncontrollability, like losing a loved one, may result in an expectancy that these occurrences in the future will also be uncontrollable. This expectancy leads to learned helplessness and depression. According to this theory, depressed individuals differ from non-depressed persons in that they are likely to expect not to be able to control events (Wise, 2005:2).

2.2.2.4 Weiner's Attribution Analysis Of Motivation And Emotion

The modern theory with the most impact is probably the attribution theory (Weiner, 1980; 1992). It includes behaviour modification in that it stresses the concept that a happy outcome of feeling good about themselves is a powerful motivation for students. It includes cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory in that it indicates that students' present perception of self will determine decisively the ways in which they will interpret the success or failure of their last efforts and therefore the likelihood that they will apply these same behaviours in future. Winter and Butzon (2009:2) summarize the attribution theory as the explanation that people tend to give for their success or failure. They indicate three sets of characteristics:

- The reason for the success or failure may be either internal or external. In other words, we may attribute our success or failure to factors that we perceive to be within us or factors that originate in our environment.

- The reason for success or failure may be either consistent or inconsistent. If we perceive the reason to be consistent, then the result is likely to be the same if we behave in the same way at another time. If it is unstable, we expect the outcome to be different at a different time.

- The reason for the success or failure may be either within or beyond our control. A controllable factor is one which we perceive as one which we can change if we choose to do so. An uncontrollable factor is one that we perceive to be difficult for us to change.

Weiner's attribution analysis of motivation and emotion (1986) as cited by Wise (2005:2) maintains that the way people respond to others who need help, is influenced by the way the former judge needy people to be in control of the reason(s) for the need. For example, a lecturer is more likely to help a student who is physically disabled than a student who is perceived to be just lazy.

2.2.2.5 Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory

Bandura's self-efficacy theories (Almajali, 2005:70) maintain that an individual's perception of his ability to control future events will influence his/her decision to endeavour to apply that control in order to achieve success. Whether or not the individual has the ability to achieve his/her goal is not important. If he/she believes he can control the situation he/she will attempt to achieve it.

Since Bandura's publication of his seminal 1977 paper, "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change", self-efficacy has become one of the most studied topics in psychology. Bandura maintained that self-efficacy could have an impact on everything from psychological conditions to behaviour to motivation. Self-efficacy develops from early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. The further development of self-efficacy continues throughout life as people acquire new skills, have

new experiences and gain understanding (Bandura, 1992 as cited by Cherry, 2011:1).

2.3 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL

There are different scales to measure locus of control, namely Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1990:492); the Duttweiler Control Index scale (Schepers, 2005:1) and the Internal Control Index Questionnaire (Beukman, 2005:99). For the purpose of this study, only Rotter's scale will be discussed. Rotter's scale is the most widely used scale as it measures locus of control in general and not only one aspect (criterion) of the individual.

The most well-known questionnaire to measure locus of control is the 23-item compulsory choice items and six filler items scale published by Rotter (1966) as described by Carrim *et al*. (2006:71). Rotter's scale is based on the social-learning theory. Rotter's scales have been tested and refined and are still in use (Anderson, 2001:28).

The internal-external (I-E) Scale (Rotter, 1996) was developed with a theoretical variable and its probable characteristics in mind, as well as some ideas of the types of behaviours and situations that interested the researchers and the topics or populations they intended to use (Rotter, 1990:491).

A weakness was identified in Rotter's I-E (internal/external) Scale. According to Crandall, Katkovsky and Candrall (1965) as stated by Beukman (2005:99) a disadvantage is the compulsory choice format because of its weakness regarding social preference. For example the scale does not assess the entire homogeneous concept of locus of control.

2.3.1 Internal locus of control

Neill (2006:2) regards internal locus of control as more advantageous than external locus of control because when people have internal locus of control they will submit to personal control and self-determination. Neill (2006:2) also states that persons higher up in organisational structures are more likely to be internally orientated than externally orientated. A deduction to be made is that people that have been promoted to positions of management are those that have shown a sense of responsibility, reliability, punctuality and overall self-discipline – they are the ones that are likely to be internally controlled. According to Raubenheimer *et al.* (1998:614) it is accepted that people with internal locus of control are more likely to adjust better to what is expected of them in an altered environment. Such people will be able to understand the necessity for possible changes in requirements and limitations and will therefore devise a plan of action to adjust; these people will understand the necessity to co-operate with colleagues and superiors and will adjust accordingly.

According to Neill's (2006:2) argument one can assume that the behaviour of lecturers with an internal locus of control tends to be more driven and motivated, which, in turn, will enable them to avail themselves of opportunities that come their way to develop their skills and potential. Neill (2006:2) supports the theory that individuals with an internal locus of control should be afforded opportunities to develop to avoid the possibility of their becoming depressed. Carrim *et al.* (2006:69) also state that individuals with an internal locus of control believe that their actions are the result of their own effort and ability.

In the Further Educational Training (FET) sector in South Africa, opportunities for development for Level One lecturers are limited. This creates a predicament because the only way for a lecturer to improve him-/herself is to apply for a position outside the classroom, which means that he/she is lost to teaching in the classroom. However, it is important that lecturers maintain and

improve their knowledge of the latest trends in their specialist teaching fields (Jacobs, 2004:164).

According to Almajali (2005:73) individuals with an internal locus of control may also be described as achievement-orientated because such individuals prefer being the organizers and set high standards for themselves. Almajali (2005:73) also affirms that individuals with a high internal locus of control are tough on themselves. They even accept responsibility for failures beyond their control.

Research by McCombs (1991) cited by Almajali (2005:77) suggests that internal locus of control in individuals is triggered by the concept of 'self as agent'. In other words, the 'self' is perceived by the individual in his thinking to be in control of actions and behaviour. It is therefore crucial that the influence of thought is recognized because it will affect motivation levels positively. The power of thought, conscious or unconscious, directs the application of intelligence and knowledge to realize intentions and achieve goals. In other words, "the degree to which one chooses to be self-determining is a function of one's realization of the source of agency and personal control". We can say to ourselves: "I choose to direct my thoughts and energies toward accomplishment. I choose not to be daunted by my anxieties or feelings of inadequacy." (McComs, 1991) as cited by Almajali (2005:77).

2.3.1.1 Characteristics of individuals with an internal locus of control

Individuals with an internal locus of control were researched by Gershow (1989) as stated by Almajali (2005:78) and a summary of their characteristics was compiled by Almajali (2005:78), namely:

- Individuals with an internal locus of control prefer games based on skills.
- Individuals with an internal locus of control make better mental health recovery in the long-term adjustment to physical disability.

- Individuals with an internal locus of control derive improved benefits from social supports.
- Individuals with internal locus of control are more willing to work to improve themselves through remedial work.
- Individuals with internal locus of control are less willing to take risks.
- Individuals with internal locus of control find it easier to resolve depression.
- Individuals with internal locus of control experience more anxiety and self-blame about their failures and repress the memory of disappointments.
- Individuals with internal locus of control are more willing to learn from past experiences and about their current surroundings.
- Individuals with internal locus of control are efficient at firmly withstanding intimidation.
- Individuals with internal locus of control, who have achieved success, raise their behavioural goals. (Individuals with external locus of control lower their goals).
- Individuals with internal locus of control who have experienced failure re-evaluate their future performances and lower their expectations of success.
- Individuals with internal locus of control are more likely to work hard for achievements of long-term goals.

This leads us to the other dimension of locus of control, namely external locus of control.

2.3.2 External locus of control

According to Carrim *et al.* (2006:70), individuals with an external locus of control experience more stress and job dissatisfaction, are exceedingly demanding, but have poor self-esteem. These authors cite Rahim and Psenicka (1996) according to whom individuals with an external locus of control are unable to handle the pressure, uncertainty and challenges associated with a demanding working environment. According to Carrim *et al*.

(2006:69) individuals with an external locus of control have the belief that their own actions can damage future outcomes. They believe the outcomes are dependent on aspects outside their individual control.

2.3.2.1 Characteristics of individuals with external locus of control

A summary of characteristics of individuals with an external locus of control was compiled by Almajali (2005:73-74):

- Individuals with an external locus of control prefer games based on chance or luck.
- Those people with a high external locus of control believe that chance and other people influence their lives more strongly than they.
- An individual with an external locus of control is frequently seen as agreeable and humble.
- An individual with an external locus of control will take minimum credit for success or failure and will not work very hard for projects. They ascribe their success to fate or luck.
- An individual with an external locus of control has lower levels of self-motivation.

2.4 INTERNAL VERSUS EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

Rotter (1990:1) explains internal versus external control as the degree to which persons expect a reinforcement of an outcome of their behaviour to be a direct result of their own behaviour or personal characteristics versus the degree to which persons expect the reinforcement or outcome to be due to chance, luck or fate, under the control of powerful other people, or to be simply beyond their control. Anderson (2001:26) cites Levenson (1981) arguing that internal locus of control and external locus are not only the extreme ends of the measure. This author comments that for some people both elements may be present in a multidimensional measurement. As mentioned in (1.8), some lecturers lie on a continuum and are ranged between the two extreme points, others lie at the extreme points.

Lecturers, like all people, are not always only internally or only externally controlled but are found ranged on a continuum between the two extreme points. Some people, however, are exclusively internally or externally orientated. Locus of control is a concept that has important consequences for an individual's daily life. The aim of this study is to discover if lecturers with an *internal locus of control*, experience better job satisfaction and apply a deep approach to teaching. Internal locus of control is often regarded with approval, whereas external locus of control is depicted as the direct opposite, therefore less desirable. As a general perception this is unacceptable because lecturers may have characteristics of both orientations, internal and external. A vital aspect therefore is to determine which will be the dominant orientation in a particular situation. The level of internal or external orientation of locus of control is influenced by the way individuals grew up and how they learned to deal with complex situations (Anderson 2001:22).

The opposite may also be true. Neill (2006:2) cites that individuals with an internal locus of control, who have a lack of confidence in their abilities (they feel that they ought to be in control but are not), may also be neurotic, anxious and depressed. There is not, however, consensus in literature: Almajali (2005:77) maintains that individuals with an external locus of control may also live happy lives. However, psychological research has found individuals with an internal locus of control to be more in control of their own lives than individuals with an external locus of control. To emphasize his view Almajali (2005:77) cites Alhersh (1993)'s statement that individuals with an internal locus of control tend to hold occupations with superior remuneration.

2.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING LOCUS OF CONTROL

According to Raubenheimer *et al.* (1998:629) individuals' perception of their ability to influence the course and outcomes of their life experiences, is an important determinant of adjustment.

2.5.1. Locus of control as personality construct

The word personality refers to the totality of all the physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics that determine the behaviour of an individual (Meyer *et al*. 2008:10). In literature different views exist about exactly what kinds of characteristics determine the person's behaviour.

Meyer *et al.* (2008:11) define personality as: "... the constantly changing but nevertheless relatively stable organisation of all physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics of the individual which determine his or her behaviour in interaction within the context in which the individual finds himself or herself".

Personality is a set manner of behaving, absorbing and interpreting information, and feeling and reaction to stimuli. Each personality is totally different from any other. Personalities are important in the way people perceive themselves and how others perceive them to be. Science has not yet been able to establish whether personality is a learned or hereditary quality; it is possible that both are true. Psychologists have identified four basic theories of personality (Holmes, 2011:1; Figure 2.2).

Fig 2.2 Four basic theories of personality

Trait	Psychoanalytic	Humanistic	Socio-cognitive
Personality is the result of various established, relatively unchanging characteristics. Some maintain that there are only three characteristics: psychologism, neuroticism, and intro/extroversion. Others, like the "Big 5" model, suggest that five characteristics include all human personalities and that persons live within the spectrum of each. The "Big 5" qualities are openness, neuroticism, extroversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness.	This theory was developed by Sigmund Freud. Freud maintained that personalities included both conscious and unconscious mental forces. The conscious mental force is called Id. It is determined by what Freud termed the "pleasure principle. The subconscious mental force is called Ego which is partly determined by memories using the "reality principle" The unconscious force is the Super Ego which is determined by wishes, intuition, and impulses that the mind is not aware of, and which persons believe to be virtues and morals.	Humanistic theorists maintain that people are inherently good. Personalities are determined by efforts to reach self-fulfilment and consistency with their environment. Humanists wish to advance the positive views of self-concepts. Negative personalities develop only because there is a difference between the perception of self and life-experiences. This leads to anxiety, stress and low self-esteem. Humanists also believe that certain essential human needs determine personalities. The needs are in ascending order of importance, but one level cannot be reached before the preceding level. They include psychological, safety, belonging, esteem and also self-actualization needs.	Socio-cognitive theorists maintain that personalities are caused by personal histories and interpretations. As each person has his/her own individual experiences, he/she has an entirely unique personality. A concept such as self-efficacy is common in the socio-cognitive theory and Julian Rotter's theory of the "locus of control" which maintains that someone's personality is largely determined by his/her focus on external or internal events.

Adopted from Holmes (2011:1)

Personality may be associated with words like *character*, *behaviour* and *individuality*. Locus of control is a building block of an individual's personality because an individual has an opinion of him-/herself that determines his/her behaviour. Neill (2006:1) describes locus of control as a constant, underlying personality construct. Individuals' personalities are influenced by past experiences, family support, self-confidence and upbringing. Personality is developed over a period of time in an ongoing process through experiences and situations as described by Anderson (2001:41). In other words, an individual's life experiences contribute to his/her personality construct. Serretti, Calati, Ferrari and De Ronchi (2007:147) believe that congenital attributes also influence an individual's personality. This belief is supported by Schmidt, Fox, Perez-Edgar and Hamer (2009:831) who maintain that the human temperament is certainly affected by an intricate combination of many hereditary traits, biological systems, and experiences, and will account for the differences in individual personalities. Personality is the sum total of heredity, life experiences and temperamental tendencies (Serretti *et al.*, 2007:155).

Bulus (2011:542) states that locus of control may be an important personality variable in understanding lecturers and their role in the classroom. Bulus examined lecturers' locus of control as well as motivation, job attitudes, stress, self-efficacy, students' perception of classroom, academic achievement, lecturers' teaching performance, anxiety, attitude and confidence as is applies to appropriate classroom management styles. The result of all of these studies showed clear and consistent relationship between internal locus of control and positive characteristics and outcomes (Bulus, 2011:542).

2.5.2 Locus of control and family background

It is important to investigate the influence of locus of control and the way individuals were raised in their families because individuals with an internal locus of control believe they control their environments. A protective, warm and nurturing family environment leads to the development of individuals with an internal locus of control (Almajali, 2005:82). Rejection by the family tends to lead to external locus of control in girls but not in boys, as stated by Anderson (2001:39). (*cf*. Table 6.6.4)

Almajali (2005:82) cites the study of Saber (1999) which found a relationship between locus of control and family styles. Parents using authoritative disciplinary styles, who accentuate independence and responsibility in the upbringing of their children, were found to have children with an internal locus of control. Authoritarian parents tended to have obedient children but did not have the self-control of the children with authoritative parents. Children with authoritarian parents were found to be individuals with an external locus of control. Almajali (2005:82) presents the following reasons for this:

- Authoritative style parents believe they balance their children's demands with freedom and give their children choices. The authoritative style parent has simple rules, which they discuss with the children, and consequences for breaking the rules. These parents encourage self-competence, independence and responsibility.

- Authoritarian style parents are very strict. Parents using this style of parenting have many rules. Children are not allowed to have their own opinions and to ask questions. They do not learn to make good decisions and to think for themselves. The authoritarian parent style encourages irresponsibility, dependence and low self-concept.

The conclusion may be made that an authoritative parenting style tends more strongly to establish an internal locus of control in children. Authoritarian parents restrain the development of an internal locus of control in their children.

As for the development of locus of control in adults, individuals for whom achievement is the principal motivation believe in their own skills and ability and will seek activities that will yield positive feedback (Stout, 1999:8). 'Personal needs' and 'pressure' may also be utilised to change the individual's locus of control and behaviour. According to Anderson (2001:44) 'personal need' will make it more likely for an individual to achieve certain goals, which will encourage an internal locus of control. The contrary is also true; the

environment may influence the individual positively or negatively and will cause ‘pressure’ in his/her life. This is typical of external locus of control.

2.5.3 Locus of control, self-esteem and frustration

Self-esteem is an important aspect of the personality construct. Arogundade (2010:1) did a study on the influence of locus of control and self-esteem on teachers’ frustrations. The result indicates that locus of control and self-esteem cause 99.1% of the variance in teachers’ frustration levels. In other words, locus of control and self-esteem play a decisive role in the management of frustration in an institution. The person with internal locus manages his/her frustration levels more effectively.

According to Stout (1999:21), reliability in a person is associated with self-esteem and internal locus of control. Individuals high in conscientiousness are organised and achieve their goals. The reason for the achievement of their set goals may be ascribed to diligence, discipline and determination.

On the other hand, individuals with an external locus of control manifest extra counterproductive behaviour during times of frustration (Arogundade, 2010:1). Lecturers’ frustration has frequently led to instances of industrial strike actions (Egbule, 2003:157). Such levels of frustration among lecturers are experienced in the education systems, in circumstances when they have a lack of clear guidelines as to reward systems and working conditions and when the possibilities of promotions among colleagues (irrespective of qualifications and experience) are compared. According to Arogundade (2010:1), the nature of the teaching occupation includes poor working conditions such as late payment, lack of a favourable working environment, delayed promotions, poorly equipped classrooms (not enough desks, no overhead projectors, bad lighting) that create a poor learning environment. The author also raises issues such as role conflict (students who challenge lecturers’ authority), domestic problems (HIV/Aids, violence at home, spouse abuse, financial problems) and physical working conditions of service (lack of textbooks, lack of resource materials, class rooms too small).

2.5.4 Locus of control, gender and birth order

Gender differences in relation to locus of control have rendered contradictory results. A number of studies have found no evidence of patterns for locus of control scores between males or females (Johnson & Kanoy, 1980; Bar-Tal & Darom, 1979) and other studies have found some indication of gender differences and locus of control (Callaghan & Manstead, 1983) as reported by Almajali (2005:81). According to Bulus (2011:542) the development of locus of control begins in early childhood and is influenced by child-parent interaction and child-teacher interaction respectively. The latter researchers found that men had greater internal locus of control for matters related to academic achievement.

Anderson (2001:40) refers to the study by Levenson (1981) who found a relationship between birth-order and family size to locus of control, because individuals with first-born status and individuals from small families tended to have stronger internal locus of control. This is an indication that life circumstances and experiences build the locus of control profile levels. (*cf*. Table 6.6.4).

Evaluating the relationship between academic achievement and locus of control found in gender, Almajali (2005:81) states that females tended to take credit for success but tended not to accept responsibility for failure. However Lochel (1983) as cited by Almajali (2005:81), found the opposite to be true. Almajali (2005:81) refers to Parsons (1981) who believes that male persons blame their failure on circumstances beyond their control, whereas females would blame themselves for failure. Females also may not be threatened by accepting responsibility for failures as they may not distinguish between negative reinforcements for social behaviours and academic achievement (Almajali, 2005:82).

It seems therefore, that although locus of control is influenced by gender the influence is not consistent in all areas. Research reveals conflicting results.

2.5.5 Locus of control and culture

A tentative supposition is that disadvantaged groups will have a more external locus of control orientation. These expectations have been confirmed in studies by Joe (1971) as quoted by Anderson (2001:30) who investigated locus of control in minority groups. Predictably, White boys with internal locus of control were found to be more successful than Black boys. Black girls, however, with stronger internal orientation achieved less than those with external orientation. The finding that Black girls with external orientation did better than those with internal orientation was based on the fact that girls did assignments with the help of others. Externally orientated individuals are more likely to display help-seeking behaviour. Probably because girls are not motivated to prove themselves with assignments that are male orientated an explanation might be that the 'need value' for 'male stereotype' assignments might not be very high for girls (Anderson, 2001:30). (*cf*. Table 6.8.1)

2.5.6 Locus of control and performance

In a study done by Taylor, Schepers and Crous (2006:63) the principal objective was to examine the relationship between locus of control and optimal experience (flow) in carrying out work and/or study activities. They found that individuals who experience *flow* are those who complete a challenging task on their own, without interruption or coaching from a third party (someone beyond the individual and the task). It is more likely that these individuals have an internal locus of control. In contrast to Neill (2006:2) who maintained that persons in management were predominantly internally motivated, Basson and Coetzee (2006:69) state that an internal locus of control does not guarantee success in the workplace. Other factors, such as environment, home background, health, workload, also contribute to success in the workplace.

According to Labuschagne *et al.* (2005.26), in an increasingly demanding world, organisations expect improved performance from employees, a situation which has a negative impact on the emotional wellbeing of employees. Tremendous pressure is also being placed on South African organisations to improve their performance and to become increasingly

competitive. Profitability becomes the main focus point, as methods for cost saving are determined. Organisations implement “downsizing”, “right-sizing” or restructuring, or all three simultaneously, in an attempt to survive in difficult economic conditions. This almost inevitably implies the rationalising of jobs.

In the light of what was determined on internal locus of control (*cf.* 2.2.1.2) it may be accepted that people with internal locus of control will tend to deal better with the above-mentioned challenges (*cf.* 2.5.3) They have a stronger sense of self-esteem, and are able to work without supervision.

Work locus of control is related to effort, performance, motivation, satisfaction, perception of the job and compliance with authority, while it acts as a moderator in the relationship between incentives and motivation on the one hand as well as satisfaction and turnover on the other hand (Bosman, Buitendach & Rothman, 2005:17).

2.5.7 Locus of control and goal orientation

Setting definite goals is psychologically important. Individuals who set goals are more likely to feel that they can control their lives than those who do not. Those who set goals typically have an internal locus of control: They perceive that their own actions determine their lives. Individuals with an external locus of control will probably not set goals because, as determined earlier in this study, they perceive events in their lives to be due to sheer luck or chance (Aufiero, 2011:1).

Prospective teachers’ behaviours depend on many crucial characteristics which may be defined as the individual-difference variables or conceptualized as the sources of personal differences. Some of these relate directly to the individual. Among them “goal orientation” and “locus of control” constructs play an important role (Bulus, 2011:540).

The results of a study of Bulus (2011:544) indicated a positive relationship between locus of control and academic achievement of prospective teachers.

According to these results, it is possible to state that as the level of internal locus of control and mastery goal orientation increase the level of academic achievement increases. As the level of avoidance goal orientation increases the level of academic achievement decreases, as the level of internal locus of control increases the level of mastery goal orientation increases and finally, as the level of internal locus of control decreases (and the level of external locus of control increases) the level of avoidance goal orientation increases. In the study, regression analyses indicated that mastery goal orientation and avoidance goal orientation were predicted by locus of control and academic achievement was predicted by both goal orientation and locus of control. These results show that high level of locus of control (being internally controlled = internal locus of control) plays a role in mastery goal orientation and low level of locus of control (being externally controlled = external locus of control) plays a significant role in avoidance goal orientation. These show that personality traits have a predictive power in motivation orientation. The results obtained also mean that mastery goal orientation and internal locus of control contribute positively to the academic achievement of prospective teachers. In other words, it may be said that achievement is a function of both the students' "will" and "their perceptions that the events in their life are the results of their actions".

According to the results obtained in a study by (Bulus, 2011:544), it may be suggested that lecturers should stimulate their students to develop and use internal locus of control and mastery goal orientation to increase their academic performance and to enhance internal locus of control in order to be good mastery goal orientation learners (Bulus, 2011:544).

2.5.8. Locus of control and motivated behaviour

2.5.8.1 Theories of motivation in education

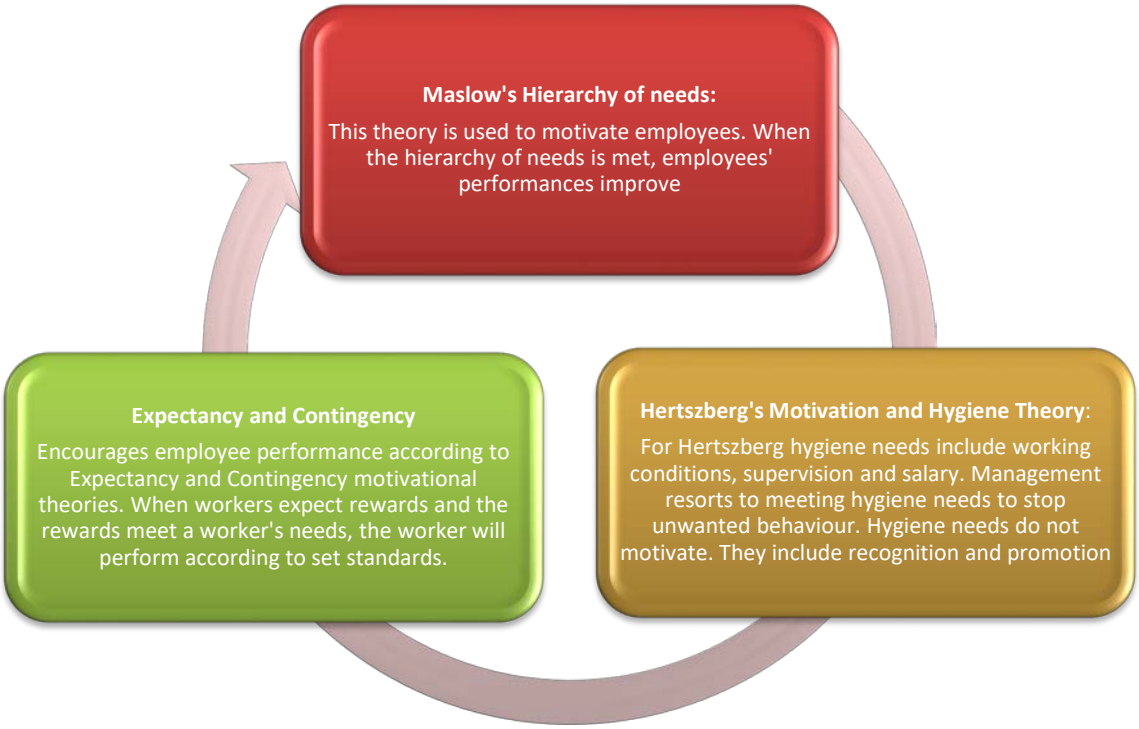
Motivation is a force used within the educational system to encourage students' learning and understanding. In the educational setting, motivation is either an internal force or external force. There are different theories of motivation in the educational setting; including those that state that student behaviour is dictated by either external or internal factors. It is therefore important to know the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and their effect on student learning and success within an educational setting (McDaniel, 2011:1)

Motivation is affected greatly by locus of control. The idea that a person feels his/her own decisions and actions determine his/her destiny indicates an internal locus. If the individual operates using an external locus, he/she believes outside forces are responsible for the events that occur in his/her life and he/she feels that he/she has little control over situations. Those with an internal locus will often use intrinsic motivation, which is person-centred and comes from within an individual, whereas those with an external locus may need extrinsic rewards or consequences as an effective motivational tool (McDaniel, 2011:1).

2.5.8.2 Implementation of motivational theories

Motivational theories explain psychologically what inspires human beings to make the extra effort and to perform according to expectations. Primary motivational theories include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Hertzberg's Motivation and Hygiene Theory, and Expectancy and Contingency theories (Paige, 2011:1; Fig. 2.3).

Fig.2.3 Motivation theories



Adopted from Paige (2011:1)

2.5.8.3 Factors influencing motivation levels

The aim of this section is to identify the factors which influence motivation levels of lecturers in the working environment. Tice (2005:69) identifies two categories of motivating forces: the first category includes a will and co-operative attitude (*intrinsic motivation*), the second category includes the fear of unpleasant consequences.

According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Hornby, 2010:816) *intrinsic* means: "belonging to or part of the real nature of something or somebody". In other words, someone with *intrinsic motivation* will be someone whose nature inclines a person to be motivated. Carl Rogers (1957) as cited by Zimring (1999:5) found that motivation might exist even if there is no prospect of external reward. An increased self-esteem and a sense of achievement for having been successful are rewards enough for some students. In other words,

students will be motivated without the threat of punishment or the enticement of rewards. This intellectual approach is a form of intrinsic motivation and is a result of internal locus of control. Successful students usually have internal locus of control. They do not blame failure on external factors (Zimring, 1999:5).

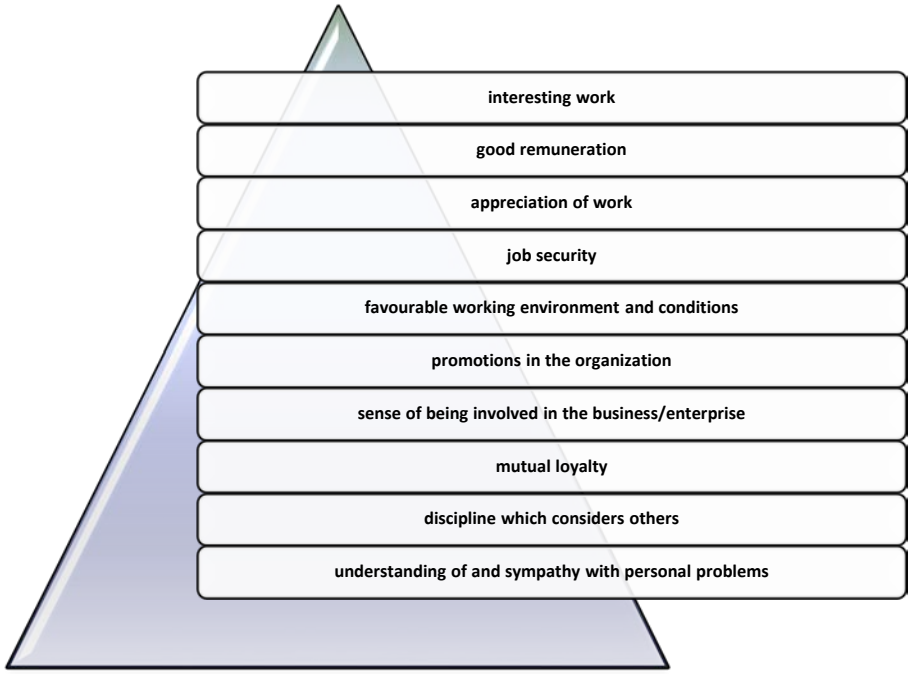
In contrast to intrinsic motivation some students need the promise of reward or the threat of punishment to be motivated to do something. This extrinsic motivation theory was developed by BF Skinner (1904-1990) as cited by Efere (2005:3). Students are more likely to blame external forces such as the teacher, the classroom or the book for their failure. These students with extrinsic motivation have external locus of control.

In order to understand ways to increase lecturers' motivation it is important to understand why lecturers have a lack of motivation. Motivation is about needs and opportunity. Lecturers' behaviour is linked to their attitudes (Lindner, 1998:1). Czubaj (1999:373) affirms that most lecturers, who are not devoted to the teaching profession, will depart within the first five years of teaching.

According to Beswick (2010:1) in some people the level of participation is influenced by interest for a particular activity or task (intrinsic source), whereas other individuals are satisfied principally by their performance on the activity as this performance would reward them in grades, status or remuneration (extrinsic source). Different incentives influence motivation. An individual needs to establish a balance between the intrinsic and extrinsic sources and between different circumstances.

An increase in motivation develops with age. Lindner (1998:2) states that as employees grow older, work that is interesting and exciting turns into a motivator. In his study, employees were asked to rank the factors that motivated them. The outcomes of the study appears in Figure 2.4.

Fig 2.4 Factors that influence motivation of employees



Lindner (1998:2)

2.6. SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy may be defined as a personal judgement of one's own ability to achieve successfully specific goals. People with high levels of self-efficacy consider themselves to be good performers who regard complicated tasks to be challenges to be mastered rather than be avoided. Therefore they also test high on internal locus of control. Self-efficacy effects bring about changes in the individual's approach to tasks, goals and challenges. This process of change persists throughout the course of his/her lifetime (Bandura, 1994:81; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005:34; Colquitt, LePine & Wesson, 2009:159; Pajares, 2002:4).

People of internal locus of control will have high self-efficacy since both of these constructs are imbedded in "people's beliefs in their capacity for producing effects through their own actions" (Ignat & Clipa, 2010:180).

Bandura (1994:71) proclaimed self-efficacy as the individual's conviction of his/her personal capabilities to construct designated levels of performance through manipulation of events that affect their lives. This is an approach which enables individuals to think, feel, behave and motivate themselves. Self-efficacy can be developed through mastery of experiences and overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort.

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher has given details of the life and work of the founder of the concept locus of control namely Julian B. Rotter who identified the concepts internal and external locus of control.

Both internal locus of control and external locus of control were investigated in depth and source material has been acknowledged. It has indicated that lecturers with an internal locus of control tend to be more motivated, focused and self-disciplined. In contrast, lecturers with an external locus of control have been shown to be individuals with poor self-esteem who are inclined to be unhappy in their jobs and do not work well under pressure.

Rotter's scales to measure locus of control have been examined and discussed. This research has shown that questionnaires and scales were developed and refined with Rotter's Locus of Control scale as the foundation.

This research has also identified a variety of factors which influence locus of control. The first of these is the total personality which is the result of an individual's heredity, life experiences and temperament. The following factor mentioned is family background and the influence of the way an individual was raised and the treatment he/she received.

Another factor that has been explored is the effect of self-esteem on frustration levels. Although frustration forms part of a person's personality construct, the teaching occupation seems to have an aggravating influence on frustration. It

has also become clear that individuals with internal locus of control tend to manage frustration better than individuals with external locus of control.

Relating to the personality construct of lecturers there are some factors that influence the individual's character and behaviour such as experience, upbringing, self-esteem and goals. Personality influences behaviour, and locus of control is an underlying feature of personality. To achieve personal goal aspects such as determination, self-confidence and a strong will have been mentioned.

Gender and birth order are also acknowledged factors. This chapter has revealed inconclusive evidence on the matter of the influence of gender on locus of control, although it is reported that women tend to be more committed educators. With reference to birth order first born children and children from small families are reported to have a tendency towards stronger internal locus of control.

All in all, the literature studied seems to come to the conclusion that individuals who have internal locus of control have a better strategy to achieve success.

The next chapter will address the construct job satisfaction and will examine factors that influence the job satisfaction of lecturers.

CHAPTER 3

JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the chapter is to research the construct job satisfaction and to determine factors that influence the job satisfaction of lecturers in the FET sector. The relationship between job satisfaction and teaching approach will also be explored.

The nature of the teaching profession today is such that lecturers experience a large measure of frustration which is caused primarily by unfortunate working conditions. Examples of poor working conditions which lecturers experience are undisciplined students, poorly equipped classrooms and learning environments, late payment of salaries, lack of resources and fewer opportunities for promotion. Lecturers' frustration has been confirmed by instances of strike actions as a result of negligible salary increases and little or no improvement of the salary structure. The frustration of the lecturers may manifest in an attitude of aggression and antagonism towards the students in the classroom. This may adversely affect the academic achievement and psychological development of the students. (Arogundade, 2010:2).

The theories on job satisfaction as well as the factors leading to lecturers' frustration will be covered in the next section.

3.2 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction may be described as a feeling of enjoyment and satisfaction as a result of the way someone experiences his/her working environment (Schulze, 2006:318). Job satisfaction may also result from a sense of pride, cooperation, teamwork and respect experienced having dealt successfully with the challenges provided by the job. The employee experiences a state of familiarity at work, (Carrim *et al*., 2006:66). The latter authors also refer to job

satisfaction as an affective (emotional) response to work that is produced by an employee's comparison of the real results achieved with the results he or she expects from the working environment. Different constructs are generated from the concept job satisfaction. First of all, satisfaction is a positive emotional response to the work situation. Secondly, the existence and quality of job satisfaction should be linked to the response and behaviour of the employee. The measure of job satisfaction derived from a particular work situation depends on the corresponding measure of expectation (Carrim *et al.*, 2006:66).

General work satisfaction is not the result of immediate components of the working environment. According to Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992:5) satisfaction with specific aspects of the job causes satisfaction with the job in general and eventually with life. It is important to note that job satisfaction is only one component of general satisfaction. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978:254) believe that a variety of variables may influence job satisfaction because there is a correlation between job satisfaction and satisfaction with life.

To summarise, job satisfaction is a positive emotional state, influenced by various components, with the emphasis on the fulfilment of the employees' needs and values.

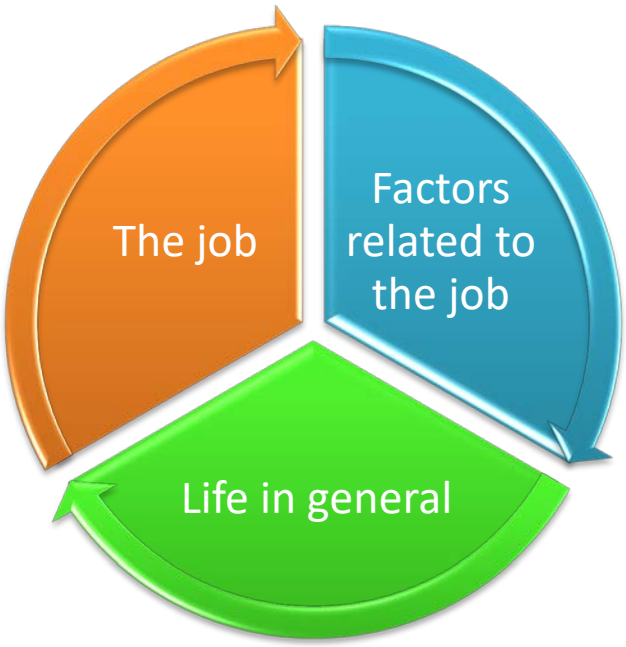
3.3 FOUNDER OF THE CONCEPT

Frederick Taylor (1916) believed that workers were motivated to work for money. Satisfaction, he believed, resulted when the best salary was paid for the least work. This assumption led to the investigation by Hoppock (1935) who questioned what the reasons would be for a person to express his/her total satisfaction with his/her job. Hoppock (1935) reviewed 32 studies before 1933 and remarked that there were many opinions on what satisfied workers in their occupation, but not enough evidence from "factual studies". Thus Hoppock (1935) came to be acknowledged as the founder of the concept, job satisfaction (Scott, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1960:5).

The term was developed and described as a combination of physiological, psychological and environmental circumstances which together form the construct job satisfaction. This has led to the acceptance that a variety of variables are involved which influence satisfaction, but these do not indicate the nature of job satisfaction. The field of job satisfaction is intricate and not so easy to comprehend. A definition of "job satisfaction" is ambiguous, and the term cannot easily be replaced by the terms "*morale*" and "*employee attitudes*" (Scott *et al.*, 1960:5; Brief, 1998:29).

Scott *et al.* (1960:5) mention Blum (1956)'s definition of the term job satisfaction as a combination of the following three components: the job itself; factors related to the job and life in general. (*cf*. Figure 3.1)

Fig 3.1 Blum's definition of the three components in job satisfaction



Adapted from Scott et al. (1960:5) in Blum (1956)

The Hawthorne study (1924-1933), one of the biggest introductions to the concept of job satisfaction and attributed mainly to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, discovered a range of conditions which influences employees' productivity. The Hawthorne Effect indicates that a temporary change in work conditions increases productivity for a short time (Cook,

2008:6). It is indicated that remuneration is not of such importance but that job satisfaction correlates to a large extent with social recognition.

3.4 THE BACKGROUND AND USES OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to Schultz (1982:287) in the times of scientific management matters relating to the circumstances of the workers such as job satisfaction, were completely ignored, as the worker was regarded as just another machine. Industry tried to improve production by searching for efficient selection techniques. However, as soon as human relations became important, in the 1930s, it was realized that workers' productivity was not necessarily due to their skills and ability. The Hawthorne studies, which had interviewed some 20,000 workers, persuaded management that workers' feelings and attitudes also influenced productivity.

This realization resulted in many frantic efforts by industry to measure attitudes and to teach supervisors consideration of employee feelings. The belief was that with the improvement of job satisfaction and morale there would be simultaneous improvement in job performance. However, by the mid-1950s, it was found that the relationship between performance and job satisfaction was much more complex (Schultz, 1982:288).

3.5 THEORIES ON JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction plays an integral role in the field of industrial psychology (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller & Ilies, 2001:25). According to Schultz (1982:287) it is not always easy to distinguish between motivation and job satisfaction as the two concepts are highly interrelated. After an organization has selected and trained its employees, it is important that workers that have completed training should be motivated by as well as satisfied with their jobs. According to industrial psychologists work motivation is the force that drives a worker to perform well. Organizations today have to face the challenge of knowing how to motivate their workers towards

productivity and to stimulate feelings of satisfaction with their work (Schultz, 1982:269).

Ability and skill are essential to do the work but motivation is required to ensure that the work will be done properly. It is difficult to measure the relationship between motivation and performance but it is generally agreed that a worker with high motivation will produce work of a higher quality (Aamodt, 1996:439). According to Hacket (1989) as cited by Aamodt (1996:439) job satisfaction affects employees' attendance, tenure, commitment to the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and job performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinksy, 1985).

In this section several theories that seek to explain why workers are satisfied with and motivated by their jobs will be explored. None of the theories completely and accurately explain job satisfaction and motivation, but each is valuable in that it suggests ways to increase employee performance and satisfaction.

3.5.1 The Needs Theories

3.5.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy Theory of Needs

According to Maslow's Hierarchy theory, one of the best known theories of satisfaction and motivation, employees experience satisfaction with their jobs at any time if certain needs are met (Aamodt, 1996:441).

In Maslow's hierarchy, the five major categories of needs (from lowest to highest) are physiological needs, safety needs, reward and love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs (Gerber, Nel & van Dyk, 1987:269; Gawel, 1997:2).

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:196-197) Maslow's theory is founded on the following three beliefs regarding human conduct:

- A human being always needs to have something as a goal; something he/she would like to have or achieve.
- Once a need has been satisfied it becomes less important.
- Needs may be arranged in five sets of needs in hierarchical fashion in order of priority.

According to Maslow's theory, the need for acceptance and status becomes significant only after the other basic needs have been satisfied. An educational manager needs to be cognizant of the most basic human needs. The lower two levels seldom feature in the daily task of a campus manager, but in the three highest levels needs such as socialisation, appreciation, achievement, prestige and particularly, self-realisation may be used to motivate staff to the maximum extent. The educational leader can make better use of extrinsic motivation to motivate staff for the purpose of realising education and teaching (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:197).

3.5.1.2 The Existence, Relatedness and Growth Theory

There were technical problems with Maslow's hierarchy namely: individual behaviour seemed to respond to several needs, not just one; there was a problem in determining when a level had actually been "satisfied"; there was little empirical evidence to support the model and the same need might cause quite different behaviour in different individuals. Owing to these problems with Maslow's hierarchy, Aldefer (1972) developed a needs theory with only three levels: Existence, Relatedness and Growth – the ERG Theory. Aldefer (1972) also depicts his theory as a needs theory having reduced Maslow's five levels to three. Research by Wanous and Zwany (1977) supports Aldefer's proposed number of levels (Aamodt, 1996:446).

Existence needs comprise physical survival, such as the obvious needs for food, water, shelter and physical safety. An employer can fulfil these needs through salary, fringe benefits, a safe working

environment, and some measure of job security. *Relatedness* needs comprise interaction with other people and the satisfactions they can bring in the form of emotional support, respect in the working environment from co-workers and outside the working environment from friends and family. *Growth* needs focus on the self and comprises the need for personal growth and development, which can be satisfied only by using one's capabilities to the fullest (Schultz, 1982:278). By allowing for such change, Aldefer has removed one of the biggest problems with Maslow's theory (Aamodt, 1996:447).

3.5.1.3 Motivator-Hygiene Theory of Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Literature reflects conflicting information about the exact date of the origin of Herzberg's theory. Schultz (1982:278) reports the date as 1959 whereas Aamodt (1996:447) gives the date as 1966.

According to this two-factor theory developed by Herzberg job-related factors can be divided into two categories: motivators and hygiene factors (Aamodt, 1996:447). In Figure 3.2 examples from this Two-factor Theory can be seen:

Fig 3.2 Examples from Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory adapted from Aamodt (1996:447)

Hygiene Factors	Motivators
Pay	Responsibility
Security	Growth
Co-workers	Challenge
Working conditions	Stimulation
Company policy	Independence
Work schedule	Variety
Supervisors	Achievement
	Control
	Interesting work

Herzberg maintains the two groups significantly influence the achievement of workers. The hygiene factors in Herzberg's theory as such have little influence on motivation but without these factors it is likely that employees will be de-motivated. The motivators (intrinsic factors) encourage workers to do better. They make up a continuum which ranges from "no job satisfaction" to "total job satisfaction" at the other end of the continuum. These factors deal mainly with the fundamental nature of the work, such as recognition which an employee receives, self-realisation, promotion, achievement possibilities, opportunities for promotion and in-service growth and therefore have great motivational value (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:200).

According to Gawel (1997:2) the motivators (satisfiers) have long-term positive effects on job performance whereas the hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) consistently result in short-term changes in job attitudes and performance, which quickly revert to their previous levels.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:200) Thomas Sergiovanni tested Herzberg's theory in practice in the educational situation (1967). It focussed mainly on the view that Herzberg had not irrefutably proved a relationship between motivators and care factors and actual productivity on the part of respondents. Van der Westhuizen (1991:200) criticized the design of the Herzberg's theory.

Modern educational management may benefit from Herzberg's theory as it clearly indicates to the educational leader the importance of care factors in the process of trying to achieve job satisfaction for professional practitioners. Once job satisfaction has been achieved, staff members can by means of motivators be encouraged to give better service which leads, in turn, to greater self-realisation in their daily task (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:200-201).

In summary, satisfiers describe a person's relationship with what he/she does, his/her tasks. Dissatisfiers, on the other hand, have to do with a person's relationship to the context or environment in which his/her tasks are executed. The satisfiers relate to what a person does whereas the dissatisfiers refer to the situation in which the person carries out his/her tasks (Gawel, 1997:2).

3.5.1.4 McClelland's Need Theory

The final needs theory was developed by McClelland (1961) (Aamodt, 1996:449). Since the early 1950s this motivational factor has been studied intensively by the Harvard psychologist, David McClelland, and his colleagues. The achievement need was measured by requesting people to write stories about a series of ambiguous pictures. This projective technique was based on the expectation that people would project their innermost thoughts, feelings and needs on an ambiguous stimulus to give it meaning and structure (Schultz, 1982:274).

Aamodt (1996:449) believes that the theory suggests that differences between individuals originate from the relationship between a job and each employee's level of satisfaction or motivation and that employees differ in their needs for achievement, affiliation and power.

Employees with a strong need for achievement prefer jobs to be challenging and of such a nature that they have some control, whereas employees with limited achievement needs prefer jobs that involve little challenge and have a high probability for success. Employees with a strong need for affiliation prefer working with and helping other people. These employees are found more often in people-oriented service jobs than in management or administration and employees with strong needs for power would prefer to influence others rather than simply be successful (Aamodt, 1996:449).

According to Schultz (1982:275) McClelland's research identified three traits of persons with high need achievement, namely:

- They prefer a working situation which enables them to take personal responsibility for solving problems.
- They are likely to take calculated risks and to have moderate achievement goals.
- High need achievement persons must have definite and constant feedback about their progress.

3.5.1.5 Discrepancy Theories

Theories in this category maintain that satisfaction with a job is determined by the discrepancy between what is wanted, valued and expected by employees and what the job actually offers (Lawler, 1973; Lock, 1969 as cited by Aamodt, 1996:449).

A more recent theory of job satisfaction suggests that certain types of people will generally be satisfied and motivated irrespective of the job (Weaver, 1978) as cited by Aamodt (1996:453). This idea makes intuitive sense as there are always people who constantly complain about every job, and there are also people who are motivated and enthusiastic about every job or task (Aamodt, 1996:453).

Aamodt (1996:453) cites Dubin and Champoux (1977) whose study indicated that some people have a job-orientated focus of life which makes them happier in their jobs than people without this focus. Job satisfaction might be at least partially affected by personality traits (Aamodt (1996:453). Judge and Watanabe (1993:947) have also expanded the idea that job satisfaction is consistent across time and jobs.

3.5.2 Cognitive Theories

3.5.2.1 Equity Theory

The Equity Theory was developed by Adams (1965) and is based on the premise that levels of job satisfaction and motivation are determined by how fairly employees believe they are treated in comparison with others (Aamodt, 1996:454). If they believe they are treated unfairly, they endeavour to change their beliefs or behaviours until the situation appears to be fair. Three components are involved in this perception of fairness: *inputs* (how much effort is put into the work) *outputs* (how much reward is received for the work) and *input-output relational outcomes* (Schultz, 1982:286).

According to Aamodt (1996:454) inputs are those obvious personal elements such as time, effort, education and experience that are put into jobs. Less obvious elements include money spent on child care and distance driven to work. Outputs are those obvious elements received from jobs such as pay, benefits, challenge and responsibility. Less obvious outputs are benefits such as friends and office furnishings.

One of the greatest problems with this theory is that it is difficult to implement. Variables such as salary, hours worked and benefits can be controlled, but others, such as the distance that the employee lives from work or the number of friends an employee makes on the job cannot be controlled. Another problem with achieving equity is that it is determined by the employee's perception of inputs and outputs, not actual inputs and outputs (Aamodt, 1996:455).

3.5.2.2 Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory was first developed by Vroom (1964) and then modified by others, including Porter and Lawler (1968) (Schultz, 1982:285). The theory states that people make choices based on their

perceived expectancy that certain rewards will follow if they behave in a certain way (Schultz, 1982:285).

According to Aamodt (1996:456) this theory has three components, the definitions of which vary with each modification of the theory. The following definitions, however, are combinations of those suggested by others and make the theory easier to understand.

Expectancy (E):	The perceived relationship between the amount of effort put in by the employee and the consequent outcomes.
Instrumentality (I):	The extent to which the result of a worker's performance, if noticed, has a particular consequence.
Valence (V):	The extent to which an employee values a particular consequence.

To understand or predict an employee's level of motivation, these components are used in the following formula:

$$\text{Motivation} = E\,(I \times V)$$

Expectancy implies that an employee, who believes that no matter how hard he works, he will never reach the necessary level of performance, will probably have very low motivation. For instrumentality, the employee will be motivated only if his behaviour results in some specific consequence (Aamodt, 1996:456).

3.5.2.3 Consistency Theory

The third theory that explains work motivation was developed by Korman (1970, 1976) and refers to the relationship between the employee's level of self-esteem and his/her job performance. According to this theory, there is a positive correlation between the two.

Furthermore, employees with high self-esteem set out to perform well, and employees with low self-esteem are happy to perform at low levels (Aamodt, 1996:458). Both employees with high self-esteem and employees with low-esteem will experience job satisfaction.

Three types of self-esteem, all of which are important to job performance (Aamodt, 1996:458) have been identified. Chronic self-esteem refers to someone's overall feeling about him-/herself. Situational self-esteem refers to someone's feeling about him-/herself in a particular situation such as when operating a machine or talking to other people. Socially influenced self-esteem is determined by someone's feeling about him-/herself based on the expectations of others.

3.5.2.4 Goal Setting

The goal setting theory was developed by Edwin Locke. Locke argues that an employee's primary motivation in a work situation is determined by his/her desire to achieve a particular goal. The goal represents what the employee intends to do at a given time in the future (Schultz, 1982:286).

Each employee is given a goal, which might be a particular quality level, a certain quantity of output, or a combination of the two. For goal setting to be most successful, the goals should comply with certain requirements (Aamodt, 1996:466).

The more specific a goal, and the more difficult the goal to obtain, the more motivating it will be. However, goals that are too difficult to realize are worse than having no goals at all as far as motivation and performance are concerned. The goal setting theory enjoys a great deal of empirical support and is influential in organizational psychology today (Schultz, 1982:286).

3.5.2.5 Feedback

Feedback on his/her progress in reaching his/her goal should be provided to the employee (Locke & Latham, 1990) as cited by Aamodt (1996:467). Feedback can include telling an employee by word of mouth how he/she is doing, placing a chart on a wall, or displaying a certain colour of light when the employee's work pace is such that it will result in goal attainment and a different colour of light when the pace is too slow to reach the goal.

3.6 THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS THEORY OF WORK MOTIVATION

The job-characteristics theory was developed by two psychologists, J. Richard Hackman and G.R. Oldham, as a result of research on objective measures of job characteristics that would correlate with worker satisfaction and attendance (Schultz, 1982:283; Staw, 2008:164). Evidence suggested that certain job characteristics influenced both behaviour and attitudes at work, but these characteristics affected various workers differently (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller & Ilies, 2001:28).

According to Schein and Beckhard (1980:72) Hackman and Oldham developed a model which explains work characteristics. In this model the assumption is made that if job motivation improves, internal job satisfaction, general satisfaction and growth satisfaction will increase.

To understand the theory fully, the five core job dimensions or specific characteristics of jobs are defined in Table 3.1.

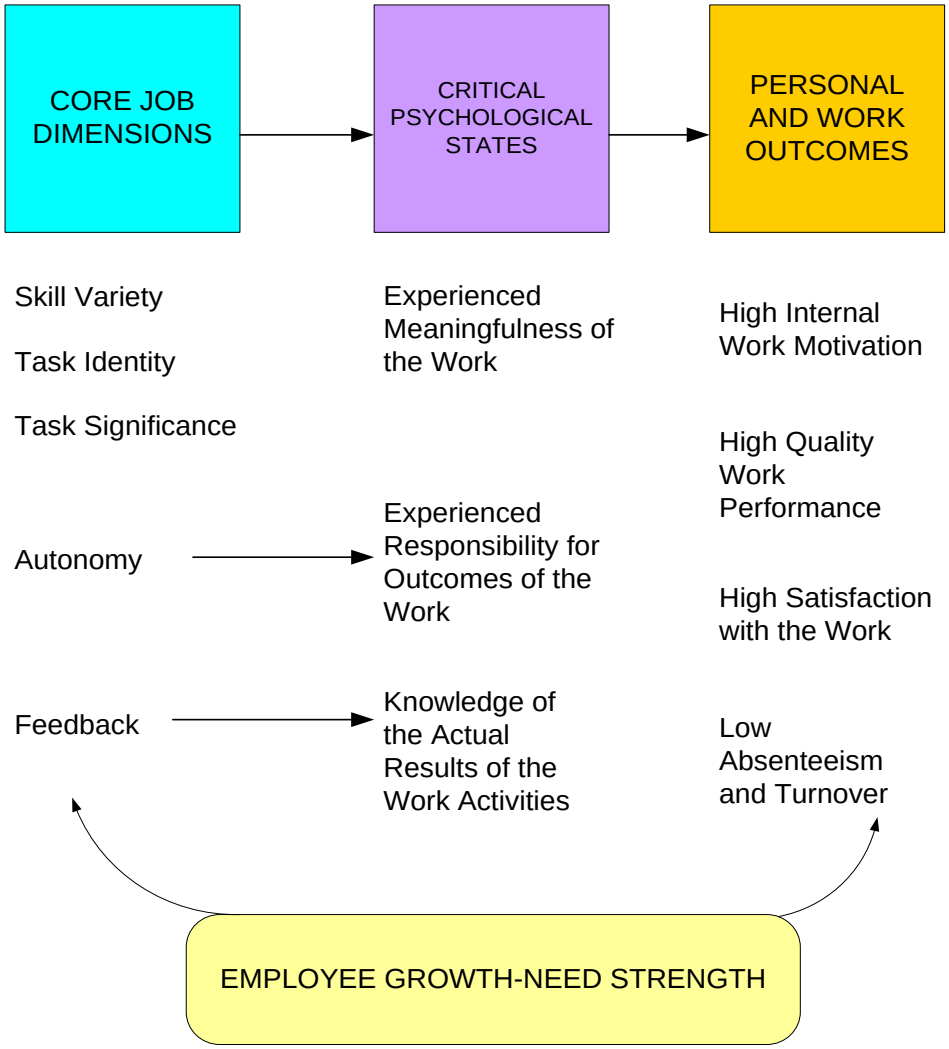
Table 3.1 Job Characteristics

Skill variety	*Number and variety of skills and abilities required to perform a job*
Task identity	*Unity of a job, whether it involves doing a whole unit of work or completing a product or making just a part of that product, as on an assembly line.*
Task significance	*Refers to the importance of the job to the lives and well-being of others*
Autonomy	*Amount of independence an employee has in scheduling and organising work is important. The more a job depends on employees' efforts and initiatives, the greater their sense of personal responsibility.*
Feedback	*Refers to the amount of information employees receive about the quality of their job performance.*

Compiled from Schultz, (1982:284-285).

With JR Hackman and GR Oldham's job-characteristics theory as referenced, Schultz (1982:284) adapted the figure namely: "Motivation through the design of work theory". (*cf.* Fig. 3.8).

Fig 3.3 Motivation through the design of work theory



Adapted from Schultz, (1982:284).

According to Schein and Beckhard (1980:72) there are aspects that lead to greater internal work motivation, namely: the person's work-related knowledge and efficiency; the intensity of his desire to develop the level of satisfaction with aspects such as job content, job security, compensation, co-employees and supervision. Each of these factors, in its own right, may influence job satisfaction, but is more intense if it occurs simultaneously with one or more of the other factors.

Judge *et al.* (2001:31) found that research testified to both direct and indirect support for the theory's supposition that job characteristics at the core of the

job create more satisfaction. Research on the effect of employees' job characteristics on job satisfaction always produced positive results (Judge, *et al.*., 2001:29). Job satisfaction factors such as promotion opportunities, pay, co-workers relations, supervision and the work itself are factors which correlate clearly with job satisfaction.

3.7 MODEL FOR FACULTY SATISFACTION

The Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) model of faculty work, as cited by Nyquist, Hitchcock and Teherani (2000:36) was based on a study of university faculty members' characteristics and their work. The study found that self-knowledge, such as self-efficacy, interest, preferred effort, empowerment, and personal ambition as well as social knowledge, such as institutional support and the effort that faculty members believe their institution desires, can affect behaviour.

Fig 3.4 Model for Faculty Satisfaction

Adapted form Nyquist, Hitchcock and Teherani (2000:36)

According to the model, external factors, such as organisational aspects, job-related aspects and personal aspects, in Figure 3.4 affect satisfaction in higher education institutions (Nyquist *et al*., 2000:37). An employee who feels secure in an environment in which the organization is well managed, job related matters are addressed and personal factors receive due

consideration, will experience satisfaction in his job which will lead to faculty satisfaction.

3.8 FEATURES OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to Greenberg and Baron (1989:133) people are motivated to satisfy their needs on the job. They are also motivated to strive for and attain goals. General satisfaction is experienced when the working environment satisfies the employees' physical and emotional needs, as the fulfilment of the employer's goals. In other words, job satisfaction is the result when the employees' needs and values have been met.

However, some employees are constantly miserable about their circumstances (job dissatisfaction) (Oshagbemi, 1997:357). This should lead to the investigation of the employee's needs.

3.8.1 External factors influencing job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the result when the employment involves diversity, is interesting, requires creativity, autonomy and innovation. The employment should not lead to physical and emotional exhaustion. According to Dunnette (1983:1342) satisfaction includes aspects such as remuneration, promotion and acknowledgement. These factors should be in line with the employer's personal aspirations and talents. In the researcher's experience a passion for a particular calling is an essential requirement for job satisfaction. According to Near *et al.,* (1978:254) circumstances not directly related to the work environment may influence job satisfaction. Dunnette (1983:1328) supports this theory and mentions the following circumstances which lead to improved job satisfaction:

- work that stimulates the employee and leads to the successful completion of the task
- personal interest in the work itself
- work that does not lead to fatigue
- fair remuneration for the work that is in line with the employee's aspirations

- work circumstances that fulfil the requirements of the employee and meets the employee's working goals.
- A sense of self-worth within the employee

The above facts lead to the conclusion that similar external factors exist that influence and motivate employees in diverse occupations. Remuneration is referred to as a central factor which will affect job satisfaction for a limited time only, before the employee will regard such remuneration as a *right*.

3.8.2 Internal factors influencing job satisfaction

Internal factors refer to the internal aspects such as emotion, approach and the employee's passion for his work. Job satisfaction may be described as a feeling of self-worth and mental health. Dunnette (1983:1342) refers to this feeling as a pleasing emotional condition. Savery (1989:27) mentions *status* and *acknowledgement* experienced by the employee as well. According to Dunnette (1983:1334) it is the perception that the employee has of him-/herself, that influences his/her view of him-/herself. Near *et al.*, (1978:254) summarize the concept of job satisfaction as employees that are "satisfied with life".

From the quoted literature the assumption may be made that internal factors relating to job satisfaction are complex and difficult to measure because it is the employee's self-perception that needs to be established. According to Schein & Beckhard (1980:18) it is difficult to evaluate how an employee experiences his/her occupation, but that more focus must be directed on this experience because it influences job satisfaction. The occupation should develop the employee's aptitudes and fulfil his/her needs.

3.9 EMPLOYEES ATTITUDES

3.9.1 Job involvement

Job involvement comprises the degree to which someone identifies with his/her job, actively participates in it, and considers his/her performance

important to his/her sense of self-worth. High levels of job involvement have been found to lead to fewer absences and lower resignation rates (Robbins, 1989:123).

3.9.2 Organisational Commitment

Organisational Commitment comprises the extent to which an employee finds the goals of an organization and the organization itself compatible with his/her personal views, and desires to remain an active role player in the organization. High job involvement means identifying with one's specific job, while high organizational commitment means identifying with one's employing organization (Robbins, 1989:123).

An employee may be dissatisfied with his/her particular job, but will consider it a temporary condition, and will therefore not necessarily be dissatisfied with the total organization. But when the employee becomes dissatisfied with the organization itself, he/she is more likely to consider resigning (Robbins, 1998:123).

3.10 MEASUREMENT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Jobs require interaction with co-workers and superiors, such as adhering to the rules and policies of the organization, fulfilling performance expectations and having less than ideal working conditions (Ensher, Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001:53). This means that an employee's perception of his/her dissatisfaction with his/her job is a complex summation of a number of job elements (Robbins, 1998:130). So measurement of the concept, job satisfaction, needs to be established.

The scales of measuring job satisfaction have changed over the years. During the 1930s surveys were exploratory. The purpose of the surveys was to determine variables that are linked to job satisfaction. It is therefore necessary to define the variables involved in job satisfaction. Scott *et al.* (1960:6) maintain that reviews of the many studies of this matter seem to prove that job satisfaction includes any aspect that in the authors view is important when he

thinks he is measuring job satisfaction. It would therefore also seem that, in order to reach a satisfactory definition of job satisfaction, the measures used and their correlates should be examined.

An investigation of instruments with which job satisfaction is measured Hoppock (1935) as cited by Scott *et al.* (1960:6) states that (a) the job as a whole, or (b) different aspects of the job may be measured. In the former, an overall assessment determines which factors are considered relevant by the person compiling the instrument. Although these factors may not actually be considered of equal importance by different people, Hoppock believes such an overall judgement to be more reliable than an instrument that judges separate factors, because allocating different levels of importance to different job aspects will not reflect the importance of these aspects to another individual. Hoppock also feels that “the mere summation of satisfaction with various aspects of the job is not equivalent to satisfaction with the job as a whole.” He indicates that job satisfaction as such is just one variable, which depends on many aspects of the job.

Hoppock refers to the following two problems: (a) compiling an instrument of measurement that would be effective without reliance on workers’ honesty, and (b) presenting a sample which would represent all occupations and age groups. Hoppock concluded: “When the individual is better off than his neighbour, he is satisfied and when he is worse off, he is dissatisfied”. Hoppock also determined that most employees eventually found employment that gave them at least partial satisfaction, even though the source of that satisfaction at the time of his study was certainly the fact that they were in fact employed (Scott *et al.,* 1960:6).

In the 20th century job satisfaction is about job attitude that includes concepts such as morale, commitment to the company and job involvement (Cook, 2008:6). Satisfaction of employees is an essential part of organisational efficiency. The satisfaction is measured by surveys, rating scales, critical incidents and interviews (Greenberg & Baron, 1989:162).

In order to measure job satisfaction, Mathieu, Hofmann and Farr (1993:371) did a study on job satisfaction and used self-assessment reports to determine employees' job characteristics which also reflected the emotional state of respondents. Schein and Beckhard (1980:16) disapprove of the use of these questionnaires. According to these last authors employees adapt to their working conditions and it is therefore difficult to evaluate how satisfied employees are with their employment or the level of motivation the employees experience for their job. The deduction is that measurement of job satisfaction is not always accurate because emotions are involved, a matter which is an abstract concept.

Scales to measure job satisfaction are for example the Job Descriptive Index (JDI); the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the Job-in-General (JIG) Scale. The scale to measure job satisfaction used in this thesis is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), which was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) (Aamodt, 1996:473).

3.10.1 Assessment scales and questionnaires

The most general approach of measuring job satisfaction entails the employees being requested to fill in special forms to indicate their current response to their occupation. According to Westbrook (1981:3) "respondents select the rung that best describes their feeling about their job".

- In the first place, as with any survey techniques, the assumption is made those respondents were both willing and able to describe their feelings. It is, however, not so easy to put feelings and emotions in writing.
- Secondly, it is assumed that questionnaire items have the same meaning for all people. People, however, do not always interpret questions in the same way.

3.10.2 Critical incident

The second technique used to evaluate job satisfaction is the critical incident procedure. Individuals describe incidents related to their work which they experience as extremely satisfactory or unsatisfactory. Their replies are then examined to uncover underlying themes (Greenberg & Baron, 1989:172). According to Robbins (1989:441) critical incident evaluates those behaviours that are crucial to making the difference between executing a job effectively or ineffectively.

3.10.3 Interviews and personal meetings

Another technique to evaluate job satisfaction is interviewing employees. Interviews provide a more detailed analysis of worker's attitudes than questionnaires. Interviews and personal encounters, however, are expensive and time consuming. Scarpello and Campbell (1983:557) did an empirical study and used semi-structured interviews to obtain information about the following: determinants of job satisfaction, overall satisfaction with work, satisfaction with career choice, career progress and satisfaction with non-work related events. According to the researcher a possible challenge is that the interviewer has to be a good judge of character, so that he will be able to judge the honesty and sincerity of the interviewee's responses during the interview.

In summary: the choice of methods will depend on the specific situation. These methods do not answer all the questions about how employees experience their work; they will only give an overall impression of employees' response.

3.11 EFFECTS OF POOR JOB SATISFACTION

As to the question, about what low levels of job satisfaction within the workplace do to the individual, Savery (1989:30) believes that the individual becomes restless which leads to a lack of concentration. It stimulates a

feeling of irritation which may lead to depression. In addition, the negative impact of poor job satisfaction on the individual's physical, mental and emotional state eventually affects work performance (Jordan, Ashkanasy & Hartel, 2002:362)

Locke (in Dunnette 1983:1343) reveals that job satisfaction alone or in combination with other conditions (both individual and in the work environment) implies various consequences for the individual: It may influence the employee's attitude towards life, his family and himself, so that it influences his mental well-being and adjustment. The employee's mental well-being and adjustment play a causative role in absenteeism and labour turnover of the organization.

It is therefore apparent that job satisfaction may be affected by certain conditions but that job satisfaction as such, has no direct impact on work performance.

3.12 LECTURERS' DEPARTURE FROM THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Every year numerous lecturers leave the teaching career. There is evidence that some personal factors affect teaching negatively. For lecturers who blame students and see them as stupid, troublesome, hostile and having no direction, the teaching experience becomes boring and stressful (Lemmer & Badenhorst, 1997:20).

Among the factors that have contributed to lecturers in South Africa leaving the profession have been the strategies used against dissenting lecturers. These strategies have included thwarting opportunities for promotion, transferring a lecturer a long distance from home and friends, and direct harassment, including political detention. This last was most prevalent in pre-democratic South Africa (Lemmer & Badenhorst, 1997:20).

While stress and burnout play an important role in the well-being of the individual lecturer, the attraction of other careers should not be

underestimated. Even with the recent innovations in the salary structure, teaching still remains a poorly-paid profession. In South Africa there is the problem of unqualified and underqualified teachers. Unqualified teachers are those who, in spite of degrees, have no teaching qualification. Underqualified teachers are those with inadequate qualifications for the positions they hold. (Lemmer and Badenhorst, 1997:20) There have been pressure on and encouragement of lecturers of Ikhala FET College to upgrade their qualifications to a certificate in teaching.

3.13 HOW EMPLOYEES CAN EXPRESS DISSATISFACTION

Employees' dissatisfaction can be expressed in a number of ways. Figure 3.5 offers four responses that differ from one another along two dimensions: constructiveness/destructiveness and activity/passivity (Robbins, 1989:136-137). They are defined as follows in Fig. 3.5:

Fig 3.5 Employees' dissatisfaction expression

EXIT	***VOICE***
Dissatisfaction expressed by leaving the organization	*Dissatisfaction expressed by active and constructive efforts to improve conditions.*
LOYALTY	***NEGLECT***
Dissatisfaction expressed by merely waiting for circumstances to improve.	*Dissatisfaction expressed by letting circumstances worsen.*

Adapted from Robbins (1989:136-137)

3.14 LECTURERS' JOB SATISFACTION

For lecturers, the current situation in education in South Africa is based on transformation and alteration of structures. Lecturers should establish a delicate balance between educational demands on the one hand, and enjoyment of their occupation on the other.

In this section the main focus will be on the situational factors that play a role in the teaching-learning environment that have an influence on the job satisfaction of lecturers. According to Lindeque (2002:62) and Lindeque and Vandeyar (2004:120) these factors include lecturers (and their teaching approaches), students (and their approaches towards learning), the learning content and the teaching-learning environment which includes both the institution and the classroom. Although these factors will be discussed separately in this chapter it is important to note that the various factors are also interrelated. All the variables will influence the degree of job satisfaction that lecturers experience. Each situational factor can singly or in combination with others influence any aspects of the teaching-learning environment.

The contextual variables that have become apparent in this study are working conditions for lecturers, the prescribed syllabus and evaluation requirements for a particular discipline. According to Cranton and Knoop (1991:108) there is simple or linear association among the many variables that are the forerunners to or the outcomes of teaching effectiveness.

Lecturers' job satisfaction in the teaching environment is determined by their overall attitude towards the job and satisfaction with teaching itself. The lecturer that experiences job satisfaction is satisfied with students, co-workers, opportunities for advancement and the salary (Koustelios, 2001:354). However, Cranton and Knoop (1991:103) hold a conflicting view maintaining that faculty instructional development and teaching improvement rarely contribute towards a sense of job satisfaction.

Two aspects of job satisfaction are generally identified: an overall attitude toward the job, and specific feelings about various facets of the job (for example, the tendency to be more or less satisfied with teaching itself, with students and co-workers, with opportunities for advancement, and with remuneration). An instructor who likes interaction with students, but who, owing to large class sizes, is only required to lecture, would be dissatisfied with this aspect of the job (Cranton & Knoop, 1991:103).

Programs in academic and the teaching environment are rarely considered in the determination of job satisfaction. According to Cranton and Knoop (1991:103) it is unrealistic to expect improvement from programs that focus on teaching skills, if the problems experienced are due to, for example, ineffective management and are not related to lecturers teaching skills. Lecturers who are dissatisfied with their jobs will not be amenable to suggestions that, in effect, require of them to spend more time on their teaching.

The satisfaction of the lecturer is associated with students' results, career opportunities, the working environment, faculty stress and burnout. The satisfaction of the lecturer is also influenced by the contents of the learning discipline, available resources, class size and the timetable. If teaching effectiveness is marginal, job satisfaction may also be expected to be limited. With improved teaching, satisfaction with the work and with the job overall should increase. According to Cranton and Knoop (1991:103) a lecturer who combines methods and techniques of teaching from the teaching models, to grow in teaching skills, becomes a skilled and effective lecturer who derives increased satisfaction from teaching. An analysis of this statement exposes a need to distinguish between satisfaction with the teaching career and circumstances and satisfaction derived from teaching.

3.15 IMPROVEMENT OF LECTURERS' TEACHING PERFORMANCE

Schulze (2006:332) mentions a deep pessimism among many South African academics. It seems that, although academics feel their work is significantly challenging and personally satisfying and that they have made a contribution with their work, they are frustrated by the lack of control over their personal careers and by the limited recognition they receive for their work within the university (Huang & Van De Vliert, 2003:160). This affects the quality of their job satisfaction.

Dissatisfaction in Higher Education may be attributed to increases in class size, measures and procedures of course evaluation, public attitude of the academic institution which claims to value the teaching and administrative activities, little recognition for teaching skills and demands of individual students. Other factors include expansion of student numbers without equal increases in resources, marking of answering scripts, amount of marking, decreasing quality of intake, increase of staff/student ratios and government interference with teaching. Students' attitude to learning, emphasis on research at the expense of teaching and the amount of mechanical teaching and marking also contribute to high levels of dissatisfaction in Higher Education (Schulze, 2006:333).

Additional reasons for dissatisfaction among academics that are indicated by Schulze (2006:333) are poor communication with university authorities, failure to provide agreed job description, authoritarian management structure, lack of consultation and top-down communication and government policy towards universities. This author also refers to unfavourable working hours, lack of co-ordination in management, not getting promoted unless one applies for it, lack of proper departmental strategy on teaching and research, poor retirement benefits, excessive bureaucracy and lack of leadership from the centre of the university. Inconsistency in planning, location of university, changes in the academic institution funding mechanisms, not being able to retire with full benefits at 60, difficulty with managing the separate responsibilities of administration, teaching and research, and indifferent and inefficient

management are also highlighted as contributory factors that influence dissatisfaction (Chen, Beck & Amos, 2005:374; Loke, 2001:194). Czubaj (1999:372) declares educators' emotional stress to be due to students' lack of discipline and attitude problems. Educator emotional stress components were listed as self-doubt, anger, lack of confidence, absenteeism and early retirement (Lather & Goyal, 2003:51). Czubaj (1999:372) and Burchell, Day, Hudson, Ladipo, Mankelow, Nolan, Wichert and Wilkinson (1999:2) describe educators' personality stress components as negative life experience, negative self-perception, low morale and their struggle to maintain personal standards and values in the classroom.

Although job satisfaction is partially determined by external factors, this study theorizes that lecturers with an internal locus of control will have internal motivation, self-determination and self-efficacy to overcome the factors which are detrimental to their job satisfaction. Through this pathway it is hypothesized that in spite of adverse circumstances in FET Colleges, these lecturers will deliver efficient work which in teaching amounts to a deep teaching approach.

To summarise: the individual academic's capability, self-image and motivation will determine the extent to which the factors relating to work stress as mentioned above, will influence his/her state of mind, his/her performance and his/her job satisfaction.

3.16 CONCLUSION

This chapter has shown that a number of factors influence job satisfaction. Most factors of job satisfaction focus on variables that are directly related to the work or work environment. There is a difference between external and internal factors that influence job satisfaction. In investigating the factors which influence job satisfaction, the needs of the employee are used as starting point. In other words, the employee possesses certain expectations of the employer and the organisation. If these needs are met, a measure of job satisfaction is experienced. It is not very easy, because the needs of the

employee and the effect that the employer exercises on the employee cannot be classified in watertight compartments. The experience of job satisfaction of the employee also has an impact on the employee's behaviour, the employee's relationships and non-work activities such as family relationships.

CHAPTER 4

TEACHING APPROACH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The study's hypothesis is that lecturers who have an internal locus of control will experience job satisfaction (in spite of adverse conditions in education FET colleges) and will apply a deep teaching approach. Deep teaching contributes to long term memory of knowledge, which would enable students to function optimally in their work situation (Burton, Taylor, Dowling & Lawrence, 2009:67).

This chapter will explore the factors that contribute to the deep teaching approach of lecturers. To understand deep teaching, deep and surface learning must be investigated. The factors in the teaching-learning situation that influence lecturers' teaching and students' learning will be identified.

4.2 LEARNING APPROACH: DEEP AND SURFACE LEARNING

Merriman and Caffarella (1998:124) cite Maples and Webster (1980) who defined learning as "... a process by which behaviour changes as a result of experience" and Knowels (1980:56) whose definition is as follows: "... an internal process controlled by the learner and engaging their whole being".

A seminal study on learning approaches done by Marton and Saljö in 1976 determined the approaches students employed when they were learning new material (Houghton, 2004:206; Haggis, 2003:95). In this study students had to study academic articles. They then had to explain what and how they had learned the contents. Marton and Saljö discovered that what the students had planned to know as a result of their studies determined their approach to learning. The students were divided into two main groups: those that had planned to acquire a profound knowledge and understanding of the material and those students who just set out to memorise words and facts.

The conclusion that these authors reached was that the former group who had wished to understand what they had learned concentrated on certain ideas and themes in their attempt to understand. The second group who had only wanted to memorise, concentrated only on the words of the text. In this study two ways of planning how to study and two ways of studying were identified: the basic concept for deep and surface approaches to learning was conceived. There were two approaches, namely deep and surface learning (Trigwell, Prosser & Waterhouse, 1999:57; Rogers & Friedberg, 1993:67).

4.2.1 Deep learning approach

As was indicated by the study done by Marton and Saljö, students who apply a deep approach to learning endeavour to comprehend, to make sense of and to relate to the learning material, thus making use of ideas and concepts. These students employ the faculty of thought, they try to distinguish the relationship between seemingly unrelated facts and ideas and search for underlying meaning (Atherton, 2005:2). Houghton (2004:2) quotes Biggs (1999) when describing deep learning: “Examining new facts and ideas critically, and tying them into existing cognitive structures and making numerous links between ideas”.

A total understanding of the material studied is the result when deep learning was employed (Houghton, 2004:1). In the process of deep learning previous knowledge is linked to newly acquired knowledge. In this process knowledge from different courses is understood and is related to everyday life (Burton, Taylor, Dowling & Lawrence, 2009:67). The process of deep learning allows the student to restructure the course material into an understandable entity which he is able to internalise (Ramsden, 1992:31).

Giddens (2007:254) and Burton and Nelson (2005:66) cite another aspect that enhances deep learning, namely *emotions*. When the student’s emotions are involved in the learning process enthusiasm rises and the student develops a will to understand and learn.

When deep learning has been employed not only the retention of concepts and ideas, but also comprehension and interpretation of the learning material, are embedded in the student's mind for the rest of his life (Houghton, 2004:1; Diseth, 2003:145). Students are excited and gratified by the prospect of this new challenge.

In summarizing the concept deep learning, it means connecting the subject content to solving problems in the real work situations and making sense of abstract meanings. The challenge of changing an attitude to establish learning is the responsibility of both the student and the lecturer. The lecturer can apply encouraging teaching principles to create a positive learning environment but the student should make the conscious effort to open his/her mind and create a will to learn.

4.2.2 Surface learning approach

Surface learning can be described as: "Accepting new facts and ideas uncritically and attempting to store them as isolated, disconnected, items", Houghton (2004:2) citing Biggs (1999). According to Dalton (2009:42) surface learning concentrates on the immediate present. The student concentrates on random facts and unrelated concepts as the sole aim is to use this material for assessment goals only (Laird, Shoup & Kuh, 2006:4). In the surface approach the student concentrates on satisfying short term goals, on learning random facts by rote in order to reproduce such facts with no indication of comprehension (Ramsden, 1992:30; Atherton, 2005:3). Such work is easily and quickly forgotten (Diseth, 2003:145; Houghton, 2004:2). The fear of failure is uppermost in this student's mind, he battles to cope with the subject material and is both thoroughly bored and anxious (Ramsden, Beswick & Bowden, 1989:158).

Gordon, Lim, McKinnon, Nkala and Parker (1998:2) address the characteristics that are present in a course in which the students adopt a surface approach to learning, such as heavy workload, excessive amounts of course material, lack of opportunities to pursue subjects in depth. Groves (2005:321) supports the view that a large amount of knowledge that needs to

be assimilated in a short space of time leads to a surface approach to learning. In the researcher's experience, when things are difficult for students, they learn only to pass and students report that they had only enough time to master the basic concepts.

Biggs and Collis (cited in Smith & Colby, 2007:206) developed the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO) taxonomy that illustrates a scale from surface to deep learning. The SOLO taxonomy is divided into five hierarchical levels to represent the quality of learning of a particular occurrence or task and is described in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of possible student responses corresponding to the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome (SOLO)

SOLO LEVEL		**RATIONALE FOR SOLO RATING**
SURFACE	Pre-structural	The learner misses the point and generates a response that merely repeats the question.
	Uni-structural	The response focuses on only one aspect of the task.
	Multi-structural	The learner has provided multiple relevant details but has not discussed the relationship among those details. The lecturer knows that the student used a recall strategy to generate the response because all cause and effect pairs have been discussed in class.
DEEP	Relational	The learner has identified multiple relevant details and has discussed the relationship between these details.
	Extended abstract	The learner has identified multiple relevant details, discussed the relationship among these details, and has constructed principles about subject matters that he or she has used to develop hypotheses.

Adapted from Biggs and Collis (cited in Smith & Colby, 2007:206)

4.2.3 Scholars of learning approach

Dalton (2009:38) cites Knowels (1980) and describes learning as "... an internal process controlled by the learner and engaging their whole being".

The concept of learning approaches was first researched in the 1970s by Swedish students Marton and Saljö (Haggis, 2003:95) (*Refer to 4.2.1*). Marton and Saljö (1976 as cited in Campbell, Smith, Boulton-Lewis, Brownlee, Burnett, Carrington & Purdie, 2001:173) placed a greater emphasis on the preference of the individual when he or she selects an approach to a learning task.

At approximately the same time similar work was being carried out by Biggs in Australia in 1978. Biggs, an Australian lecturer in Higher Education, developed the Study Process Questionnaire for tertiary students. He argued that the learning approach of students was influenced by motivation for a specific task and the different strategies of motivation form a learning approach. Biggs developed the concept of the achieving approach to learning shown to be optimistically related to academic performance. The achieving approach is stronger in students with a stronger aspiration for success and status. The aspiration and motivation for success may, therefore, improve the achieving approach. The motivation of students may also have a negative influence on academic success because the two components are conflicting. If the motivation approach is absent, the consequences will be negative (Biggs, 1979:382). The student with an achieving approach will be more likely to apply deep learning.

Biggs developed a questionnaire which could determine the extent to which approaches to study related to wider attitudes in life. Biggs's hypothesis was based on the fact that students who expected wealth and achievement adopted a surface or achieving learning approach. Students who were motivated by intrinsic values adopted a deep learning approach. In higher education Biggs (1999) as cited in Entwistle (2000:8) argued for the importance of constructive alignment, and active integration of new

information. Biggs is a supporter of personal understanding of the curriculum and teaching-learning environment.

Ramsden and Entwistle in Britain (Marton & Saljö, 1997:156) did further studies on this subject. These gentlemen identified a third approach: strategic approach to learning (Biggs, 1992:10). Many other studies based on these first researchers' conclusions have followed and instruments have been developed, for example Biggs's Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F). These models were all used to assess the students' approach to learning (SAL). They are all tests to differentiate between the two basic learning approaches, deep and surface learning. (Biggs, 1999 as cited in Houghton, 2004:2)

4.3 ADVANTAGES OF DEEP LEARNING

Some studies have led to evidence of good academic results as a result of deep learning approach, whereas other studies reported poor academic results with a deep approach of learning. Yet other research studies reported good academic results with a surface approach of learning (Diseth & Martinsen (2002) as cited in Diseth, 2003:221; Duff, Boyle, Dunleavy & Ferguson, 2004:1907).

It has not been determined whether deep learning will lead to improved academic results. This theory is therefore open to questioning. A deep approach to learning may, however, result in long term retention. Students who adopt a deep approach to learning connect new information to their previous knowledge and develop a deep understanding of the field of study. Many studies that have been done on the relationship between learning approach and academic achievement have produced inconclusive and contradictory results.

According to Wee (2010:2) students with a deep approach to learning will engage with the new ideas and concepts and ask questions such as: "How does this fit in with the explanations"?

Groves (2005:321) states that the conceptual understanding enables students to build on their individual knowledge framework that may be implemented in clinical situations. It may, therefore, be safely concluded that deep learning has occurred when a student who has acquired new information, is able to retain it, and knows when and how this information would be applied effectively once he/she is employed.

Learner characteristics such as personality type, age and previous academic experience have an influence on students' learning approach. The student is an individual with background, personal problems and preferences that affect the learning process (Groves, 2005:324; Funder, 2001:2; Mc Adams, 1995:363).

4.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE AND ENCOURAGE DEEP LEARNING

The factors that encourage deep learning are related to the learning environment, that is group work, assessment and researching of outcomes, feedback and involving emotions. All of these circumstances and activities require effort, motivation, passion and enthusiasm from the lecturer. This study assumes that lecturers with an internal locus of control will have the self-determination, responsibility, self-discipline and internal motivation to meet the above stated criteria.

4.4.1 Learning environment

A class feels intimidated when the lecturer presents content which is beyond the students' ability and this leads to information quickly forgotten. Khan and Gee (1999:290) support this view maintaining that the opportunity for learning and understanding is lost in such an environment, because they experience emotions of anxiety that lead them to become demoralized. Groves (2005:321) states that a learning approach is likely to be determined more by the learning environment than by an inherent trait in the students themselves. The learning environment refers also to the class climate or atmosphere, the available resources and the lecturer's relationship with the students.

Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006:2) describe class time as the time for interaction between the learner and the lecturer. This interaction occurs in the safe and orderly classroom situation, which is conducive to effective learning. Class time should establish high levels of learning rather than content exchange. Such high levels of learning are the result of effective deep teaching.

4.4.2 Group work

Outcomes-based education requires group activities as stated in the "*Facilitating Outcomes Based Learning and Teaching guide for Trainers and FET College Lectures Policy*". The purpose of group activities is to develop independent learning and research skills in each participant in a group, and enhance self-confidence among students.

Group activities may be a challenge if resources are limited. Costa, Van Rensburg and Rushton (2007:216) address the financial and resource outlay of providing interactive group-discussion gatherings because this sort of teaching can only be accomplished with relatively small groups.

4.4.3 Assessment and outcomes

The concept, assessment, refers to evaluation and the concept, outcomes, refers to what the learner should be familiar with and accomplish at each grade level. Assessment involves tasks, exercises, tests and examinations to determine the extent to which the learner has achieved the required outcomes (Sieborger & Macintosh, 2004:5; Bowden & Marton, 1998:29). In other word in the content of this study, the students' learning should be analysed to discover if deep learning was achieved.

Assessment constitutes the method by which the students' understanding of the course content may be evaluated, but often assessments involve only the answering of a few questions. If overall learning is examined, answers will yield limited information on the success of the learning process, or even, according to Persky (2008:5), whether any measure of deep learning has occurred. Assessments do not represent the entire learning process;

therefore, frameworks for the communication of expectations and the result of rubrics should be used to assess the students' effort and learning, but should be compiled that the level of deep learning and also deep teaching will be measured. Lecturers find the 'outcomes-based' approach to be less effective and less encouraging because only one dimension of learning is developed (Wilson, 2003:25).

Campbell (1998:2) suggests the following assessment methods when teaching for deep learning:

- Define the goals and tasks for the assessment clearly.
- Allow choice of different assessment tasks.
- Allow enough time to gather information.
- Support collaborative projects.
- Require tasks that involve integration of information.
- Give feedback on assignments and tests.

Students apply a surface approach to learning when there is a lack of choice over subjects, lack of choice of methods to study and an intimidating and anxiety-provoking *assessment* system (Gordon *et al.*,1998:2; Raseale, 2006:2).

Groves (2005:324) maintains that the type of assessment is one of the factors that influence the learning approach. According to the researcher's experience assessments with high numbers of short questions and multiple choice questions will lead to surface learning because a deep understanding of the learning context cannot be demonstrated.

4.4.4 Feedback

According to Wee (2010:3) the attitude of the student may be promoted by the powerful learning tool of feedback. Through feedback the student experiences a supportive environment and develops critical understanding of new ideas. The attitude of learning may be determined by the will, mind-set, thoughts and feelings and experience of the student to find meaning in the new information. The student must be challenged to understand the new concepts, to solve

problems and to apply prior knowledge. Chickering and Gamson (1987:1) states that feedback assesses the students' existing knowledge and indicates where change is needed.

According to Bansilal, James and Naidoo (2010:162) essential tools in the hand of lecturers, in the process of improving education quality and students' skills (i.e. deep teaching) are lecturers' effective assessment feedback, and students' empowerment to voice their experiences of this feedback.

4.4.5 Deep learning and emotions

To establish deep learning, emotion is involved (Giddens, 2007:254). Deep learning generates deep understanding and a deep understanding produces the ability to apply the skills and knowledge in practice. Emotion is the key component associated with deep learning because emotion stimulates chemicals and neuronal networking in the brain that enhance a deep understanding, a quality not found in surface learning experiences (Giddens, 2007:254).

Cassidy and Eachus (2000:307) and Biggs (1987:5) conclude that a deep learning approach and academic self-efficacy have been acknowledged as the two aspects contributing to academic achievement. A possible reason is that students who followed a deep approach to learning have a more positive and rewarding academic experience. The logical conclusion is, therefore, that the lecturer, through deep teaching, should stimulate the drive in students' emotions to achieve good results and maximize their potential. The ideal would be to challenge the students even more, in such a way that they will believe in their ability to do better. Research by Ericksen (1978) as cited by Davis (1999:1) has shown that good, normal teaching practices (deep teaching) will be more successful in changing students' apathy than attempting to address motivation as such. Although this statement does not indicate that "*good normal teaching practices*" are part of deep teaching, the researcher is of the opinion that it is.

4.4.6 Deep learning and time management

Cano (2007:132) argues another dimension of teaching and learning, namely time management of the large work load for the course. The learner who wishes to achieve deep learning should employ effective time management techniques and should develop meaningful study skills.

As mentioned in 4.2.1 a large amount of knowledge that needs to be assimilated and lectured in a short space of time leads to a surface approach to learning. Campbell (1998:2) includes an extra component, namely the exclusive use of formal teaching methods such as lecturing, which detracts from deep learning. Reasonable workload for students and restriction of lecture time will extend individual study time for the students.

4.5 DEEP TEACHING

Although learning is the main purpose of education, successful teaching is the medium by which learning is facilitated. Deep teaching implies linking learning content with real life situations, it encourages independent learning, communicates with students, addressing their problems, provoking debates and welcoming questions and arguments from the students. Deep teaching will therefore enhance and improve the quality of learning and is more likely to result deep learning. Deep teaching acknowledges more than one teaching model and will apply other methods (Dillon, 1998:503; Trigwell *et al.* 1999:58).

4.5.1 THE DEEP TEACHING LECTURER

Not all lecturers apply a deep teaching approach in the classroom. One of the objectives of this study is to determine if lecturers with an internal locus of control experience higher job satisfaction and apply a deep teaching approach in the classroom. The study will also endeavour to establish a direct relationship between internal locus of control and a deep teaching approach. The hypothesis examined in this way is that teachers with internal locus of control have the determination to connect learning content to real life situations and is motivated towards excellence in teaching. Dillon (1998:503)

described the deep teaching lecturer as the lecturer who combines teaching models such as informational teaching, social teaching, personal teaching and behavioural teaching.

Trigwell *et al*., (1999:58) describe a lecturer who applies a deep teaching approach that encourages deep learning as a lecturer who encourages self-directed learning, interacts with students and discusses difficulties they encounter, who assesses to reveal conceptual change, and takes time to question the students' ideas. Lecturers that apply a deep approach to teaching are passionate and enthusiastic about their subject.

The physical learning environment affects the performance of the lecturer and the learning process. Cranton and Knoop (1991:107) confirm that teaching that under normal circumstances would be regarded as valuable will not lead to a richer sense of fulfilment by the lecturer if the room is too hot, overcrowded or cluttered. The researcher has experienced other aspects that have an influence, e.g. the size of the class, the discipline in the class. Students who have to sit on the floor and cannot take notes sufficiently may give the lecturer positive ratings but feel that part of the material has eluded them. The lecturer who experiences discomfort, who feels ineffective owing to students' lack of concentration and lack of discipline, may lose his sense of focus and the inspiration to apply a deep teaching approach. . According to the researcher group work will only be successful if deep teaching is employed by a lecturer. This lecturer has to be comprehensively prepared with meaningful assignments and subsections of assignments, and has to be actively involved with every group so that each member is meaningfully involved, and does not merely lean on the intellectually advanced member of the group. Ideally each group should consist of equally talented members.

However, in the current education set-up, this is not feasible, as some students are dramatically inferior to others. Deep learning takes place when each member of each group has acquired skills that will promote successful learning of material and activities, and that will enhance self-confidence.

Chickering and Gamson (1981:1) maintain: “time plus energy equals learning. Allocate realistic amounts of time to promote effective teaching and learning”. The accountable lecturer will focus on proactive planning in order to make optimum use of as little time as possible for formal lectures and maximum time for self-study.

Unfortunately for many lecturers who come to class unprepared, group activities have become a way out. It has also become a means of alleviating the administrative load on their shoulders. The tragic result is surface teaching and learning. This, in turn, contributes to disciplinary problems.

The result is surface teaching which triggers a vicious cycle of surface learning, which aggravates a lack of concentration and which results in increased disciplinary problems. Lecturers can encourage a deep approach to learning in students by demonstrating personal interest in the discipline (Wee, 2010:1).

Higher educational institutions often require lecturers to teach outside their field of study, especially in rural areas, because qualified lecturers are not readily available, as experienced at Ikhala FET College, Aliwal North. A deep teaching approach cannot be implemented if the lecturer is not comfortable in the field of study. This may have a negative influence on the lecturer as well as the students because the lecturer has no background knowledge and he will not be able to link examples with existing knowledge. A summary of six factors in teaching which promote deep learning may be found in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Campbell (1998:2) summarizes six factors in teaching which promote deep learning:

Good teaching	Faculty is well prepared, confident
Openness to student	Faculty is friendly, flexible and helpful
Freedom in learning	Students have a choice in what they study
Clear goals and standards	Assessment standards, expectations are clearly defined
Vocational relevance	Courses seen as relevant to future careers
Social climate	Good relationship among students (social, academic)

4.5.2 Involvement of students

In order to use class time optimally, Persky (2008:2) suggests the lecturer should free up some class time to engage students in actions that require them to apply their knowledge, do data analysis, to evaluate scenarios and to apply problem-solving techniques.

Everett (2005:2) agrees with instructional methods to promote deep learning and suggests learner interaction, peer tutoring, planned projects and linking the classroom to the workplace. Thorough prior planning is the key to successful deep teaching.

Encourage collaboration and interaction between students. Learning is improved when it is a team effort rather than a lone event. Also, encourage interaction between the faculty and students. Contact in and out of class is important for student involvement and motivation, (Chickering & Gamson, 1987:1). In the researcher's view a limited number of other resources are used by a lecturer with a surface approach to teaching. For the lecturers of

Ikhala College this may be true, because sufficient resources are not available for all satellite campuses owing to demographic circumstances.

In conclusion, the lecturer with a surface approach does work for the student and leaves little room for involvement by the student; uses speech in his teaching and reads and explains from the textbook. The lecturer will not incorporate other teaching strategies and will ask questions (similar to testing) to discern what students have learned. In the researcher's experience lecturers with a surface approach to teaching focus mainly on the examination and results, with the main source being old question papers. These lecturers work strictly to a year plan and leave no flexibility for the slower student who has different ways of absorbing information.

4.5.3 Acknowledgement of students' background

The learner is an individual with background, personal problems and preferences that affect the learning process. All aspects should be identified and considered in the learning process. Campbell *et al*. (2001:186) explain another characteristic of constructive learning environments that facilitates change in the learner's approach to learning: the acknowledgement that students learn in different ways and at different rates, and the accommodation of classroom practice to cater for these differences. The lecturer who is sensitive to the variety of students and their abilities, preferences and knowledge, and who can accommodate all of these factors in his approach to teaching, will motivate students and stimulate a deep learning approach among them.

Grauerholz (2001:45) affirms that the lecturer's knowledge of the students' background is important because personal experiences of the learner may help the learner to understand and engage more meaningfully with the context. Chickering and Gamson, (1987:1) said "Respect diversity (ways of learning, experience and talents). Many roads lead to learning. Different students bring different learning approaches and talents to the classroom".

Groves (2005:321) states that conceptual understanding enables students to build on their individual knowledge framework that may be implemented in clinical situations. All of these factors above should affect the lecturer's approach to teaching.

In the experience of the researcher the above mentioned statements are not always attainable in the general South African College situation.

4.5.4 Relationship between learning content and real life situations

Grauerholz (2001:4) states that lecturers often fail to move students further than the cognitive level, leaving them with no sense of connection between course contents and their personal lives. In other words, the students should connect and accept the new information, make the information his/her own, grow in the knowledge and take responsibility for their education.

Academic achievement is rewarding and for the students academic achievement means results in terms of grades. They do not have the vision to apply knowledge in the workplace because they have not yet been exposed to working conditions. Entwistle (2000:2) supports this statement and describes students' view of learning as memorising and the reproducing knowledge in suitable ways. Subsequently students discover that learning may be rewarding when transformation of knowledge and ideas takes place and the knowledge is implemented successfully in real workplace situations. Entwistle (2000:4) supports a teaching learning environment where there is interaction between the lecturer, learner and the content. An ability to interact with the content indicates that the learner can relate to his/her own experience and background. According to Arbor (2006:1) students respond well to explanations of the relationship between course material and their experience, their interests, and their future careers.

Lecturers are concerned by students' inability to relate what they learn to practical every day life (Dalton, 2009:47). According to Nakhleh (1992:192)

subject specific information learnt by a student without clear and in-depth understanding of the material learnt appears to result in fragmented, piecemeal and unrelated information in the mind of the student. This is the result of a surface learning approach which focuses on a short term goal namely immediate academic results, instead of trying to understand the learning material and integrating it into existing knowledge.

In summary, learning is most effective when the content has some personal relevance for the students. This encourages lifelong learning. Learning is a lifelong process of transforming information and experience into knowledge, skills and habits.

Deep teaching involves that lecturers seek personal relevance for their students in the material they teach. In other words, the lecturer will create the big picture, explaining the need for the new information to be learned and the application of the acquired knowledge in the workplace. The lecturer with a deep approach to teaching will also use additional resources to make the new information more understandable and accessible because the students' current level of knowledge may have a direct influence on the planning and preparation of the lecture.

4.5.5 Problem solving and critical thinking

Teaching encouraging deep learning will result in developing the skills of the learner to solve global problems through the subject or discipline. Groves (2005:316) states that it is the nature of the problem that encourages students to extend to a complete understanding of the fundamentals required for its solution. According to Wilson (2003:26) learning must go beyond definitions and facts.

Thoughts and questions should be formulated by lecturers to solve current global conflicts. In order to foster deep learning through teaching, Smith and Colby (2007:207) recommend creating an awareness of deep learning to which all members should contribute.

Grauerholz (2001:44) indicates that it is possible to facilitate deep learning by *what* and *how* we teach. Deep learning focuses on Bloom's higher order cognitive thinking skills, such as analysis and synthesis (Everett, 2005:1). According to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956), deep learning implies advanced thinking abilities skills such as analysis (i.e. compare, contrast) and synthesis (integrate into a new whole). Surface learning on the other hand, implies reproduction of acquired knowledge (rote learning) soon to be forgotten. Deep learners are intrinsically motivated. They are able to link new knowledge with previous knowledge and personal experience. Surface learners, on the other hand, are extrinsically motivated. They are focused only on what they need to learn to achieve good grading (Campbell, 1998:1).

For Persky (2008:1) learning activities such as games and feedback on assessments should be incorporated in the learning environment because it promotes communication between lecturer and learner and it develops critical and creative thinking.

4.5.6 Teaching holistically

Another approach of teaching which will encourage deep learning is teaching holistically. For Grauerholz (2001:46), teaching holistically means providing structure to the course, developing assignments, applying classroom activities, improving teaching strategies and taking advantage of out-of-class activities.

Gorden and Debus (2002:505) maintain that specific teaching techniques may not be applicable in practical subjects. Teaching practices and assessment require further development and modification to be made suitable for practical courses such as computer application technology, hospitality studies and tourism studies.

Calfee (1995) as cited in Rickford (2005:115) discusses the CORE model that helps lecturers to develop techniques that reflect positive teaching

pedagogy (Table 4.3). The model gives the lecturers freedom of movement while progressing towards a definite goal.

Table 4.3 The CORE model

C	Connect with the students. *The lecturer who employs deep teaching methods will successfully inspire and implement methods that stimulate the students' independence in learning and move the students beyond the content in the textbook*.
O	Organize learning by structuring and instruction. *In other words the learning content must be structured according to time frame and planned deadlines.*
R	Encourage reflection. *The students' study material must be linked to existing life experience*
E	Help students explain and absorb what they have learned and to apply the knowledge to new situations. *Stimulate the students' intellectual curiosity.*

Adapted from Calfee (1995) as cited in Rickford (2005:115)

4.6 PERSONALITY AND ATTITUDE OF THE LECTURER

Lecturers who apply a deep approach to teaching might have the personality type or an aspect of a personality type, that inspires students to learn, promotes an excitement about the new learning material and a desire to achieve superior results. Possible reasons are their complete mastery of their field of study and sufficient teaching experience to know what examples would make the new information easily remembered by the students. They might also have the personality types that inspire students to learn, promote an interest in the new learning material and a desire to achieve superior results. In other words, approaches to deep teaching imply ways to influence, guide, encourage and inspire student to learn (Trigwell *et al*., 1999:58).

According to Heinström (2000:1) "... personality traits serve as directors or blocks for motivation". Blickle (1996) as cited by Dalton (2009:48) named conscientiousness the most significant personality trait. Someone who is conscientious is someone who is purposeful and strong-willed (Dalton, 2009:48). It is likely that a lecturer who is conscientious will

understand what is being learnt by the students and will apply a deep approach to teaching.

In summary, it is likely that lecturers teach according to their preference and personality. When the lecturer decides on teaching methods, the lecturer's background, knowledge, environment and learning ability as a student will have an influence on his choice of teaching methods. The question implied here is whether the motivation to apply a deep teaching approach is bedded within an internal locus of control.

4.6.1 The enthusiastic lecturer

In order to apply a teaching approach that will encourage deep learning, the aim of the lecturer must be to get the learner excited about the contents of the discipline and to develop deep learning. Lecturers should examine their own teaching approaches to explore and discard non-efficient methods, to ensure improvement and enhance deep learning. *(refer to 4.5)*

According to Campbell *et al.* (2001:2) deep teaching is achieved when the lecturer looks at the broader content and makes learning *fun* and *interesting* for the student and when he accommodates individual rates of learning. The researcher has found that a lecturer with enthusiasm for his/her subject easily infects students with the same enthusiasm for his/her subject, which, in turn, makes deep teaching and also deep learning more likely. It is assumed that a lecturer with enthusiasm is someone with internal locus of control.

4.6.2 Communication

Communicating high expectations means expecting students to perform well which then becomes a self-fulfilling proficy, (Chickering & Gamson, 1987:1). In other words, a lecturer, who communicates his expectations of good results to students, is more likely to witness good results from his/her students.

According to Smith and Colby (2007:207) lecturers should be aware of the quality of students' learning through dialogue. Campbell (1998:1) agrees that

a good lecturer directs students along the route of learning so that they have an understanding of the way to approach the content and actually learn (deep learning approach) instead of just memorizing (surface learning). Teaching and encouraging deep learning should therefore empower students to think, change, connect and grow.

4.7 CONCLUSION

Biggs (1985) cited in Wilding and Andrews (2006:172) believed that a learner's locus of control had a definitive influence on his/her learning approaches. This study assumes similarly the lecturer's locus of control determines the teaching approach that he/she applied. It is the aspiration of lecturers to apply a teaching approach that will implicitly encourage a deep approach to learning, but the workload, target dates and administrative responsibilities more often than not make this an unrealistic dream, difficult to achieve.

Teaching is affected by different ways of thinking about the same thing. Lecturers should constantly evaluate their own beliefs about their ability to teach and to affect students' performance so that at all times they may be sure that they are employing a deep teaching approach.

The next chapter will address methods of research done by this author in order to test the hypotheses of this study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The completed literature review has explored the constructs *locus of control*, *job satisfaction* and *teaching approach*. In so doing the researcher has attempted to lay the basis for the premise that these constructs as they manifest in people would be related. The reasoning behind the stated hypotheses is that lecturers who have an internal locus of control and who are therefore self-determined, reliable and motivated individuals will be able to cope with any unfavourable circumstances sometimes experienced in Further Education and Training Colleges. Because of these traits it is assumed that lecturers with internal locus of control will experience job satisfaction, accessing their own intrinsic satisfaction, deriving meaning from their work rather than being dependent on circumstances to provide such meaning. Following this argument it is also presumed that these lecturers would have the passion and enthusiasm to bring the study material to students in such a way as to encourage deep learning. Deep teaching helps students make connections between new and existing knowledge, incorporating knowledge into existing cognitive structures. Deep teaching involves helping students to find meaning in studied work, teaching them to think critically about new information and seeing relationships between facts. Deep teaching presumes dedication on the part of the lecturer.

Employing a vast literature search, no previous studies investigating the relationship between internal locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach could be found. This chapter will report on the method of investigation employed in trying to test the stated hypotheses and answering the research questions.

5.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION

In accordance with the argument of this study the following research question is formulated:

Do lectures with an internal locus of control experience higher job satisfaction and apply a deep teaching approach than lecturers with an external locus of control

5.3 HYPOTHESES

The research data was collected from the academic staff of all satellite campuses of Ikhala FET College. The data was analysed and interpreted to test the following hypotheses regarding the lecturers tested:

Null Hypothesis (H_0a): No relationship exists between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1a): A significant positive relationship exists between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.

Null hypothesis (H_0b): No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and the job satisfaction the lecturers' experience.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1b): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and the job satisfaction they experience.

Null Hypothesis (H_0c): No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and their teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1c): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and their teaching approach.

Null Hypothesis (H_0d): No relationship exists between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1d): A significant positive relationship exists between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach.

The level of significance was set at 0.05.

5.4 IDENTIFYING THE VARIABLES

According to Joubert (2010:132) the variables of the study are the phenomena or factors that are being researched. In other words, it is something that can be changed, for example a value or characteristic. It is important to draw a distinction between the dependent, independent and confounding variables (Dalton, 2009:54).

5.4.1 The Independent Variable

The independent variable is the variable that is manipulated and controlled by the researcher (Cherry, 2011:1). For the purpose of this study the independent variable will be locus of control. Locus of control has two dimensions, namely: internal locus of control and external locus of control.

For the purpose of this study locus of control is operationally defined as a score on Rotter's Locus of Control Scale.[1]

[1] Because the Cronbach's Alpha of the scores on the Locus of Control scale was low, analyses of dimensions (internal and external) were not done. The scale scores were analysed as being high or low on a continuum.

5.4.2 The Dependent Variable

The dependent variable is the variable that is measured by the researcher (Cherry, 2011:1). According to McCall (1986) as cited by Dalton (2009:55) the dependent variable is the variable whose values are assumed to depend on another variable. In this study the dependent variables are job satisfaction and teaching approach.

For the purpose of this study job satisfaction is operationally described as a score on the Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). For the purpose of this study teaching approaches are operationally defined as a score on the Approach to Teaching Inventory.

5.5 CONFOUNDING OR EXTRANEOUS VARIABLES

The independent and dependent variables are not the only variables present in research. Confounding or extraneous variables are variables that have an impact on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Cherry, 2011:1). The confounding variables in this study were age, gender, ethnicity and the psycho-social background factors of the lecturers. Confounding variables (age, gender and ethnicity) will be measured on a biographical questionnaire. For the purpose of this study the confounding variable Psycho-Social Background factors will be measured with the psycho-social background Questionnaire (Viljoen, 2007).

5.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study was executed by means of a quantitative, non-experimental, multivariate survey-type research design. Where calculations are made of the relationships among more than two variables at the same time, this is known as multivariate analysis (Ross, 2005:33). This design is founded in the post-positivistic paradigm. Post-positivistic research emphasises meaning and the creation of new knowledge (Ryan, 2006:1-2).

The post-positivist paradigm is based on the striving of the researcher to be objective in order to obtain probabilistic evidence (Joubert, 2010:134) In other words the researcher searches for reasons why lecturers apply a deep approach to teaching. The research in this study was conducted using a quantitative, non-experimental, multivariate survey-type research design owing to the nature of the research hypotheses. Confounding variables were included in the design to test for their effect on the interdependence of multiple independent variables and dependent variables.

5.7 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The research used whole-frame sampling based on the principle of convenience sampling, because all the lecturing staff of Ikhala FET College were involved in the research. Furthermore the sample was accessible to the researcher. The research was conducted at Ikhala FET College, with the administration centre stationed in Ezibeleni (Queenstown). The satellite campuses were all involved, namely: Queenstown Campus, Aliwal North Campus, Sterkspruit Campus, Ezibeleni Campus, Queen Nonesi Campus. The academic staff was comprised of lecturers from different ethnic backgrounds, teaching different disciplines.

5.8 DATA COLLECTION

An in-depth literature study was done on the main *concepts* of this research study, namely locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach. Information on the lecturing staff of all campuses was gathered from the Human Resource Department, stationed in Ezibeleni. Permission was granted in writing by the board of Ikhala FET College.

The researcher distributed copies of the questionnaires with the help of the Campus Head of the Aliwal North Campus. During a meeting of campus heads the copies were handed over to the campus heads of the different satellite campuses. The campus heads were requested to distribute the questionnaires to the various members of their lecturing staff for completion.

The time allocation for the completion of the questionnaire was two weeks. The Campus Head of Aliwal North Campus collected the questionnaires and handed them over to the researcher. The academic staff was assured that participation was voluntary and that all data obtained would remain both confidential and anonymous. The questionnaires were then scored and delivered to the Department of Information and Technology Services, of the University of the Free State.

The 71 lecturers were willing to participate in the study and thus represented the accessible population. The measuring instruments used in this study and the motivation for the use of these instruments will be discussed next. The response rate of the questionnaires was 100% but some questionnaires had insufficient data and were discarded.

5.9 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The sample group completed a questionnaire that consisted of four standardised questionnaires and a biographical questionnaire. The questionnaires used in this study are as follows:

- Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (developed by Rotter, 1960).
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), was scored to indicate intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.
- Approach to Teaching Inventory (ATI) (developed by Trigwell and Prosser, 1996)
- Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (developed by Viljoen, 2007).

5.10 DATA ANALYSES AND REPORTING

Dalton (2009:63) cites Kerlinger (1986) and refers to analysis as "... categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising of data to obtain answers to research questions and to test research hypotheses". The data of

this study was analysed quantitatively. Data in this study was coded by the researcher and then recorded by the Department of Information and Technology Services. This department then analysed the data quantitatively, according to the Statistical Analysis Plan as developed by a professional statistician (Schall Personal Communication, 2009). Univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. A 0.05 level of significance was used.

5.10.1 Biographical Questionnaire

The Biographical Questionnaire documented information describing the age, gender and ethnicity of the lecturing staff.

5.10.2 Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

Dr Julian Rotter developed a 29-item scale which tested the locus of control concept in the 1960s. The scale contains six filler items. Over a period of time it was refined. Respondents are required to choose one of a pair of statements regarding which is the better description of the way they feel they have control over their lives. Recorded test-retest reliabilities of the scale is given as .09 - .83 (Zerega, Tweng and Grevver 1976:2). Concurrent validity between the Rotter and the MacDonald-Tseng scale was established.

Because the scale was inadvertently scored differently than Rotter had indicated, the scores were inverted, to comply with Rotter's interpretation of the scores and his stated outline of scoring, but with a high score indicating internal locus of control and not external locus of control, as Rotter had originally indicated. The analysis of scale scores were not done using dimension as prescribed, because of the low reliability obtained for the scale (see Table 6.6.2). However the scale was analysed as a continuum, a high score denotes high locus of control meaning internal locus of control, and low locus of control meaning external locus of control.

5.10.3 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is a measurement scale for measuring job satisfaction (Greenberg & Baron, 1989:162). The above mentioned scale measures the degree of satisfaction with different aspects such as responsibilities, opportunities for advancement and remuneration. The higher the results of the respondents, the higher the level of satisfaction towards different areas of the job. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) uses the Likert-response format to measure satisfaction on 26 items.

The scale also provides an accurate measurement of job satisfaction for groups of individuals considering various workplace factors. The MSQ is not gender-sensitive, is a self-administered paper-and-pencil inventory written on a fifth-grade level. The MSQ may be used by individuals or groups, and standardized instructions for administration are provided. The 1977 revision of the MSQ applies a standard five-point response scale. Responses range from “Very Satisfied”, “Satisfied”, “N” (Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied), “Dissatisfied” and “Very Dissatisfied”. The 1967 version was adjusted by changing the response options to “Not Satisfied,” “Somewhat Satisfied”, “Satisfied,” “Very Satisfied”, and “Extremely Satisfied”. This adjustment caused a symmetrical scale score distribution that centred on the “satisfied” category and gave evidenced of larger item variance. Although researchers often prefer this version, the normative data for the 1967 version of the MSQ is more limited. The 1967 version is recommended for prediction studies or for comparisons within organizations where normative data is unnecessary (Vocational Psychology Research, 2002) as cited by Worrel and Cross (2004:17). In this study the 1977 version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used.

The scoring was done using the outline provided with the scale isolating the dimension intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction.

5.10.4 Approach to Teaching Inventory

The Approach to Teaching Inventory (ATI) was developed by Trigwell and Prosser, 1996). The Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) is the result of a phenomenological study of first-year university science teachers in Australia by Trigwell & Prosser. The researchers believed that more student-focused approaches to teaching would lead students to adopting a deep approach to learning. In this study the Approaches to Teaching Inventory was used to indicate whether teachers applied deep teaching (a high score) or surface teaching approach (a low score).

The validity of the Approach to Teaching Inventory was analysed in Trigwell and Prosser's study of 2004. A principal component analysis with varimax rotation supported the two-factor structure of the Approach to Teaching Inventory, with Cronbach's Alpha values of 0.75 and 0.73 for the CCSF (Conceptual Change/Student-focused) factor and ITTF (Information Transmission/Teacher-Focused) factory, respectively. Scale reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale are 0.79. This result suggests that the inventory is adequately reliable and has statistical validity.

5.10.5 Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire

The PSQ (Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire) developed by Viljoen in 2007 measures students' psycho-social background factors. As it is based on the theory of psycho-social background problems it has construct validity. It contains 19 items arranged on a six point Likert-type scale, which requires information on the respondents' childhood (emotional support, socio-economic circumstances, influence of environment conducive to learning and depression) as well as the respondents' present life situation, measuring financial status, relationship problems with family members, love life problems, depression and the presence of fear of having contracted HIV. In a pilot study, the PSQ reflected a Cronbach Coefficient Alpha reliability of 0.82 (Viljoen, 2007) showing its internal consistency which confirms adequate reliability. A high score on the PSQ reflects respondents' negative

psycho-social background factors, whereas a low score on the PSQ conveys respondents' favourable psycho-social background factors.

5.11 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH

5.11.1 Reliability

The reliability of the research study is dependent on the reliabilities of the measuring instruments. When the reported reliabilities of the scales are sufficient the reliability of the study is assumed (Maas, 1998:25; Kerlinger, 1986:405).

The reliability of the present study will be discussed after reporting obtained Cronbach's Alpha measurements of the scales in chapter 6.

5.11.2 Validity

According to Dalton (2009:63) "validity refers to the fact that the research study measures what it sets out to measure". Two types of validity exist, namely internal validity and external validity.

5.11.2.1 Internal validity

Internal validity is the extent to which differences in the dependent variable are accounted for by differences in the independent variable and not by any extraneous or third variables (Maas, 1998:24; Kerlinger, 1986:300).

5.11.2.2 External validity

External validity of research is the extent to which results of the research can confidently be generalised to the population from which the sample was selected (Maas, 1998:24; Kerlinger, 1986:300).

Because this study did not employ random sampling it cannot lay claim to generalisation and thus external validity. (*cf*. 1.5.2.1)

5.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter has addressed the research design and methodology used in this study to determine whether a relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.

The research hypothesis and the null hypothesis were stated. Information regarding the variables, namely the dependent, independent and confounding variables, was presented. The measuring instruments used, were described. They were indicated to be reliable and valid. The administration of the instruments as well as the ethical issues concerning the research study was explained. An analysis and interpretation of results acquired in the research study are to be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The hypothesis on which this research is based, presumes that internal locus of control is an innate structure bedded in a person's personality and persons with internal locus of control believe that they themselves are responsible for their behaviour and actions. It is assumed in the stated hypothesis that internal locus of control will guide positive teaching experiences and direct work ethics. Therefore it was presumed that lecturers with an internal locus of control will experience higher job satisfaction in spite of unfavourable conditions in higher education such as poor remuneration, inadequate resources, overcrowded classrooms etc. As an extension of internal locus of control and high job satisfaction it is envisaged that such teachers would also have the passion for teaching and be prepared to put in the effort which leads to a deep teaching approach. They would thus help students to see connections between distinct facts and real life situations; encourage debates and discussions in class and not shy away from painstaking explanations. They would also encourage lifelong learning. Lecturers that apply a deep approach would be passionate about their field of study, will interact with students and discuss difficulties they encounter, will assess to reveal conceptual change and take time to question the students' ideas.

In Chapter 5 the methodology and design of this study were discussed. The problem statement and hypotheses were laid out. Measuring instruments were illuminated regarding validity and reliability. The procedure of sampling, data collection and analyses of results were outlined. This chapter will provide the results of the data analyses. It will report on the univariate and multivariate analyses and provide descriptive as well as inferential statistics.

6.2 CLARIFICATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The following outline indicates the direction of the questionnaires as well as the highest and lowest possible scores that can be reached on each questionnaire or scale.

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

Highest possible score	46	(Midpoint 23)
Lowest possible score	23	
High score indicates	Internal locus of control	
Low score indicates	External Locus of Control	

Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Highest possible score	100	(Midpoint 50)
Lowest possible score	20	
High score indicates	High job satisfaction (intrinsic satisfaction)	
Low score indicates	Low job satisfaction (extrinsic satisfaction)	

Teaching Approaches Questionnaire

Highest possible score	80	(Midpoint 50)
Lowest possible score	16	
High score indicates	Deep approach to teaching	
Low score indicates	Surface approach to teaching	

Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire

Highest possible score	114	(Midpoint 57)
Lowest possible score	19	
High score indicates	Adverse Psycho-Social background	
Low score indicates	Favourable Psycho-Social background	

6.3 RELIABILITY OF THE SCALES

The following tables will reflect the internal consistency and reliability of all the scales used in this study. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:506) an alpha coefficient of between 0.7 > 1 is high or sufficient in indicating internal consistency and reliability.

Table 6.3.1 Reliability of Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.4	23

The Cronbach's Alpha of locus of control is 0.4. Unfortunately this value is very low. A possible explanation for this is that the respondents were not consistent in their sentiments about locus of control. This low result may influence the analyses of correlations and regressions where locus of control was used as an independent variable. Therefore interpretation of results is done with caution.

Table 6.3.2 Reliability of the Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.906	20

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Minnesota (Job) Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is .906. This questionnaire was highly reliable.

Table 6.3.3 Reliability of the Teaching Approaches Inventory

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.709	16

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Teaching Approach Inventory is .709. This inventory is adequately reliable.

Table 6.3.4 Reliability of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Emotional support in childhood)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.962	3

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Emotional support) is .962 which makes the questionnaire highly reliable.

Table 6.3.5 Reliability of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Environment conducive to learning)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.924	4

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Psycho-Social Background questionnaire (Environment conducive to learning) is .924. This section of the questionnaire has high reliability.

Table 6.3.6 Reliability of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Socio economic status)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.869	3

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Psycho-Social Background questionnaire (Social economic status) is .869. This dimension of the questionnaire is highly reliable.

Table 6.3.7 Reliability of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Depression in childhood)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.861	4

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Depression) is .861 which makes this dimension of the questionnaire highly reliable.

Table 6.3.8 Reliability of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Present Life Situation)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.859	5

The Cronbach's Alpha of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire (Present situation) is .859. This dimension of the questionnaire is highly reliable.

6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Table 6.4.1 Gender distribution of subjects in sample (biographic questionnaire)

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Male	33	46.48	33	46.48
Female	38	53.52	71	100.00

The percentage of males in the sample was 47%. The percentage of females in the sample was 54%.

Table 6.4.2 Descriptive statistics of distribution of ethnicity in the sample (biographic questionnaire)

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Black	54	76.06	54	76.06
Coloured	3	4.23	57	80.28
Indian	2	2.82	59	83.10
White	12	16.90	71	100.00

The Black respondents were 76 %, the Coloureds were 4 %, the Indians 3 % and the Whites were 17 %. The majority of the respondents were Black, followed by White, Coloured and Indians.

Table 6.4.3 Descriptive statistics of distribution of age and teaching experience in the sample (biographic questionnaire)

Variable	N	N Miss	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum	Median
Age	70	1	36.30	10.36	21.00	68.00	35.00
Teaching experience	65	6	8.58	10.15	1.00	40.00	4.00

The mean age of the respondents was 36. The oldest lecturer in the sample is 68 and the youngest is 21. The mean years in teaching experience was 8.6

years. The lecturer with the least teaching experience had taught for 1 year. The lecturer with the most teaching experience had taught for 40 years.

6.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VARIABLES MEASURED BY STANDARDISED QUESTIONNAIRES:

Table 6.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Locus of Control (Rotter)	63	30.00	42.00	35.2222	2.79657	-0.06
Job Satisfaction (TOTAL)	70	28.00	90.00	63.2000	10.17898	0.06
Teaching Approach (Total)	71	36.00	60.00	48.1268	4.40431	-0.16
Psycho-Social Background (Total)	71	19.00	111.00	51.4648	25.95481	0.49
Childhood Years (Total)	71	14.00	81.00	37.8169	19.29197	.3
Present Situation (Total)	71	4.00	24.00	10.9437	6.08250	.56

In Table 6.5.1 the number of respondents who completed the Locus of Control questionnaire was 63. The mean was 35 and the standard deviation 2.8. The skewness value for distribution was -0.06. The distribution does not deviate much from normal distribution (*cf.* 2.4).

Seventy respondents completed the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. The mean obtained by the respondents for this questionnaire was 63 and the standard deviation was 10. The skewness value for distribution was 0.06. The distribution does not deviate much from normal distribution.

The sample size of the respondents who completed the Teaching Approach Questionnaire was 71. The mean of the mentioned questionnaire was 48 and the standard deviation was 4.4. The skewness value for distribution was -0.16. This does not deviate much from normal distribution (*cf*. 4.5.1).

Seventy-one respondents completed the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire. The mean of this sample was 51 and the Standard deviation 26. The skewness value for distribution was 0.49. This indicates a very slight preponderance of higher scores (adverse psycho-social background factors) present in the sample.

The mean of respondents who completed the Childhood Years questions on the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire was 38 obtained by the sample size of 71. The standard deviation was 19. The skewness value was 0.3 indicating a slight preponderance of adverse psycho-social background factors.

The total number of respondents who answered the Present Situation questions on the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire was 71. The mean was 11 and the standard deviation 6. The skewness value of the present life situation was 0.56. Again this indicates a slight preponderance of adverse psycho-social background factors.

6.6 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS – CORRELATIONS

The inferential statistics indicate whether relationships exist between certain variables. It is this information that assists the researcher in accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses. Firstly 4 sets of Pearson correlations and thereafter 8 sets of multiple regressions analyses are reported. At the end of the results a non-parametric Mann Whitney U test for independent samples to test for significant differences between the means of two ethnicity groups (Black and White) regarding important variables was done.

Table 6.6.1 The Pearson correlations between dependent, independent and confounding variables (Teaching Approach, Job satisfaction, Psycho-Social Background factors and Locus of Control)

		Teaching Approach (Total)	Job Satisfaction (Total)	Psycho-social Background factors(Total)	Locus of Control (Rotter)
Teaching Approach (Total)	Pearson Correlation	1	-.273	-.048	-.002
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.011*	.345	.493
	N	71	70	71	63
Job Satisfaction (Total)	Pearson Correlation	-.273	1	.119	-.223
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.011*		.164	.040*
	N	70	70	70	62
Psycho-social Background factors (Total)	Pearson Correlation	-.048	.119	1	-.149
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.345	.164		.122
	N	71	70	71	63
Locus of Control (Rotter)	Pearson Correlation	-.002	-.223	-.149	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.493	.040*	.122	
	N	63	62	63	63

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

The Pearson correlation between teaching approach (total) and job satisfaction (total) is significant (sig. .011<0.05), however the correlation is negative (-.273). The correlation indicates that lecturers with high job satisfaction i.e. intrinsic satisfaction employ a surface approach to teaching[2]. This result is in contradiction with the hypothesis which stated that there would be a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and teaching approach. The reason for this result is unclear. No theory or research could be found to substantiate this finding. If further analyses indicate a pattern in the relationship between variables an explanation may be forthcoming.

Table 6.6.1 also indicates a significant inverse correlation (-.223) between locus of control (significance .040>0.05) and Job Satisfaction. This implies that respondents with a low score on locus of control (external locus of control) have high job satisfaction (internal job satisfaction). This again contradicts the hypothesis which stated that there was a positive relationship between internal locus of control and intrinsic job satisfaction. An explanation for this phenomenon is unclear. Again the

[2] This deduction was made in analyses of Table 6.6.2 regarding the relationship of surface approach to intrinsic satisfaction (sig. .013 < 0.05).

results will be examined for emerging patterns of relationships among variables and an analysis of the role the confounding variables play will be revealed further in an attempt to find a rationale for these results.

Table 6.6.2 The Pearson Correlation between dependent, independent and confounding variables (Teaching Approach, Job satisfaction, Psycho-Social Background factors and Locus of Control) continue

		Locus of Control (Rotter)	Surface Approach to teaching	Deep Approach to teaching	Intrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Extrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Emotional Support in Childhood
Locus of Control (Rotter)	Pearson Correlation	1	-.082	.089	-.223	-.195	-.153
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.262	.245	.040*	.065	.115
	N	63	63	63	63	62	63
Surface Approach to teaching	Pearson Correlation	-.082	1	-.602	-.265	-.121	-.161
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.262		.000	.013*	.159	.090
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Deep Approach to teaching	Pearson Correlation	.089	-.602	1	.030	-.088	.158
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.245	.000*		.401	.235	.094
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Intrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.223	-.265	.030	1	.769	.103
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.040	0.13	.401		.000*	.197
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Extrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.195	-.121	-.088	.769	1	.115
	Sig (1-tailed)	.065	.159	.235	.000		.171

∗ Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Table 6.6.2 affirms the significant inverse correlation between locus of control (low score) and intrinsic satisfaction (high score) (sig. 0.040 < 0.05) as found in the previous table. This indicates that respondents with low locus of control (external locus of control) had high (intrinsic) job satisfaction. Neither theory nor research supports this finding.

Table 6.6.2 also indicates a significant inverse correlation (-265) between intrinsic satisfaction (high score) and a surface approach to teaching (low score)

(sig.013<0.05). This implies that respondents with internal satisfaction have a surface approach to teaching which again contradicts the hypothesis. Again no theory or research could explain this relationship.

Regarding the relationship between scale dimensions Table 6.6.2 reveals a significant negative correlation(-.602) between a surface approach to teaching and a deep approach to teaching (sig. 0.000). This signifies that for respondents scoring high on the Teaching Approach Questionnaire there were a similar number scoring low on the questionnaire. Similarly the significant positive correlation (.769) between extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction (sig. 0.000) could be due to the fact that respondents may have both intrinsic as well as intrinsic satisfaction and that these dimensions are not mutually exclusive.

Table 6.6.3 The Pearson Correlations between dependent, independent and confounding variables (Teaching Approach, Job satisfaction, Psycho-Social Background Factors and Locus of Control) continue

		Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning	Childhood & Depression	Childhood Years (Total)	Present Life Situation (Total)
Locus of Control (Rotter)	Pearson Correlation	-.162	-.129	-.076	-.149	-.118
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.103	.157	.277	.122	.179
	N	63	63	63	63	63
Surface Approach to teaching	Pearson Correlation	-.109	-.210	-.223	-.211	-.198
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.183	.039*	.031*	.039*	.049*
	N	71	71	71	71	71
Deep Approach to teaching	Pearson Correlation	.230	.168	.031	.185	.164
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.027*	.080	.399	.061	.085
	N	71	71	71	71	71
Intrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.078	.128	.006	.099	.070
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.258	.144	.481	.205	.281
	N	71	71	71	71	71
Extrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.071	.174	.023	.120	.090
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.280	.075	.425	.160	.229

∗ Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

According to Table 6.6.3 the scores on the two sections of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire namely the childhood situation and present situation are

related to approaches to teaching. According to Table 6.6.1 the whole scale as such is not related to teaching approach (sig. .345>0.05) but in Table 6.6.3 the scores on the Childhood Years (sig. .039<0.05) and the scores on the Present Life Situation (sig. .049<0.05), are inversely related to a surface approach to teaching. This indicates that low scores on the Teaching Approach questionnaires (Surface approach) are related to high scores on these two aspects of the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire. A high score on the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire demonstrates adverse Psycho-Social conditions. In this association as revealed by the statistics the adverse conditions relate to the childhood years as well as the present situation.

A further analysis reveals a pattern regarding psycho-social background factors and the presence of a surface approach (low score) as measured by the Teaching Approaches Questionnaire. Depression in childhood (sig.03< 0.05) and the absence of an environment conducive to learning (sig. .039 < 0.05) are related to a low score on the Teaching Approach Questionnaire, indicating surface teaching. Growing up in an environment where the family does not create a learning space and encourage education combined with depression may be related to the inability to bring a deep teaching approach to the classroom.

The relatedness of psycho-social background factors to surface approach may offer a small degree of understanding of above mentioned unexpected presence of a surface teaching approach. Adverse childhood situations often go hand in hand with authoritative parenting styles which detract from initiative and resourcefulness which are needed for applying a deep teaching approach in the classroom. When the present life situation is negative lecturers will have neither the energy nor the motivation to bring deep teaching approaches to the classroom. This interpretation does, however, not explain the finding that low (extrinsic) locus of control is related to high (intrinsic) job satisfaction (*cf*. 2.5.5).

Table 6.6.3 indicates a significantly positive relationship (sig. .027 < 0.05) between a good socio-economic situation in childhood and a deep teaching approach. An explanation for this result is not offered as it does not fall within the pattern of results regarding psycho-social background factors.

Table 6.6.4 The Pearson Correlations between dependent, independent and confounding variables (Teaching Approach, Job satisfaction, Psycho-Social Background Factors and Locus of Control) continued

		Locus of Control (Rotter)	Surface Approach to teaching	Deep Approach to teaching	Intrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Extrinsic (job) Satisfaction	Emotional Support in Childhood
Extrinsic (job) Satisfaction	N	62	70	70	70	70	70
Emotional Support in Childhood	Pearson Correlation	-.153	-.161	.158	.103	.115	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.115	.090	.094	.197	.171	
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	Pearson Correlation	-.162	-.109	.230	.078	.071	.693
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.103	.183	.027*	.258	.280	.000
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Childhood & Environment	Pearson Correlation	-.129	-.210	.168	.128	.174	.897
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.157	.039*	.080	.144	.075	.000
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Childhood & Depression	Pearson Correlation	-.076	-.223	.031	.006	.023	.746
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.277	.031*	.399	.481	.425	.000
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71
Childhood Years (Total)	Pearson Correlation	-.149	-.211	.185	.099	.120	.919
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.122	.039*	.061	.205	.160	.000
	N	63	71	71	71	70	.71
Present Situation (Total)	Pearson Correlation	-.118	-.198	.164	.070	.090	.580
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.179	.049*	.085	.281	.229	.000
	N	63	71	71	71	70	71

∗ Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Table 6.6.4 denotes a negative correlation between a surface approach to teaching and an environment conducive to learning in childhood (sig. .039 < 0.05). Interpretation of this result is offered under Table 6.6.3. Similarly significant negative relationships exist between a surface approach to teaching and childhood depression (sig. .031 < 0.05), childhood years in total (sig. .039 < 0.05) and present life situations (sig .049 < 0.05). All of the above indications from the Psycho-Social Background Questionnaire denote slightly higher scores (because of the inversion)

and are interpreted as adverse psycho-social background conditions related to a surface approach to teaching.

The positive relationship between deep approach to teaching and higher psycho-social economic status was explained under table 6.6.3. Table 6.6.4 also reveals the high correlations between sub-dimensions of the psycho-social background questionnaires.

The following tables report multiple linear regressions performed on the data, regressing the dependent variable firstly on all the independent variables and secondly on all the independent variables except age, gender, ethnicity and teaching experience.

6.7 MULTIPLE REGRESSION

A multiple regression analysis measures the correlations between the multiple continuous variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:29).

Table 6.7.1 Multiple regression of teaching approach on all independent variables

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.462[a]	.214	-.066	3.99032

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnicity Group, Teaching Experience, Locus of Control (Rotter), Gender, Present Situation (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Childhood Years (Total), Age, Psycho-Social (Total)

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	207.936	9	23.104	1.451	.194[a]
	Residual	764.288	48	15.923		
	Total	972.224	57			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnic Group, Teaching Experience, Locus of Control (Rotter), Gender, Present Situation (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Childhood Years (Total), Age, Psycho-Social (Total)
b. Dependent Variable: Teaching Approach (Total)

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
2.	(Constant)	57.662	9.758		5.909	.000
	Job Satisfaction (Total)	-.113	.055	-.300	-2.075	.043
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	.000	.203	.000	.001	.999
	Childhood Years (Total)	.030	.667	.130	.045	.965
	Present Situation (Total)	-.029	.577	-.043	-.051	.960
	Psycho-Social (Total)	-.019	.598	-.112	-.032	.975
	Gender	1.664	1.179	.202	1.411	.165
	Age	-.068	.115	-.181	-.590	.558
	Teaching Experience	-.024	.115	-.062	-.209	.835
	Ethnicity Group	-1.119	.542	-.316	-2.064	.044

a. Dependent Variable: Teaching Approach (Total)

Table 6.7.1 denotes a relationship between job satisfaction and teaching approach (sig.043). The table also reveals a relationship between the ethnicity and teaching approach (sig. 0.44).

The regression (full model) illustrates that job satisfaction (total) is significantly (sig. .043) but inversely related to teaching approach (total). This result indicates that lecturers who have high job satisfaction (intrinsic) have a low score on teaching approach which makes them surface teachers. This result is substantiated by the results of Table 6.7.1 which reveal the correlation between job satisfaction and teaching approach as indicated above.

Another unexpected result is that ethnicity is related to teaching approach and this merits further investigation which will be done after completion of the regression

tables. This analysis also shows that the 21% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by all the included independent variables. This result is not significant.

Table 6.7.2 Multiple regression of teaching approach on all independent variables except age, gender, ethnicity and teaching experience.

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.261[a]	.068	-.015	4.36814

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (Total), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total)

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	77.825	5	15.565	.816	.544[a]
	Residual	1068.514	56	19.081		
	Total	1146.339	61			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total)
b. Dependent Variable: Teaching Approach (Total)

(c) **Coefficients[a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	58.788	8.855		6.639	.000
	Job Satisfaction (Total)	-.104	.054	-.253	-1.909	.061
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	-.104	.205	-.068	-.507	.614
	Childhood Years (Total)	.236	.668	1.003	.353	.725
	Present Situation (Total)	.188	.577	.264	.326	.746
	Psycho-Social (Total)	-.220	.600	-1.270	-.367	.715

b. Dependent Variable: Teaching Approach (Total)

Table 6.7.2 depicts the multiple regression of teaching approaches on the independent variables (job satisfaction, locus of control, childhood years, present situation and Psycho-Social background). This table reveals no significant

relationships between the dependent and independent variables. It is obvious from this table that when the variables gender, age, teaching experience and ethnicity are removed the significance of the relationship between teaching approach and job satisfaction diminishes (sig. .061>0.05). The later analyses of ethnicity and all other variables indicate that ethnicity has an influence on the association between job satisfaction and teaching approach.

The model Summary shows that 7 % of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables in the model but this is not significant.

6.7.3 Multiple regression of Surface Approach on all independent variables

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.507[a]	.257	.118	4.98550

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnic Group, Teaching Experience, Locus of Control (Rotter), Gender, Present Situation (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Childhood Years (Total), Age, Psycho-Social (Total).

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	413.432	9	45.937	1.848	.084[a]
	Residual	1193.051	48	24.855		
	Total	1606.483	57			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethnic Group, Teaching Experience, Locus of Control (Rotter), Gender, Present Situation (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Childhood Years (Total), Age, Psycho-Social (Total)

b. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

(c) **Coefficients** [a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	50.071	12.191		4.107	.000
	Job Satisfaction (Total)	-.141	.068	-.290	-2.063	.045
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	-.422	.253	-.229	-1.668	.102
	Childhood Years (Total)	-.281	.833	-.955	-.337	.737
	Present Situation (Total)	-.346	.721	-.394	-.480	.633
	Psycho-Social (Total)	.198	.747	.915	.265	.792
	Gender	-.894	1.473	-.084	-.607	.547
	Age	.008	.143	.017	.056	.956
	Teaching Experience	-.131	.144	-.262	-.913	.366
	Ethnicity Group	-1.473	.677	-.323	-2.175	.035

a. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

Table 6.7.3 reveals a significant relationship (Sig. 045<0.05) between surface approach to teaching (a low score on the Teaching Approach Inventory) and high job satisfaction also called intrinsic satisfaction. Again the results are in line with the inexplicable results of the correlation analysis which found that lecturers with High Job satisfaction applied a surface approach to teaching. Ethnicity is significant in the relationship (Sig. 035<0.05).

The model summary indicates that 26% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the total number of independent variables and this is not significant.

6.7.4 Multiple regression of Surface Approach on all independent variables except age, gender, ethnicity and teaching experience

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.335[a]	.112	.033	5.27454

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total)

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	197.131	5	39.426	1.417	.232[a]
	Residual	1557.966	56	27.821		
	Total	1755.097	61			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total)
b. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	38.457	10.693		3.597	.001
	Job Satisfaction (Total)	-.121	.065	-.239	-1.848	.070
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	-.315	.248	-.166	-1.271	.209
	Childhood Years (Total)	.232	.807	.796	.287	.775
	Present Situation (Total)	.102	.697	.115	.146	.885
	Psycho-Social (Total)	-.234	.725	-1.092	-.323	.748

a. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

Table 6.7.4 illustrates a repeat of the result that the significance of the relationship between job satisfaction and teaching approach decreases (sig. 070>0.05) when ethnic group is removed from the model.

Again it can be seen the model summary reveals that a non-significant 11% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables in the model.

6.7.5 Multiple regression of surface approach on all independent variables.

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.458[a]	.209	.061	4.62130

b. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Teaching Experience, Ethnic Group, Present Situation, Age, Childhood Years (Total)

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	271.462	9	30.162	1.412	210.[a]
	Residual	1025.107	48	21.356		
	Total	1296.569	57			

c. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Gender, Locus of Control (Rotter), Teaching Experience, Ethnic Group, Present Situation, Age, Childhood Years (Total)
d. Dependent Variable: Deep Approach

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		Beta		
1.	(Constant)		.816	.419
	Ethnicity Group	-.041	.261	.795
	Gender	.243	1.685	.098
	Age	-.145	-.476	.636
	Teaching Experience	.207	.698	.488
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	.236	1.663	.103
	Present Situation	.721	1.333	.189
	Job Satisfaction (TOTAL)	.038	.258	.798
	Childhood Years (Total)	2.023	1.110	.273
	Psycho-Social (Total)	-2.241	-1.006	.319

a. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

Table 6.7.5 indicates no significant relationship between any of the independent variables and the dependent variable. The model summary indicates that 21% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by all of the above independent variables and the result is not significant.

6.7.6 Multiple regression of Deep Approach on all independent variables except age, gender, ethnicity and teaching experience

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.211[a]	.045	-.041	4.93069

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total).

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	63.722	5	12.744	.524	.757[a]
	Residual	1361.455	56	24.312		
	Total	1425.177	61			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Psycho-Social (Total), Job Satisfaction (TOTAL), Locus of Control (Rotter), Present Situation (Total), Childhood Years (Total)
b. Dependent Variable: Deep Approach

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	20.332	9.996		2.034	.047
	Job Satisfaction (Total)	.017	.061	.038	.285	.777
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	.211	.232	.123	.911	.366
	Childhood Years (Total)	.004	.754	.017	.006	.995
	Present Situation (Total)	.086	.652	.109	.133	.895
	Psycho-Social (Total)	0.14	.677	.072	.021	.984

a. Dependent Variable: Deep Approach

Table 6.7.6 reveals that no significant relationships between deep approach and any of the independent variables exist. The model summary indicates that only 5% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables which are not significant.

6.7.7 Multiple regression of Surface Approach on multiple independent variables with Psycho-Social Background factors demarcated

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.425[a]	.180	.057	5.20994

a. Predictors: (Constant), Childhood & Depression, Intrinsic Satisfaction, Locus of Control (Rotter), Childhood & Socio-Economic Status, Emotional Support in Childhood, Extrinsic Satisfaction, Present Situation (Total), Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	316.495	8	39.562	1.458	.195[a]
	Residual	1438.602	53	27.143		
	Total	1755.097	61			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Childhood & Depression, Intrinsic Satisfaction, Locus of Control (Rotter), Childhood & Socio-Economic Status, Emotional Support in Childhood, Extrinsic Satisfaction, Present Situation (Total), Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning

b. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	39.995	10.805		3.701	.001
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	-.284	.247	-.149	-1.150	.255
	Intrinsic Satisfaction	-.372	.159	-.478	-2.342	.023
	Extrinsic Satisfaction	.317	.258	.253	1.230	.224
	Present Situation (Total)	-.154	.200	-.175	-.772	.443
	Emotional Support in Childhood	.194	.277	.199	.702	.486
	Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	.214	.248	.180	.862	.393
	Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning	-.276	.252	-.320	-1.096	.278
	Childhood & Depression	-.101	.226	-.107	-.447	.656

a. Dependent Variable: Surface Approach

The significant relationship between a high score on the job satisfaction scale (Intrinsic satisfaction) and a surface approach to teaching (sig. 0.23<0.05) is once again substantiated.

According to the model summary only 18% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables in the model, which is not significant.

6.7.8 Multiple regression of Deep Approach on multiple independent variables with Psycho-Social Background factors demarcated

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.349[a]	.122	-.011	4.85963

a. Predictors: (Constant), Childhood & Depression, Intrinsic Satisfaction, Locus of Control (Rotter), Childhood & Socio Economic Status, Emotional Support in Childhood, Extrinsic Satisfaction, Present Situation (Total), Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning

(b) **ANOVA[b]**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	173.530	8	21.691	.918	.509[a]
	Residual	1251.648	53	23.616		
	Total	1425.177	61			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Childhood & Depression, Intrinsic Satisfaction, Locus of Control (Rotter), Childhood & Socio-Economic Status, Emotional Support in Childhood, Extrinsic Satisfaction, Present Situation (Total), Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning

b. Dependent Variable: Deep Approach

(c) **Coefficients [a]**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1.	(Constant)	19.112	10.079		1.896	.063
	Locus of Control (Rotter)	.245	.230	.143	1.062	.293
	Intrinsic Satisfaction	.151	.148	.215	1.017	.314
	Extrinsic Satisfaction	-.261	.241	-.231	-1.083	.284
	Present Situation (Total)	.247	.187	.312	1.326	.190
	Emotional Support in Childhood	.178	.258	.203	.691	.492
	Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	.054	.231	.050	.232	.817
	Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning	.039	.235	.050	.164	.870
	Childhood & Depression	-.349	.210	-.410	-1.659	.103

a. Dependent Variable: Deep Approach

According to Table 6.7.8 there is no significant relationship between any of the independent variables in the model and the dependent variable Deep Approach.

The model summary indicates that only 12% of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables in the model. This result is not significant.

6.8 MANN-WHITNEY TEST

6.8.1 Ethnic Group

Because ethnicity was indicated as a significant variable in Table 6.7.1 (c) (sig. .044<0.05) and Table 6.7.3 (c) (sig. .035<0.05) it was decided to investigate the differences between White and Black lecturers regarding the means of all the variables. The different ethnic groups in the sample are described in Table 6.8.1 and it is clear that the group sizes differ vastly, excluding parametric statistics to determine the differences between group means on the most important variables (teaching approach; job satisfaction; locus of control and psycho-social background factors). The White and Black groups formed the majorities of the sample. The coloured group and the Indian group were too small to compare statistically with the other two groups. The Black and White group were therefore analysed for the significant differences between means of the stated variables using non-parametric statistics namely the Mann-Whitney U test.

The following tables present the analyses. Firstly the tables denoting the mean ranks for each variable of the two ethnic groups are presented and thereafter the tables with the Mann-Whitney test for differences between the means of the different variables are presented.

Table 6.8.1 Ranks

(a)

	Ethnic Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Surface Approach	Black	54	34.94	1887.00
	White	12	27.00	324.00
	Total	66		
Deep Approach	Black	54	34.06	1839.50
	White	12	30.96	371.50
	Total	66		
Intrinsic Satisfaction	Black	54	31.81	1717.50
	White	12	41.13	493.50
	Total	66		
Extrinsic Satisfaction	Black	54	33.13	1789.00
	White	11	32.36	356.00
	Total	65		
Emotional Support in Childhood	Black	54	36.20	1955.00
	White	12	21.33	256.00
	Total	66		
Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	Black	54	36.76	1985.00
	White	12	18.83	226.00
	Total	66		
Childhood & Environment	Black	54	36.70	1982.00
Conducive to Learning	White	12	19.08	229.00
	Total	66		
Childhood & Depression	Black	54	36.96	1996.00
	White	12	17.92	215.00
	Total	66		
Present Situation	Black	54	36.47	1969.50
	White	12	20.13	241.50
	Total	66		
Locus of Control (Rotter)	Black	47	30.59	1437.50
	White	11	24.86	273.50
	Total	58		

Table 6.8.1 (a) indicates which group ranked the highest on the independent variables.

The following table presents the Mann-Whitney test for differences between the means of the different variables.

(b) **Test Statistics [a]**

	Surface Approach	Deep Approach	Intrinsic Satisfaction	Extrinsic Satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	246.000	293.500	232.500	290.000
Z	-1.300	-.509	-1.525	-.123
Asymp. Sig. (2 tailed)	.194	.611	.127	.902

a. Grouping Variable: Ethnic Group

(c) **Test Statistics [a]**

	Emotional Support in Childhood	Childhood & Socio-Economic Status	Childhood & Environment Conducive to Learning	Childhood & Depression
Mann-Whitney U	178.000	148.000	151.000	137.000
Z	-2.566	-2.956	-2.914	-3.172
Asymp. Sig. (2 tailed)	.010	.003	.004	.002

a. Grouping Variable: Ethnic Group

(d) **Test Statistics [a]**

	Present Situation	Locus of Control (Rotter)
Mann-Whitney U	163.500	207.500
Z	-2.675	-1.022
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.307

a. Grouping Variable: Ethnic Group

Table 6.8.1 (c) indicates that there is a statistical difference between the White and Black groups regarding Emotional support in childhood (sig .010<0.05); socio-economic situation in childhood (sig. 003< 0.05); environment Conducive to Learning in Childhood (sig. 004<0.05) and Depression in Childhood (sig. 002<0.05). The Black group had significantly more adverse circumstances in the present situation (sig. .007<0.05) than the White group. Moreover, regarding the present life situation the Black group had significantly more problems than the White group. The dimensions regarding the present life situation are financial situation, love-life problems, relationship with family members, depression and anxiety of having contracted HIV.

It is not certain whether the adverse factors of the childhood years of the Black lecturers as a group are to be cited as reasons for the findings that the majority of the lecturers at the college do not apply a deep teaching approach but a surface approach. It can only be done with reservation. Favourable Psycho-Social Background factors are needed to develop a person with determination, innovation and self-discipline which are required from lecturers who apply a deep teaching approach.

The low reliability (0.4) of the Locus of Control scale where it was reasoned that respondents did not have focused and clear sentiments regarding locus of control

might be attributed to adverse childhood circumstances. Children who lacked nurturing might have been exposed to unfair parenting and did not develop clear personal guidelines as to which factors influenced their lives (*cf.* 2.4) (*cf*. 2.5.2).

6.9 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

6.9.1 Summary of null hypotheses accepted and rejected at a 0.05 level of significance

Null hypothesis (H_0a):	No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and the job satisfaction the lecturers experience	Accept
Null Hypothesis (H_0b):	No relationship exists between lecturers' locus of control and their teaching approach.	Accept
Null Hypothesis (H_0c):	No relationship exists between lecturers' job satisfaction and their teaching approach.	Accept
Null Hypothesis (H_0d):	No relationship exists between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach.	Accept

Although none of the stated hypotheses of this study have been substantiated, interesting results have been found. The sample is dominated in numbers by the Black ethnic group (76%) as opposed to the White group (17%). The statistics point to the fact that the Black respondents had significantly more adverse situations regarding emotional support, economic status and an environment conducive to learning than the White respondents. The Black respondents also had significantly more depression in childhood than the White respondents. Regarding the present life situation the Black respondents were significantly worse off than the White respondents. The present life situation pertains to financial situation, relationship problems, love life problems as well as living with the unconfirmed fear of having contracted HIV.

It is possible to consider that the Psycho-Social Background factors are aetiological determinants of a surface approach to teaching. It is evident that these lecturers are

not largely dissatisfied with their jobs but they could lack the self determination, drive and passion to apply a deep teaching approach. They could also just be uninformed regarding the benefits of deep teaching. The mentioned psycho-social background factors could also be the cause of the low internal consistency of the Locus of Control Scale. Adverse childhood experiences may inhibit the development of a sense of control over one's life, be it internal or external. The inability of the majority of the respondents to be consistent in their answering of the scale items may have resulted in a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of 0.4.

None of the hypotheses stated in this study were substantiated, therefore all o hypotheses are accepted.

Chapter 7 will discuss the conclusion, limitations and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This research originated from a need to ascertain whether a relationship existed between internal locus of control, job satisfaction and a deep teaching approach. The rationale of the study was based on the following argument: A deep pessimism had been identified among many South African academics, as well as the lecturers of Ikhala FET College (Schulze, 2006:332). One could expect that adverse conditions in Higher Education would lead to low job satisfaction. However, observation of the academics at the Ikhala FET College indicated that certain people maintained enjoyment of their work in spite of adverse conditions. According to literature, job satisfaction was linked to locus of control on a conceptual as well as empirical basis (Bono & Judge, 2003:55). The researcher developed the argument that people with an internal locus of control have high job satisfaction and it was assumed that people with internal locus of control would be less likely to allow adverse working conditions to affect their motivation and job satisfaction. In the field of Higher Education, high job satisfaction was linked to high quality teaching which includes a deep teaching approach. Consequently, the following research question emerged:

Do lectures with an internal locus of control experience higher job satisfaction and apply a deep teaching approach than lecturers with an external locus of control

In order to answer this question, a comprehensive literature study regarding the variables was done in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 and afterwards the research question was investigated.

In Chapter 6 the results and discussion of the results for this research were done. The conclusion for the results of the study follows.

7.2 SUMMARISED CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

The descriptive statistics revealed that the distribution of scores on all scales only varied slightly from the normal distribution. However, there were significant correlations between certain variables and differences between the means of the ethnic groups regarding psycho-social variables (Black and White).

To interpret the results of the study, univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used to describe the confounding variables, independent variables and dependent variable.

Contradictions to the hypotheses were present in this research. The analysis of teaching approach and job satisfaction indicates that lecturers with high job satisfaction namely intrinsic satisfaction employ a surface approach to teaching (*cf*. Table 6.6.1). No theory or research could be found to substantiate this finding. An inverse correlation exists between locus of control and job satisfaction (*cf*. Table 6.6.1) which indicates that the respondents with an external locus of control experience high job satisfaction (intrinsic job satisfaction). This phenomenon is unclear.

Unpredictably the scores on the two sections of the Psycho-Social Background factors Questionnaire namely Childhood Situation and Present Situation are related to approaches to teaching (*cf.* Table 6.6.3). The scores on Childhood Years and the Present Life Situation are inversely related to a Surface Approach to Teaching. The adverse conditions relate to the Childhood Years as well as the Present Situation. A further analysis reveals a pattern regarding Psycho-Social Background Factors and the presence of the Surface Approach measured by the Teaching Approach Questionnaire. Depression in childhood and the absence of an environment conducive to learning is related to a low score on the Teaching Approach Questionnaire (surface teaching). Growing up in an environment where the family does not create a learning space and encourage education as well as the incidence of

depression may be related to the inability to apply deep teaching approaches in the classroom. The relationship of psycho-social background factors with Surface Approach may offer a small degree of understanding of the previously mentioned unexpected presence of a surface teaching approach.

Table 6.6.3 indicates a significantly positive relationship between good socio-economic situation in childhood and a deep teaching approach. This result cannot be explained and could be random.

Descriptive statistics were used to interpret the results of this study. The results designate that the academic staff of Ikhala FET College experienced high job satisfaction but they did not have well established locus of control. Nor do they apply a deep teaching approach in the classroom.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are to be considered:

- A study which included other FET Colleges in other parts of the country with a larger number of respondents would reveal findings which support the hypotheses. In other words, the study would reflect more on the entire higher education population and would provide more reliable findings.

- As the use of English only in the questionnaires might have created certain problems, two ways of addressing this dilemma occur: serious consideration should be given to questionnaires being provided in the home language of each lecturer.

- Alternatively sufficient time should be provided for elaborate explanations of the English meaning of the questions, to make sure that each

respondent understood very clearly what is being asked of him/her. This could be dealt with orally prior to the completion of the questionnaire.

- A future study questionnaire should include information on the professional and academic qualifications of each lecturer in order to monitor whether training in education would affect the findings.

- Consideration should be given to formal training of lecturers and prospective lecturers in the skills and tools required to apply deep teaching. Deep teaching leads to practical outcomes, which means that the employability of students is enhanced. The critical outcomes required of students by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA), namely: critical thinking; problem-solving skills, team spirit, self-responsibility skills, research skills, learning skills, communication skills, citizenship, development macro-vision and entrepreneurship, should be required of lecturers as well (*cf.* 3.12).

- As learning is the ultimate goal of education most research has been done on learning and the vehicle towards learning, *teaching*, has been neglected. It is recommended that more research on teaching, especially Deep Teaching should be done as this might lead to more effective learning. To support this statement Kalivoda (1995:95) maintains: “Overall impression in literature is that learning is more important than teaching. The application of students’ knowledge must be the ultimate goal. Teaching is something that is done on the side’.”

7.4 LIMITATIONS

This research study, in spite of interesting and valuable results obtained, has certain limitations. They are the following:

- The sample group used was extremely small. Seventy-one lecturers of Ikhala FET College volunteered their responses. It mostly reflects the teaching experiences of African lecturers, (76 %) owing to the fact that Ikhala FET College lecturers has a majority of African lecturers. The results reflect the teaching experience of a single ethnic group, rather than that of the entire South African community in Higher Education.

- In the sample group 94% of respondents did not have English as their home language. For approximately 50% of the respondents English is a third language only. Certain concepts in the questionnaire might not be understood correctly. Some of the English terminology in the questionnaire, especially abstract concepts may have been unknown to the respondents.

- Although most lecturers have qualifications, many do not have any qualification in education. They are experts at their various professions but have no or very little formal training in teaching. This situation is probably due to a lack of adequately qualified lecturers in mostly rural areas of South Africa. Qualification should include knowledge of deep teaching practices. Unfortunately, the measuring instruments were not designed for a South African population and this might have influenced the results. This problem, however, was not foreseen by the researcher at the outset of the study. It was reasoned that the sample size would be large enough to compensate for this problem.

7.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter set out the rationale for this study. In conclusion, the researcher wishes to emphasize the importance of the research, namely that in Black

lecturers a relationship was found between poor psycho-social background factors and the absence of a deep teaching approach.

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Appendix A

CONSENT FORM

Declaration:

THE RELATIONSHIP THAT LECTURERS' LOCUS OF CONTROL HAS ON THEIR EXPERIENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION AND THE TEACHING APPROACH THEY APPLY IN THE CLASSROOM

PERSAL. NO.											

A. I, the undersigned confirm that:

1. I have been asked to participate in the above-mentioned research survey carried out by Ikhala FET College.

2. It has been explained to me that:

2.1 The purpose of the research survey is to collect information on the significant predictors of the teaching approach which lecturers of Ikhala FET College apply in the classroom. The information collected will be used to determine the factors that have the most significant influence on the performance of lecturers' teaching approach. This will ensure that appropriate support can be developed for lecturers in order to help students and to improve the students' results and make them more employable.

2.2 In order to collect this information I have been told that I will be asked a number of questions regarding:

- Biographical details
- Locus of control orientation
- Job satisfaction I experience at Ikhala
- Psycho-Social Background factors

2.3 I have been told that this information will be collected from all the academic staff of the different satellite campuses.

2.4 I have been told that it will not take more than 20 minutes to provide the information.

2.5 It has been explained to me that by participating in this research survey I will help to support the academic staff in their teaching knowledge in the classroom.

2.6 It has also been explained to me that the information will be kept confidential and it will be used anonymously to make known the findings to other educationists.

2.7 I understand that I will have no direct access to the results of the survey but that I may contact the researcher who will inform me of the findings.

2.8 It was also clearly explained to me that I might refuse to participate in the research survey. If I refused, it would not be held against me in any way.

2.9 The information in this consent form was explained to me in English by Mrs Geldenhuis and I confirm that I have a good command of this language and understood the explanations. I was also given the opportunity to ask questions on things I did not understand clearly.

2.10 No pressure was applied on me to take part in this research survey.

B. I hereby agree voluntarily to take part in this research survey.

Signed/confirmed at the individual campuses of Ikhala FET College on _____ 2010.

....

Signature of Participant **Signature of Witness**

Appendix B

Teaching Approaches of Lecturers at Ikhala FET College

Psycho-Social Background of Lecturers

Office Use

Mark applicable block with X

1 GENDER — 1 Male; 2 Female

2 AGE IN YEARS — ____ Years

3 ETHNIC GROUP — 1 Black; 2 Coloured; 3 Indian Asian; 4 White

4 LANGUAGE — 1 English; 2 Afrikaans; 3 IsiXhosa; 4 SeSotho; 5 Other

5 YEARS EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ____

Teaching Approaches

Instructions:

For each item, please circle one of the numbers (1 - 5)
The numbers refer to the following responses:

1	this item was rarely true for me in this subject
2	this item was sometimes true for me in this subject
3	this item was true for me about half the time in this subject
4	this item was frequently true for me in this subject
5	this item was almost always true for me in this subject

Please answer each item. Do not spend a long time on each: your first reaction is probably the best one. Please note that the questions all refer to the subject which you teach.

6. **I feel it is important that specific objectives which students have to know for formal assessment in the subject/subjects should be described.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

7. **I feel it is important to present many facts to students so that they know what they have to learn for this subject.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

8. **I think an important reason for running teaching sessions in this/these subject/subjects is to give students a good set of notes.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

9. **I feel that I should know the answers to any questions that students may ask me during the teaching of the subject/subjects.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

10. **In this/these subject/subjects, my teaching is designed with the assumption that most of the students have very little useful knowledge of the topic to be covered.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

11. **In this/these subject/subjects I concentrate on covering the information that might be available from a good textbook.**

Rarely true for me — 1 2 3 4 5 — Always true for me

12. **I structure this/these subject/subjects to help students to pass the formal assessment items.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

13. **In this/these subject/subjects, I provide the students only with the information they will need to pass the formal assessment.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

14. **I feel that the assessment in this/these subject/subjects should be an opportunity for students to reveal their changed conceptual understanding of the subject.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

15. **I encourage students to restructure their existing knowledge in terms of the new way of thinking about the subject/subjects.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

16. **I feel that it is better for students in this/these subject/subjects to generate their own notes rather than always copy mine.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

17. **In my interaction with students in this/these subject/subjects, I try to develop a conversation about the topics we are studying.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

18. **I feel a large amount of teaching time in this/these subject/subjects should be used to challenge students' ideas.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

19. **I set aside some teaching time so that students may discuss, among themselves, the difficulties that they encounter.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

20. **In teaching sessions for this/these subject/subjects, I use difficult or undefined examples to provide topics for debate.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

21. **I make opportunities available for students in this/these subject/subjects to discuss their changing understanding of the subject.**

Rarely true for me	1	2	3	4	5	Always true for me	

Appendix C Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ20)

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

Very Sat.	means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.	
Sat.	means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.	
Neutral	means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job	
Dissat.	means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.	
Very Dissat.	means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.	

Concerning my present job, this is how I feel about …	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	Nautral	Satisfied	Very Sat.	
22. Being able to keep busy all the time;						
23. The chance to work alone on the job;						
24. The chance to do different things from time to time;						

		Very Dissat.	Dissat.	Nautral	Satisfied	Very Sat.	
25.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community:						
26.	The way my boss treats his/her workers;						
27.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions:						
28.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience;						
29.	The way my job provides for steady employment:						
30.	The chance to do things for other people;						
31.	The chance to tell people what to do;						
32.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities:						
33.	The way company policies are put into practice;						
34.	My pay and the amount of work I do;						
35.	The chances for advancement on this job;						
36.	The freedom to use my own judgment;						
37.	The chance to try my own methods in doing the job:						
38.	The working conditions;						
39.	The way my co-workers get along with one another:						
40.	The praise I get for a job well done;						
41.	The satisfaction I get from my job.						

Rotter's Locus of Control Scale

Appendix D

Indicate which one of each pair of statements you believe to be true, despite what you may wish to be true. There are no right or wrong answers. Choose only one of each pair.

42.		Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too harshly.	
		The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too lenient with them.	
43.		Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.	
		People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.	
44.		One of the major reasons for wars is that people don't take enough interest in politics.	
		There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.	
45.		In the long run people get the respect they deserve.	
		Unfortunately, an individual's worth is often not noticed/acknowledged no matter how hard he tries.	
46.		The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.	
		Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.	
47.		Without enough luck one cannot be an effective leader.	
		Capable people who fail to become leaders do not take advantage of their opportunities.	
48.		No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.	
		People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.	
49.		Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.	
		It is mainly one's experiences in life which determine what one is like.	
50.		I have often found that whatever will happen, will happen.	
		I have found that trusting to fate never turns out as well as making a decision to take a definite course of action.	
51.		In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely, if ever, such a thing as an unfair test.	
		Often exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that it seems pointless to study.	

52.		Becoming a success is a matter of hard work. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.	
		Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.	
53.		The average citizen can have an influence on government decisions.	
		This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much ordinary people can do about it.	
54.		When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.	
		It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things could go wrong.	
55.		There are certain people who are just no good.	
		There is some good in everybody.	
56.		In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.	
		Often we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.	
57.		Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.	
		Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, and luck has little or nothing to do with it.	
58.		As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.	
		By taking an active part in political and social affairs people can control world events.	
59.		Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.	
		There really is no such thing as "luck".	
60.		One should always be willing to admit mistakes.	
		It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.	
61.		It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.	
		How many friends you have depends upon how likeable person you are.	
62.		In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.	
		Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness or all three.	
63.		With enough effort we can wipe out politicians corruption.	
		It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.	
64.		Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.	
		There is a direct relationship between how hard students study and the grades they get.	
65.		A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.	
		A good leader makes it clear to everybody what is expected of them.	
66.		I often feel that I have little influence on the things that happen to me.	
		I do not believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.	
67.		People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.	
		There's not much use in trying too hard to please people. If they like you, they like you.	
68.		There is too much emphasis on sport on campus.	
		Team sports are an excellent way to build character.	
69.		What happens to me is my own doing.	
		Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.	
70.		Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.	
		In the long run people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.	

Appendix E

Psycho-social Background of Lecturers
Semantic Differential Rating Scale

This instrument was designed to determine in what kind of environment you were raised. Please read the questions carefully and answer as truthfully as you can. Rate the given aspects of your life by marking the block that is closest to the description of that aspect.

EXAMPLE

Going to school was:

Interesting and enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	Uninteresting and boring

CHILDHOOD YEARS
Emotional support

71 **While growing up I experienced ...**

Love and support	1	2	3	4	5	6	Abuse and neglect	1

72 **I grew up being ...**

Part of a family	1	2	3	4	5	6	Missing family love	2	

73 **The people in my family were ...**

Caring towards one another	1	2	3	4	5	6	Often fighting / arguing	3	

Socio economic situation

74 **Regarding money we were ...**

Comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	In distress	4	

75 **The house we lived in was ...**

Big enough	1	2	3	4	5	6	Crowded	5	

76 **The neighborhood we lived in was ...**

Respectable	1	2	3	4	5	6	Not well regarded	6	

Environment conducive to learning

77 **The occupation of one or both of my parents or guardian filled me with ...**

Admiration	1	2	3	4	5	6	Disapproval	7	

78 **In my family the opportunity to learn something new was regarded as ...**

Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	Not important	8	

79 **My parents/guardian made sure that I had the opportunity to experienced books, magazines, dictionaries, TV and videos**

Often	1	2	3	4	5	6	Never	9	

80 **Regarding further education, my parents / guardian ...**

Had high expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	Were not concerned	10	

Depression

81 **When I was growing up I felt depressed or down**

Seldom	1	2	3	4	5	6	Often	11	

83 **As a teenager I thought that life was not worth living**

Seldom	1	2	3	4	5	6	Often	12	

84 **Depression or aggression / drinking was experienced by one or more of my blood relatives ...**

Seldom	1	2	3	4	5	6	Often	13	

85 **I would rate my childhood as ...**

Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	Unhappy	14	

Present situation

86 **My financial situation worries me:**

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Agree	15	

87 **My love-life is disappointing**

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Agree	16	

88 **My family members (children, brothers, sisters, parents, grandparents) cause me to worry**

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Agree	17	

89 **Sometimes I feel depressed**

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Agree	18	

90 **I worry that I might contract HIV and AIDS**

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Agree	19	

Appendix F: Permission to conduct PhD Research Project

IKHALA
PUBLIC FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING COLLEGE

Zone D, Gwadana Drive, Ezibeleni
Private Bag X7110
QUEENSTOWN
Tel: 047-873 8843
Fax: 086 – 511 4742
Nobulali.Sigabi@ikhalacollege.org.za

Reference		Enquiries:	Mrs. Zituta	Date:	06	02	09

SKYE
P.O.BOX 382
ALIWAL NORTH
9750

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PHD RESEARCH PROJECT

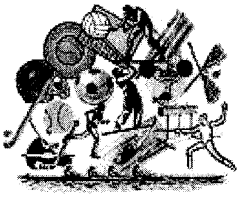
The letter dated the 26th of November 2008 with the above mentioned matter has reference.

Kindly note that your request has been approved.

Kind Regards

CV ZITUTA
CGIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER

Appendix G: Background of Ikhala FET College



MALETSWAI DEVELOPMENT
AND SPORT CENTRE

TEL.: 051-6332073
CEL.: 082 377 6098

P.O. BOX 214
ALIWAL NORTH
9750

BACKGROUND TO THE INVOLVEMENT OF ANGLO AMERICAN IN DEVELOPMENT IN ALIWAL NORTH

In 1994 Aliwal North High School started computer practice and computyping classes for the unemployed in the afternoons. This initiative led to the founding of a college in their building. In the morning the building was used by the school and at 14:00 the college started with their own time table in the classrooms of Aliwal North High School.

Within a few years the numbers of the college increased so dramatically that alternative classrooms had to be found. The Municipality agreed to give an old building to the college but it was very dilapidated. Money was urgently needed, but after many submissions and visits to the Department of Education, we realised that they were not going to help us.

The College Committee contacted your company and made an appointment with a delegation from your company in Johannesburg. Three of our members submitted our plans to your company. Our application was successful and we are grateful to say that your generous contribution allowed us to upgrade the whole building.

This college eventually culminated in an independent college, which today offers a variety of courses in its own building. (Ikhala College)

Today our college prospers and your contribution played a big role in the success story of the college.

There is, however, a big need for good sport facilities for the college and the town and therefore we have the boldness to contact you again.

Yours faithfully

CJ POTGIETER
DIRECTOR: MALETSWAI DEVELOPMENT & SPORT CENTRE

13 June 2011

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction, locus of control, and teaching approach. The study was executed by means of a quantitative, non-experimental, multivariate survey-type research design to test the hypotheses regarding the stated relationships.

To interpret the results of the study univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used to describe the confounding variables, independent variables and dependent variable.

Contradictions to the stated hypotheses are present in this research. The analysis of the relationship between teaching approach and job satisfaction indicates that lecturers with high job satisfaction, namely intrinsic satisfaction, employ a surface approach to teaching. No theory or research could be found to substantiate this finding. An inverse correlation also exists between locus of control and job satisfaction which indicates that the respondents with an external locus of control experience high job satisfaction. This phenomenon is unclear. The psycho-social backgrounds of the Black lecturers are significantly more adverse than that of the White lecturers. And much of the interpretations of the results are focused on the more adverse psycho-social background situation of the Black lecturers who form the majority of the study.

Although the lecturers of Ikhala FET College experience high job satisfaction, they do not have an established locus of control, nor do they apply deep teaching. The former statement was deduced from the poor reliability of the scale (Cronbach's Alpha = X). The conclusion was reached that this result might be attributed to weak psycho-social background factors and circumstances of the Black lecturers while growing up under a non-democratic government. Their present life situation is also significantly more adverse than that of the White group. There is the possibility of a relationship between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach, but this research study was unable to confirm it.

Key Concepts:

Locus of Control, Job Satisfaction, Teaching Approach, Expectancy Theory, Goal setting, Motivation, Personality, Self-efficacy, Education, Lecturer, Deep and Surface Teaching.

ABSTRAK

Die hoofdoel van die studie was om te bepaal of daar ‘n beduidende verband bestaan tussen werknemerstevredenheid, lokus van kontrole en ‘n in-diepte benadering tot onderwysgee. Die studie is gedoen deur middel van ‘n kwantitatiewe nie-eksperimentele meerveranderlike opname-tipe navorsingsontwerp om die hipotese met betrekking tot bogenoemde verhoudings te toets.

Ten einde die resultate te verreken, is enkelveranderlike en meerveranderlike ontledings gedoen om die hipoteses te toets. Beskrywende en afleibare statistiek is gebruik om die verwarrende veranderlikes, onafhanklike veranderlikes en afhanklike veranderlikes te beskryf.

Teenstrydighede ten opsigte van die verklaarde hipoteses het in die navorsing na vore gekom. Die analise van die verhouding tussen benadering tot onderwysgee en werknemerstevredenheid toon dat dosente met hoë werkstevredenheid naamlik intrinsieke tevredenheid ‘n oppervlakkige benadering tot onderwysgee toepas. Geen teorie of navorsing kon gevind word om hierdie bevinding te staaf nie. ‘n Omgekeerde korrelasie bestaan ook tussen lokus van kontrole en werknemerstevredenheid, wat aandui dat die respondente met eksterne lokus van kontrole ‘n hoë mate van werkemerstevredenheid ervaar. Hierdie fenomeen is onduidelik. Die psigo-sosiale agtergrond van die Swart dosente was beduidend swakker as dié van Wit dosente. En ‘n groot gedeelte van die interpretasies van die resultate het gefokus op die swakker psigo-sosiale agtergrondsituasie van die Swart dosente waaruit die meerderheid van die studie bestaan het.

Alhoewel die dosente van Ikhala FET College ‘n hoë mate van werknemerstevredenheid ervaar, het hulle geen vaste lokus van kontrole nie, en hulle pas ook nie in-diepte benadering tot onderwysgee toe nie. Bogenoemde stelling is afgelei van die swak betroubaarheid van die skaal (Alpha Cronbach = 0.9). Daar is tot die slotsom gekom dat dit toe te skryf is aan swak psigo-sosiale agtergrondsfaktore en –omstandighede by Swart dosente wat onder ‘n nie-demokratiese regering groot geword het. Hulle huidige lewensomstandighede was

ook beduidend meer nadelig as dié van die Wit groep. Daar is ‘n moontlikheid dat ‘n verband tussen lokus van kontrole, werknemerstevredenheid en benadering tot onderwysgee bestaan, maar hierdie navorsing kon dit nie bevestig nie.

Sleutelkonsepte:

Lokus van Kontrole, Werknemerstevredenheid, Onderwysgee-benadering, die Verwagtingsteorie, Doelwitstelling, Motivering, Persoonlikheid, Self-doeltreffendheid, Onderwys en Opvoeding, Dosent, In-diepte en Oppervlakkige Onderwysgee.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction, locus of control, and teaching approach. The study was executed by means of a quantitative, non-experimental, multivariate survey-type research design to test the hypotheses regarding the stated relationships.

To interpret the results of the study univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used to describe the confounding variables, independent variables and dependent variable.

Contradictions to the stated hypotheses are present in this research. The analysis of the relationship between teaching approach and job satisfaction indicates that lecturers with high job satisfaction, namely intrinsic satisfaction, employ a surface approach to teaching. No theory or research could be found to substantiate this finding. An inverse correlation also exists between locus of control and job satisfaction which indicates that the respondents with an external locus of control experience high job satisfaction. This phenomenon is unclear. The psycho-social backgrounds of the Black lecturers are significantly more adverse than that of the White lecturers. And much of the interpretations of the results are focused on the more adverse psycho-social background situation of the Black lecturers who form the majority of the study.

Although the lecturers of Ikhala FET College experience high job satisfaction, they do not have an established locus of control, nor do they apply deep teaching. The former statement was deduced from the poor reliability of the scale (Cronbach's Alpha = X). The conclusion was reached that this result might be attributed to weak psycho-social background factors and circumstances of the Black lecturers while growing up under a non-democratic government. Their present life situation is also significantly more adverse than that of the White group. There is the possibility of a relationship between locus of control, job satisfaction and teaching approach, but this research study was unable to confirm it.

Key Concepts:

Locus of Control, Job Satisfaction, Teaching Approach, Expectancy Theory, Goal setting, Motivation, Personality, Self-efficacy, Education, Lecturer, Deep and Surface Teaching.

ABSTRAK

Die hoofdoel van die studie was om te bepaal of daar ‘n beduidende verband bestaan tussen werknemerstevredenheid, lokus van kontrole en ‘n in-diepte benadering tot onderwysgee. Die studie is gedoen deur middel van ‘n kwantitatiewe nie-eksperimentele meerveranderlike opname-tipe navorsingsontwerp om die hipotese met betrekking tot bogenoemde verhoudings te toets.

Ten einde die resultate te verreken, is enkelveranderlike en meerveranderlike ontledings gedoen om die hipoteses te toets. Beskrywende en afleibare statistiek is gebruik om die verwarrende veranderlikes, onafhanklike veranderlikes en afhanklike veranderlikes te beskryf.

Teenstrydighede ten opsigte van die verklaarde hipoteses het in die navorsing na vore gekom. Die analise van die verhouding tussen benadering tot onderwysgee en werknemerstevredenheid toon dat dosente met hoë werkstevredenheid naamlik intrinsieke tevredenheid ‘n oppervlakkige benadering tot onderwysgee toepas. Geen teorie of navorsing kon gevind word om hierdie bevinding te staaf nie. ‘n Omgekeerde korrelasie bestaan ook tussen lokus van kontrole en werknemerstevredenheid, wat aandui dat die respondente met eksterne lokus van kontrole ‘n hoë mate van werkemerstevredenheid ervaar. Hierdie fenomeen is onduidelik. Die psigo-sosiale agtergrond van die Swart dosente was beduidend swakker as dié van Wit dosente. En ‘n groot gedeelte van die interpretasies van die resultate het gefokus op die swakker psigo-sosiale agtergrondsituasie van die Swart dosente waaruit die meerderheid van die studie bestaan het.

Alhoewel die dosente van Ikhala FET College ‘n hoë mate van werknemerstevredenheid ervaar, het hulle geen vaste lokus van kontrole nie, en hulle pas ook nie in-diepte benadering tot onderwysgee toe nie. Bogenoemde stelling is afgelei van die swak betroubaarheid van die skaal (Alpha Cronbach = 0.9). Daar is tot die slotsom gekom dat dit toe te skryf is aan swak psigo-sosiale agtergrondsfaktore en –omstandighede by Swart dosente wat onder ‘n nie-demokratiese regering groot geword het. Hulle huidige lewensomstandighede was ook beduidend meer nadelig as dié van die Wit groep. Daar is ‘n moontlikheid dat ‘n

verband tussen lokus van kontrole, werknemerstevredenheid en benadering tot onderwysgee bestaan, maar hierdie navorsing kon dit nie bevestig nie.

Sleutelkonsepte:

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