



**Exploring job satisfaction of teachers at Special Education Schools
in a South African Education District**

by

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DECLARATION

Student Number:

I declare that *Exploring job satisfaction of teachers at Special Education Schools in a South African Education District* is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Wesley Wheeler

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ABSTRACT

The teaching profession in South Africa is faced with various challenges in view of the economic, political and legislative changes that occurred over the past few years. It is becoming increasingly important for teachers to experience job satisfaction since teacher motivation and retention appear to be declining. This is especially true for LSEN (Learners with Special Needs) who are faced with distinctive challenges. These include inadequate curricula to respond to the need for skilled learners who will be able to be meaningfully integrated in society; a lack of self-efficacy in responding to the unique needs of the learners; troubled teacher-learner relationships; and learner behaviour challenges. It was thus important to determine if, and to what extent, LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa Education District in the Free State province experience job satisfaction, and to identify factors that may either contribute or hinder their levels of job satisfaction. This study followed a quantitative approach, using the survey method to gather information about respondents' views on the role of salary, administrative support and management, work characteristics and interpersonal relations with regard to their job satisfaction. All LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa district agreed to take part in the study, after permission was granted from the Free State Department of Basic Education, principals of the participant schools and teaching staff. The questionnaire consisted of structured quantitative questions that required a Likert scale response. Three open ended questions were also included in the questionnaire to substantiate the results from the structured questionnaire. Ninety four male and female LSEN teachers between the ages of 22-60 participated in this study. The results were unexpectedly positive. It transpired that teachers were generally satisfied with their jobs, with the exception of a few critically important matters. These included their salaries; an absence of adequate promotion opportunities; the lack of the Department of Basic Education in providing curriculum support and adequate funding to acquire much needed resources; and the relationship between the teachers and the learners. Recommendations are put forward to suggest practical solutions to the various problems identified. The findings of the study may shed light on ways in which teacher job satisfaction can be enhanced so as to improve the quality of teaching and prepare learners to take up their rightful place as economically active citizens.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction; Job Dissatisfaction; Learners with Special Education Needs; LSEN Schools; LSEN Teachers; Special Needs.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is crucial to the successful functioning of any company, organisation or institution, because of its significant role in the psychological well-being of the working individual (Gendin & Sergeev, 2002; Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink & Hofman, 2012). Since managers and employees are usually concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction (Aziri, 2011), it is important to them to be aware of those aspects within an organisation which might have an influence on employees' job satisfaction. Managers aim to develop certain aspects which bear on job satisfaction because, in the long run, the results will be fruitful for both the organisation and the employee. Similar to the business sector, schools also function on organisational principles at human resources level and they will certainly benefit from the optimal job satisfaction levels of teachers to ensure productive functioning.

Job satisfaction amongst teachers is becoming increasingly important because of the declining popularity and status of the teaching profession globally, and particularly in South Africa (Kotterman, 2013). This situation is attributed to various factors which include the political landscape in South Africa, the children's right movement and policy changes in education (Williams, 2013). In recent times, severe criticism has been levelled at South African teachers resulting in troubling rates of burnout, depression and general dissatisfaction (Malik, Vazi, Ruiters, Van den Borne, Dumont & Reddy, 2011). These adverse tendencies have also been increasingly noted in teachers at LSEN (Learners with Special Educational Needs) schools (Botes, 2012). Compared to the dearth of research on job satisfaction in mainstream schools, Elanain (2014) concludes that there is a lack of sufficient studies on job dissatisfaction in special schools in South Africa. This study attempts to address the apparent gap and sets out to contribute to the current body of knowledge in the field.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Special schools accommodate learners with various barriers to learning (academic, emotional, social, neurological or physical) who are in need of special interventions (Strydom, Nortjé, Beukes, Esterhuysen & Van der Westhuizen, 2012). It is thus crucial that environments are created where these learners feel at home and are supported. Rendering assistance to those less fortunate is a source of profound job satisfaction and often leads to feelings of accomplishment (Kanwar, Singh, & Kodwani, 2009). The privilege enjoyed by LSEN teachers, i.e. to make a difference in the lives of children with special educational needs, also brings about certain responsibilities which have an impact on their personal interaction with their learners, the classroom environment, the curriculum as well as learning activities and teaching methods. Teachers may make use of all these as avenues to motivate their learners to believe in themselves and to make them feel accepted and respected as individuals (Nel, Nel & Hugo, 2011). From my point of view as a practising LSEN teacher, I experience this as a challenge which is hard to achieve. Starting out at a mainstream school, I noticed from the outset that the field of special needs education is much different. The challenges which are prevalent in mainstream education are even more pressing in special schools. Adding to the behavioural issues, language barriers and poor living conditions which are ordinarily present, LSEN teachers additionally have to deal with factors such as mainstream curricula that need to be adapted, intellectual barriers of learners, as well as their own inadequate qualifications which place additional stress on them. Botes (2012) points out that they feel overwhelmed by the many policy changes and unknown demands that occur simultaneously and rapidly in the field of Inclusive Education. New challenges develop almost daily and the development of solutions is a lengthy process.

The demands and culture of the special needs education sector have changed dramatically over the past decade (Botes, 2012). These changes may either have a positive or a negative influence on job satisfaction. An Australian study which compared the differences in job satisfaction levels between mainstream teachers and special needs teachers, found that special needs teachers experienced considerably higher levels of dissatisfaction in their jobs (Stempien & Loeb, 2002). This was confirmed in a study by Houchins, Shippen, McKeand, Viel-Ruma, Jolivette and Guarino (2010) who found that LSEN teachers typically experience

problems with self-efficacy which contribute to job dissatisfaction. In the South African context, Education White Paper 6 (DoE, 2001) refers to the importance of improving the quality of special education schools and their phased conversion to special school resource centres that will provide professional support to neighbouring schools (Department of Education, 2007). In this context, my study endeavours to understand the specific challenges faced by LSEN teachers in a South African education district, and how these challenges impact on their levels of job satisfaction.

Amongst the most important challenges in the field of special education are to develop a qualified work force and create work environments that sustain special educators' involvement and commitment (Billingsley, 2003). Research indicates that LSEN teachers do not regard themselves as sufficiently qualified and capable of meeting the challenges of special needs instruction (Strydom et al., 2012). In this regard Johnson, Barnett, Elman, Forrest & Kaslow (2013a) point out that, according to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, people's beliefs of their own efficacy have diverse effects which impact on the actions they choose to take; how much effort they put into their endeavours; how long they will persist in the face of difficulties and failures; their resilience to hardship; their thought patterns (positive/negative); how much stress they experience in coping with demanding environmental demands; and the level of accomplishments they realise (Bandura, 1997). These factors suggest that a focus on creating supportive relationships with teachers and principals, reducing stress, clarifying roles, and providing professional support, should help LSEN teachers derive more satisfaction from their work (Billingsley 2004; Nel et al., 2012).

Johnson et al. (2013) cite investigators who argue that job satisfaction causally precedes job commitment, whereas others have viewed commitment to precede job satisfaction. The latter view is held by Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff & Harniss, (2001) who feel that teachers who are not satisfied with their working environment, will not be committed and productive in their jobs and they will likely not perform to the best of their abilities. Conversely, if teachers are satisfied with their jobs, involvement in and commitment to their work will enable them to perform optimally and be more productive.

1.2.1 A conceptual understanding of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as the fulfilment of one's wishes, expectations, or needs regarding one's work, be it physical or mental. It is any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause someone to truthfully say, "I am satisfied with my job" (Aziri, 2011). It is furthermore something that is achieved in oneself and which can be directly linked to productivity. It represents a combination of positive and negative feelings that workers have towards their work (Aziri, 2011).

Similar to the definition of Aziri (2011), Kaliski (2007) sees job satisfaction as an employee's sense of achievement and success in the job. It implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well and being rewarded for one's efforts. It also entails enthusiasm and happiness with one's work and it is moreover the key ingredient that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to the feeling of fulfilment (Kaliski, 2007). George and Jones (2008) describe job satisfaction as the collective of feelings and beliefs that people have about their current job. People's levels or degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction. In addition to having attitudes about their jobs as a whole, people may also display attitudes about various aspects of their jobs, such as the kind of work they do, their co-workers, supervisors or subordinates, and their remuneration (George & Jones, 2008). It seems that job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted concept which may have different meanings for different people. Although it is usually linked to motivation, the nature of this relationship is not clear. For Mullins (2005), satisfaction is not the same as motivation, but it should rather be seen as an attitude - an internal state. It could, for example, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative.

In the educational setting, job satisfaction is of paramount importance for the growth and development of any school (Gersten et al., 2001). As alluded to earlier, job satisfaction can either have a positive or a negative influence on one's work performance, attitude, collegial relationships, workability, etc. Since teachers occupy an important and unique place in the education system, they should experience a sense of fulfilment in order to produce work of excellence. It follows that the Department of Basic Education plays a crucial leadership role

in this endeavour together with school management teams (SMT's) which are responsible for ensuring a pleasant and productive teaching environment. First of all, managers should address the root causes of special needs educator shortages by deploying contemporary, effective, and evidence based management practices. The latter should be *best practices* supported by recent research on the causes of job dissatisfaction of special needs educators (Botes, 2012). School management teams are individuals who are in control of the school and they usually consist of the principal, the deputy principals and numerous heads of department (Steyn, Steyn, De Waal & Wolhuter, 2011). These individuals should possess the leadership qualities to foster a thriving teaching environment which may enhance quality work, reduce absenteeism, promote enthusiasm, counter negative feelings, encourage collaboration amongst staff members, and nurture a culture of loyalty.

To summarise then, in addition to the typical difficulties experienced by teachers at mainstream schools, LSEN teachers have unique factors impacting on their professional development and satisfaction, such as the intellectual capabilities of their learners, dealing appropriately with emotional and personality aspects, and adapting existing curricula to meet the needs of their learners. It is important to take cognisance of these factors and to investigate the challenges faced by LSEN teachers in their quest to enhance the learning opportunities of their learners, while at the same time experiencing their own teaching as fulfilling and rewarding.

In view of the discussion above, the main question that will be focussed on in this study can be formulated as follows:

What is the level of job satisfaction amongst LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district and which specific factors impact on their level of job satisfaction?

The subsidiary questions derived from the main question are:

- What can we learn from relevant literature that can broaden our understanding of job satisfaction in general, and job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in particular?

- What is the level of satisfaction of LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa education district with the following work factors?
 - salary
 - administrative support and management
 - working conditions
 - interpersonal relations
- Are there in the Lejweleputswa district statistically significant differences between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications, and the following work factors?
 - salary
 - administrative support and management
 - working conditions
 - interpersonal relations
- Which strategies may be considered by school managers and education authorities to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers?

1.3 THE AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The following have been identified as the aims of the study, namely:

- To determine empirically, through quantitative means, the factors that influence the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers at LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa education district;
- To determine how satisfied or dissatisfied LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa education district are with the following work factors:
 - salary
 - administrative support and management
 - working conditions
 - interpersonal relations

- To determine whether there are in the Lejweleputswa district statistically significant differences between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications, and the following work factors:
 - salary
 - administrative support and management
 - working conditions
 - interpersonal relations
- To suggest possible strategies to be followed by school managers and education authorities which aim to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in the Free State province.

The study is important to the field of inclusive education, and in particular special needs education for several reasons. First, it is important to understand how people deal with serious challenges in their working environment, and how these occupational challenges affect the way in which special education teachers experience job satisfaction. Second, working conditions play a significant role in explaining why teachers leave the profession. As Johnson et al. (2013) point out, in many countries poor teacher working conditions contribute to the high rate of special educators leaving the field, teacher burnout, and substandard quality of education for learners with special needs. This also seems to be the case in South Africa (Mampane, 2012). Third, there is a strong sentiment from special education teachers worldwide that their qualifications and training do not match the needs of their learners (Hsien, Brown & Bortoli, 2009). The possibility is slim that South African special needs teachers feel any different.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research approach followed in this study was quantitative in nature with a preceding in-depth literature study to inform the nature and extent of the empirical investigation. According to Creswell (2014), a quantitative research approach (also known as a *survey* research design) involves an examination of a trend, an attitude or an opinion of a given population on the basis of sampled data. This type of design (approach) also maximizes objectivity by using numbers, statistics, structure and researcher control (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2010), and it furthermore facilitates external validity. For this study a descriptive and exploratory approach was selected mainly to identify general trends concerning the factors that contribute to the job satisfaction of school teachers at LSEN schools in a specific education district in the Free State province.

1.4.1 Sampling, site selection and selection of participants

A non-probability sampling technique, in this case purposeful sampling, was used to collect data for the study. The teaching staff of all five LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa education district were included so as to represent all the special schools in the district. Prior arrangements were made with the principal of each school and in addition to departmental approval, permission was sought from teachers to participate in the research.

1.4.2 Data Collection

I made use of the following approaches to collect my data:

Literature study

An extensive literature study was conducted on theories underlying job satisfaction as well as the context of inclusive and special needs education in South Africa. Important sources of data were books, circulars, relevant journals, articles, the *White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education* (2001) and subsequent policy guidelines published since 2001. The facts in the documents were interpreted to provide explanations of the past and to clarify the collective educational meaning that may underlie current practices and issues (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The overarching aim of the in-depth literature study was to provide a solid conceptual and theoretical framework which may assist in interpreting the findings of the empirical research.

Survey questionnaire

The appropriate data collection instrument for this study was a quantitative survey which was distributed to teachers from five purposefully selected LSEN schools. According to Mirkha (2015), a survey is typically classified as non-experimental or descriptive research which is a scientific investigative technique to gather data from respondents by means of close-ended questionnaires. Creswell (2012) states that one of the main disadvantages of quantitative questionnaires is that the picture it paints is often static, with facts and views presented as more concrete and fixed than they may be in the dynamic flow of personal formation and social interaction. Three open-ended questions were included at the end of the survey, and although open-ended questions are typically identified as qualitative data, this component of the survey was chiefly for quantitative data enrichment purposes. The inclusion of the open-ended questions also constituted triangulation on a small scale (refer to Chapter 3).

1.4.3 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a crucial step in the research process. The services of a statistician was employed to perform statistical analysis of the data. Although mainly descriptive statistics were performed on all items to summarise the overall trends or tendencies in the data (central tendency determining the mean, median and mode), inferential statistics (analysis of variance; correlational analysis) were additionally performed in order to provide an understanding of how varied the scores may have been (variance, standing deviation and range), and also to provide insight into where some scores stand in comparison with others (Creswell, 2014). Gay, Mills and Airasian (2011) highlight the importance of scores being reliable and valid, and moreover mention that procedures such as consistency checks (e.g. the alpha reliability statistic) and validity (e.g. factor analysis) represent the means for making these assessments. Issues of reliability and validity are explained more extensively in Chapter 3 of the study.

1.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics involve requirements on daily work, the protection of the dignity of subjects and the publication of the information in the research (Fouka & Mantzuro, 2011). The most common way of defining “ethics” refers to norms for conduct that distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour (Resnik, 2011). A detailed discussion of ethical measures taken in the study is provided in Chapter 3, but in brief, the requirement for competence and professionalism were met. Moreover, the necessary legal and social obligations to the respondents were observed, such as ensuring their anonymity and confidentiality and ensuring that no harm would be inflicted upon them. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the relevant parties.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

In conducting the research on the phenomenon of job satisfaction among teachers at LSEN schools and its contributory factors, it is of vital importance to present a clear definition of the key concepts used in the research. The following key concepts are used in the study and their respective definitions are discussed below.

1.6.1 Special schools

Special schools (also referred to as LSEN schools) cater for children with special education needs. A special school is supposed to have specialised skills available among its staff and appropriate learning materials to assist learners with special education needs (White paper 6, 2001). These schools cater primarily for physical, learning and mental disabilities. The main aim is to equip learners with the required skills to function as economically and socially active citizens in their communities. In this study, the terms “special schools” and “LSEN schools” are used interchangeably.

1.6.2 Special Education Needs (SEN)

Special education needs refer to those characteristics within learners which necessitate the provision of relevant and adequate resources which are typically different from those needed in mainstream schools. Special educational needs are identified by means of specialised assessment instruments. These form the basis for determining an appropriate educational programme (including the required resources) for a learner (BC Ministry of Education, 2013). Different learning needs arise from a range of factors including physical, mental, sensory, neurological and developmental impairments, psycho-social disturbances, differences in intellectual ability, particular life experiences or socio-economic deprivation (DoE, 2001).

1.6.3 Learners with Special Education Needs (LSEN)

A child or young person has special educational needs (SEN) if he/she has learning difficulties or other disabilities that hamper effective learning and cognitive development.

Strydom et al. (2012) outline the following characteristics of learners with special educational needs:

- Learning difficulties in acquiring basic skills in educational settings;
- Social, emotional or mental health difficulties, e.g. finding it difficult to make friends or relating to adults or behaving properly in educational and other social settings;
- Specific learning difficulties with reading, writing, arithmetic or understanding information;
- Sensory or physical needs such as hearing impairment, visual impairment or physical difficulties which might affect them in school or college settings;
- Communication problems, e.g. difficulties in expressing themselves or understanding what others are saying;
- Medical or health conditions which may slow down a learner's progress and/or involves treatment that affects his/her education.

Many learners with SEN, especially those experiencing learning barriers or physical disabilities, carry the extra emotional burden of suffering from low self-esteem and depression (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013). Importantly, addressing and accepting these learners speaks to the value of every child and models a sense of understanding, flexibility and acceptance of their differences (Nel et al., 2012).

1.6.4 Learning barriers

These refer to obstacles that obstruct effective learning. White paper 6 of 2001 singles out a few barriers to learning, such as negative attitudes to and stereotyping of differences; an inflexible curriculum; inappropriate languages or language of learning and teaching; inappropriate communication; inaccessible and unsafe built infrastructure; inappropriate and inadequate support services; inadequate policies and legislation; the non-recognition and non-involvement of parents; and inadequately and inappropriately trained education managers and educators. Barriers may be located within the learner, within the centre of learning, within the education system, and within the broader social, economic and political context (Muthukrishna & Schoeman, 2005).

1.6.5 Inclusive education

Inclusive education refers to the principle that all learners are entitled to equitable access to learning, achievement and pursuit of excellence in all aspects of their education. The practice of inclusion is not necessarily synonymous with integration and goes beyond placement to include meaningful participation and the promotion of interaction with others (BC Ministry of Education, 2013).

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1: Introduction and orientation to the study

Chapter 1 served as an introduction and orientation to the study, stating the background, rationale and research questions that will guide the study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical perspectives

In Chapter 2 important theories on job satisfaction are discussed as a useful means for creating a more comprehensive understanding of the different psychological aspects underpinning job satisfaction. The perspectives of major theorists' on how workplace satisfaction functions and how it may be advanced, come under scrutiny. These perspectives led to a conceptual framework informing the methods and strategies of enquiry in the rest of the study.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

The research process and methodology which guided the study is discussed in Chapter 3. The research approach, design and data collection methods are presented. The method used for data analysis is explained, as well as the measures taken to ensure reliability and validity. Ethical considerations are stated.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and research findings

The research findings are presented in Chapter 4 and interpreted against the theoretical insights as discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 5: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

In Chapter 5 I conclude the study by presenting a brief summary of theoretical perspectives on job satisfaction as discussed in the study. Similarities and possible contradictions between the literature and the empirical research findings are briefly stated. Conclusions are drawn by answering the research questions which guided this study. Recommendations are made for practitioners, policy makers and further research.

1.8 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1 the orientation of the study was presented, indicating the rationale for the study and the research questions that guided the study. The research methodology was briefly explained and ethical considerations were mentioned. Chapter 1 served as the map that guided me through the research process in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. In Chapter 2 an in-depth theoretical perspective is presented on recent job satisfaction research. The most relevant theories underpinning job satisfaction and motivation are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided an overview of job satisfaction to orientate the reader about what job satisfaction entails and how it affects the work of employees in an organisation, in this case the work of LSEN teachers. Chapter 2 provides a theoretical background to the problem, including a review of relevant literature in the field. The quality of a literature review is evaluated according to whether it furthers the understanding of the status of knowledge of the problem and provides a rationale for the study (McMillan & Shumacher, 2010). In this chapter the literature related to job satisfaction will be reviewed to get a better understanding of the theories on the factors that influence job satisfaction. Following that an overview of the factors that have an impact on job satisfaction in general, and of LSEN teachers in particular, will be provided.

2.2 THEORIES ON JOB SATISFACTION

The following theories are regarded as relevant to this study, namely Bandura's Self-efficacy Theory; Herzberg's Two Factor Theory; Edwin Locke's Range of Effect Theory; the Depositional Theory as advocated by Judge, Locke, Durham and Kugel; the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman & Oldham; the Five Factor Model; and finally, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. These will provide a conceptual framework for investigating the problem and provide the backdrop for the discussion and interpretation of the empirical findings in Chapter 4.

2.2.1 Bandura's Self-efficacy Theory

Bandura's Self-efficacy Theory is a component of social cognitive theory which focuses on the interrelationships among self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, and behaviour (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy can be defined as a perceived capability to perform behaviour and causally influence expected outcomes of behaviour, but not vice versa (Williams, 2010). It involves people's perceptions that they are capable of successfully performing behaviour

(Bandura 1997), and furthermore postulates that a strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. As such, self-efficacy will have an influence on job satisfaction, either positive or negative. People differ in the areas in which they cultivate their efficacy and in the levels to which they develop it, even within their given pursuits (Bandura, 2006). To put it plainly, there are people who believe that they are good enough to overcome an obstacle, whereas others may believe that they do not have the needed skills to overcome a particular obstacle. Ramachaudran (1998) differentiates between these groups of people by explaining that those with a strong belief in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered, rather than threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. This group set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to their goals; they heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure; they display an ability to quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks; they attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable; and they approach threatening situations with the conviction that they can exercise control over them. This kind of productive approach produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression. To summarise, all of these factors may enhance job satisfaction.

Conversely, Ramachaudran (1998) comments on people with low levels of efficacy. People who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter and all kinds of adverse outcomes, rather than concentrating on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks. Because they view insufficient performance as deficient aptitude, it does not take much for them to lose faith in their capabilities. Zulkosky (2009) remarks that people with a low sense of self-efficacy are prone to stress, depression, anxiety and helplessness.

Self-efficacy judgments are derived from four sources, namely mastery experiences (i.e. previous successful behavioural performance), modelling (i.e. observation of successful behavioural performance), verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states at the

time of the self-efficacy rating (Bandura, 2006). These four sources can determine a person's behaviour. For example, *mastery* experiences refer to the past successes that a person achieved when performing certain behaviour. When a person is repeatedly successful at a task, self-efficacy increases. However, if failure occurs the sense of self-efficacy declines (Zulkosky, 2009). *Modelling* is behaviour that is determined by the observation of the behaviour of others who have experienced success in the past. *Verbal persuasion* is internal – a person evaluates his/her own behaviour and convinces him/herself that the behaviour is correct in order to achieve success. *Physiological and affective states* refer to the way a person feels at the point of choosing a behaviour or a set of behaviours. These four sources have an impact on which behaviour to choose and what the desired outcomes will be as a result of a particular choice made, whether it be negative or positive. This implies that the outcomes people anticipate after exercising a choice depend largely on their judgments of how well they will be able to perform in given situations (Bandura, 2006). Likewise, Zulkosky (2009) indicates that self-efficacy is not concerned with the specific skills a person has, but rather with the judgments of what a person can do with those skills. Thus, self-efficacy is to a large extent situation-related, although certain skills should be in place to achieve it.

Self-efficacy influences a variety of factors linked to job satisfaction. According to Bandura (2006), and Pajares (2002), efficacy beliefs influence people in different ways. It determines, for example:

- whether they think erratically or strategically, optimistically or pessimistically;
- the courses of action people choose to pursue;
- the challenges and goals they set for themselves and their commitment to them;
- how much effort they put forth in given endeavours;
- the outcomes they expect their efforts to produce;
- how long they persevere in the face of obstacles;
- their resilience to adversity;
- the quality of their emotional life;
- how much stress and depression they experience in coping with taxing environmental demands; and
- the life choices they make and the accomplishments they realise.

All these factors contribute to job satisfaction in a remarkable way. Zulkosky (2009) points to the fact that practising is the most important source of self-efficacy. Unsurprisingly, it seems that the more people experience success, the higher their self-efficacy levels rise. Similar to the way an athlete trains for a race, people should “train” their perceived self-efficacy. As athletes challenge themselves to perform stronger, faster and better, people’s self-efficacy should be assessed with respect to various “gradations of challenge” (Bandura, 2006:241). Self-efficacy appraisals reflect the level of difficulty individuals believe they can surmount. If there are no obstacles to overcome, the activity is easily executed and everyone is highly efficacious (Bandura, 1997). Thus, the level of appraisal that is derived from the behaviour and the outcome that has been achieved, depends on the difficulty of the obstacle that must be overcome; either a high sense of achievement or low levels of achievement is created. In other words, if the task is easy to master, the sense of achievement will be low, but if the task is difficult to master and demands effort, the sense of achievement is high.

2.2.1.1 *The development of self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy develops through four processes, namely cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes (Bandura, 1997). These processes assist human functioning and the way that people behave.

- *Cognitive processes*

Bandura (1997) explains that cognitive processes can take on a variety of forms. Much of human behaviour is influenced by forethought. People continuously think about the consequences of their decisions, be it positive or negative. They create scenarios or try to predict the outcome of their intended behaviour. In their study on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of academics, Walker, Greene and Mansell (2006) explain that cognitive engagement refers to the number of intellectual strategies that people employ. This involves meaningful processing that relates to new information added to existing knowledge, thereby creating a more complex knowledge structure. Their findings suggest that people who possess and engage in meaningful cognitive strategies, enhance their current perceptions of capability and are likely to utilise meaningful cognitive strategies for the remainder of their

lives. Bandura (2006) adds that people with a high sense of cognitive self-efficacy set themselves high cognitive goals and are more motivated to achieve them, whereas people with a low cognitive sense of self-efficacy may attempt more challenges, but they are not sufficiently motivated to achieve their goals. High levels of cognitive self-efficacy are closely linked with very specific types of anticipatory scenarios that people construct and rehearse (Bandura, 2006). As Zulkosky (2009) points out, people with high levels of self-efficacy achieve their goals by visualizing successful outcomes instead of dwelling on the potential negative consequences. The link between self-efficacy and a sense of construction, rehearsal anticipation and visualisation, seem to be very important for maintaining high levels of self-efficacy – the saying ‘success breeds success’ comes to mind in this instance.

- *Motivational processes*

Motivational processes are based on goals or personal standards and are governed by self-satisfying and self-dissatisfying reactions to one's performance, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and readjustment of personal goals based on one's progress (Bandura, 2006). These self-influences are intrinsic and they influence how we are motivated towards reaching our goals. They determine the goals people set for themselves; how much effort they expend; how long they persevere in the face of difficulties; and their resilience to failures. When faced with obstacles and failures, people who harbour self-doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up quickly (Bandura, 2006).

Motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic. According to Hayenga and Corpus (2010) the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is one of long-standing interest in education. Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task for its own inherent rewards, whereas extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task in order to attain some distinguishable outcome, for example approval from authority figures or special privileges in the workplace. Walker et al. (2006) further maintain that intrinsically motivated people are more persistent when it comes to challenges; they have a stronger self-concept; express more creativity; volunteer for tasks and exhibit higher performance. Motivation is clearly a strong indicator of job satisfaction.

- *Affective processes*

Affective processes are determined by people's beliefs in their coping capabilities. Their beliefs influence how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations (Bandura, 2006). Stress, anxiety, worry and fear all negatively affect self-efficacy and can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy of failure or inability to perform the feared tasks (Pajares, 2002). If the emotional state improves, i.e. emotional arousal or stress is reduced, a change in self-efficacy can be expected (Bandura & Adams, 1977). A case in point would be where teachers experience stress when they move from a mainstream to a special school. They may feel overwhelmed due to uncertainties regarding learner behaviour, what disciplinary routes to follow, how to communicate with learners, which instructional methods to implement, etc. As they increasingly develop their skills and get more exposure, they tend to gain more self-confidence and an accompanying sense of self-efficacy which leads to job satisfaction.

- *Selection processes*

Bandura (2006) explains that selection processes are followed when people have to make decisions. Beliefs of personal efficacy can shape the course people's lives take by influencing the types of activities and environments they choose. They typically avoid activities and situations which they believe exceed their coping capabilities (Bandura, 2006). Also, the choices they make cultivate different competencies, interests and social networks that further determine their life course. For example, employees make choices based on the expected outcomes and if a desired outcome is not achieved, it can lead to job dissatisfaction. The opposite is also true.

In the context of this study, it is important to take cognisance of Bandura's theory of self-efficacy as a good indicator of how people perceive themselves in terms of their abilities. It may also provide them with insight into how to develop or increase their levels of self-efficacy. The link between self-efficacy and job satisfaction is well established: people with a high sense of self efficacy logically experience more job satisfaction than their counterparts. In

exploring different approaches and strategies to further enhance their self-efficacy, they can be of considerable assistance to others who struggle in this area.

The development of self-efficacy as theorised by Bandura can be illustrated as follows:

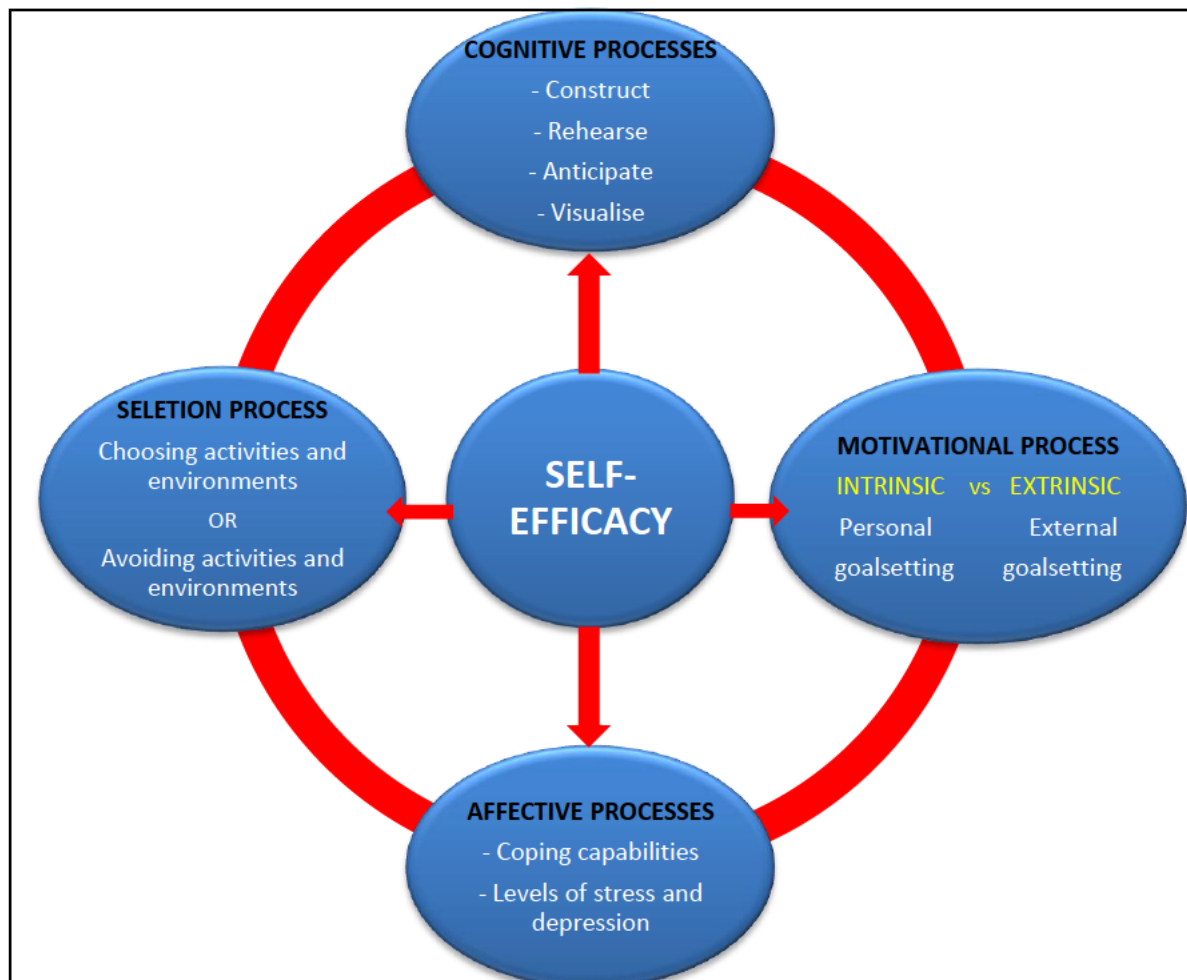


Figure 2.1: The development of self-efficacy

(Source: Author)

In conclusion, it is important to take note of some points of critique levelled against Bandura’s theory. For instance, Hayenga and Corpus (2010) argue that the expectations of individuals are not always entirely accurate, and they might overestimate their ability to perform a task or underestimate the difficulty of a task. In the same vein, Zulkosky (2009) argues that if people are confident that they will perform well, their expectations may be distorted and the outcomes may be disappointing – leading to feelings of failure. Hence, in some contexts, managers might need to reduce the confidence levels of employees.

Williams (2010) believes that differentiating between efficacy expectation and outcome expectation is not practicable. He holds that outcome expectations have a major influence on self-efficacy and conclude that defining self-efficacy without referring to outcome expectations is difficult, if not impossible.

Lastly, Walker et al. (2006) also criticise that the role of the environment has been neglected in the self-efficacy theory and suggests that behaviour could be well analysed and effective treatment methods developed when the effect of the environment on behaviour is clearly understood.

2.2.2 Herzberg Two-factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg's (1971) Motivation-Hygiene (two-) factor theory, although considered non-traditional when it was introduced in 1959, has become one of the most widely used and respected theories for explaining motivation and job satisfaction (Deshields, Kara & Kaynak, 2005). In his two-factor theory, Herzberg identifies two distinct sets of factors influencing job satisfaction which are satisfiers or motivators, and dissatisfiers or hygiene factors. Motivators or satisfiers refer to factors intrinsic to the work, for example recognition of a task completed, achievement, responsibility, advancement and work itself (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009) which, when fulfilled, can lead to satisfaction (Deshields et al., 2005). However, when satisfied, these factors do not *necessarily* motivate or lead to satisfaction; they merely prevent dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1971). Hygiene factors, on the other hand, refer to the basic survival needs of a person (Herzberg, 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, Bloch & Snyderman, 2011) which are not directly related to the job itself, but refer to conditions that are associated with performing a particular task. Examples of such factors are salaries, policies, job security, etc. which can easily be causes for dissatisfaction. Thus, the motivators are factors which are typically intrinsic to the job and are largely managed by the employee, in this case the LSEN teacher. The hygiene factors are extrinsic factors under the control of the supervisor or someone other than the teacher (Deshields et al., 2005). A subsequent look at these factors provides a better understanding.

2.2.2.1 Motivators or satisfiers

These factors are related to the actual carrying out of the work, or the content of the job. The motivators are internal job factors that urge the employees to strive for better achievements, leading to job satisfaction and higher motivation (Balkin, Cardy, & Gomez-Mejia, 2003). They influence how workers, or in this case the teachers, feel about their job, how hard they work and how well they will do their job. Intrinsic motivators such as responsibility, the challenging nature of a job, and achievement are motivators that come from within a person (Bennel, & Akyeampong, 2007). The absence of acceptable intrinsic factors in the workplace leads to high employee attrition rates in many professions, including teaching (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Their presence, on the other hand, is related to high job satisfaction.

Intrinsic factors can cause teachers to feel satisfied, but their absence does not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1971). A teacher who does not get recognition for a task well-performed will not necessarily quit teaching, as long as he/she is well-paid and has good relationships with colleagues (Mengistu, 2012). The intrinsic factors play a significant role in motivating individuals to join the teaching profession (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). The emphasis should be on factors associated with the nature of the work, or with outcomes directly derived from the work, such as opportunities for promotion, for personal growth, recognition, responsibility and achievement (Herzberg, 1957). Thus, satisfaction with the intrinsic aspects of the job is long-lasting and consequently enables teachers to sustain their motivation over a long period of time (Mengistu, 2012).

2.2.2.2 Dissatisfiers or hygiene factors

As mentioned, hygiene factors are extrinsic satisfiers and include organisational policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations with peers and supervisors, working conditions, status, job security, and salary (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Bogler, 2001). Extrinsic job characteristics focus on the outcomes that are generated by performing the job and are concerned with the environment and context in which the job should take place (Furnham, 2005). Changes in these factors are short-lived and merely help in removing dissatisfaction in the employees' work. They are not important to the general satisfaction of the teachers with their work (Mengistu, 2012).

In terms of Herzberg’s theory, my experience as LSEN teacher has led me to conclude that hygiene factors such as teachers’ salaries, job security, benefits, progression, etc. depend on external factors which typically cannot be controlled and may potentially never be satisfied. However, hygiene needs, when satisfied, could *prevent* dissatisfaction. Motivators which can be controlled by teachers within themselves could result in a sense of satisfaction, although this may not necessarily be the case. To repeat, they may only *prevent* dissatisfaction. To put it differently, Herzberg’s theory does not define satisfaction and dissatisfaction to be at opposite ends of the same continuum. The opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather a lack of satisfaction. The opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather a lack of dissatisfaction (Deshields et al., 2005). Thus, an LSEN teacher may not feel either satisfied or dissatisfied, but he/she may rather experience the *absence* of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Needs related to extrinsic factors such as policies, management, environment, learners and parents all affect job satisfaction, and if not adequately met they may cause dissatisfaction despite the fact that motivating factors may per se be addressed satisfactorily (Deshields et al., 2005), thus implying that high levels of satisfaction of intrinsically motivated LSEN teachers may be eroded by extrinsic factors.

In summary, the core of Herzberg’s theory can be illustrated as follows:

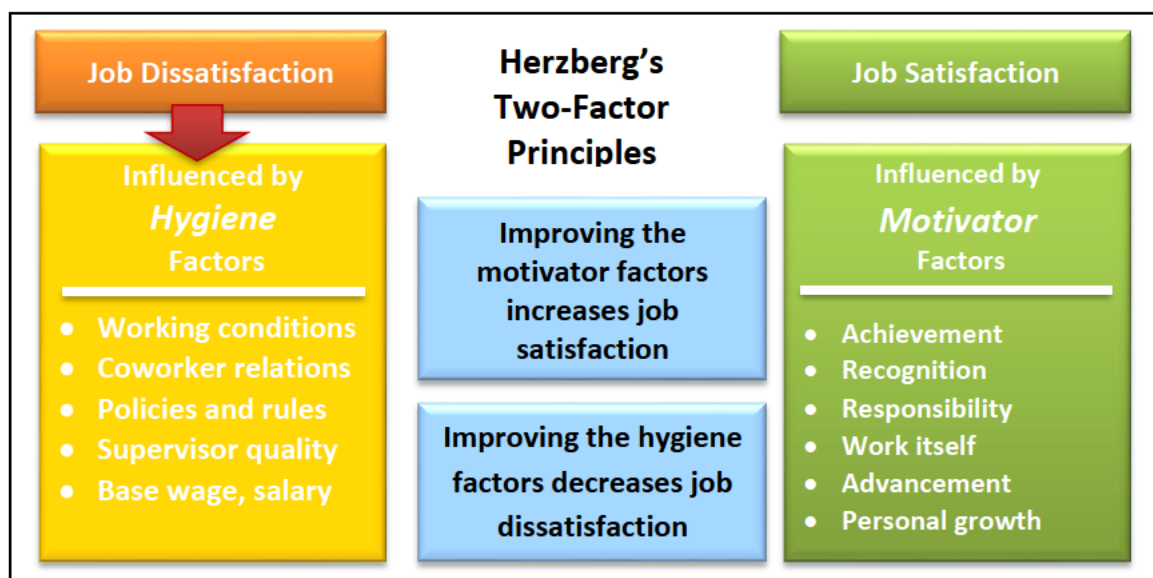


Figure 2.2: A summary of Herzberg's Two-factor Theory

(Source: www.businesscasestudies.uk.com)

Herzberg's Two-factor Theory, as a theory of job satisfaction, remains influential in the area of organisational psychology (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009) and has contributed very significantly towards research. However, it is not free from criticism. The criticism of the theory includes the following (Balkin et al., 2003; Deshield et al., 2005):

- The procedure that Herzberg used is limited by its methodology. Individuals are more likely to attribute satisfying incidents at work to their own efforts. When things are going well, individuals tend to take the credit for themselves, and blame failure on the external environment.
- No attempt was made to measure the relationship between satisfaction and performance.
- The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is disputable.
- Herzberg does not consider the effect of demographic variables on job satisfaction.

Notwithstanding the criticism, Herzberg's theory is easy to understand and it seems to be based on real life rather than academic abstractions, and it also fits in well with the highly respected ideas of inter alia Maslow (1954).

2.2.3 The Range of Affect Theory

Edwin A. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is one of the most famous job satisfaction models in the field of Job satisfaction research (Swarnalatha & Prasana, 2014). Locke (in Torkabadi & Kheirkhah, 2013:55) defines job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one *wants* in a job, and what one *has* in a job. How much one values a given facet of one's work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/are not met. In other words, when people value a particular facet of their job, their work satisfaction is greatly affected, albeit negatively (when the expectations are not met) or positively (when expectations are met). When employees perceive that the goals set by their managers, or by themselves, are fulfilling and attainable, their commitment

and productivity will increase which could result in job satisfaction (Badenhorst, George & Louw, 2008). For instance, if teacher A places a higher premium on academic performance than on performance in extra-mural activities, his/her job satisfaction will clearly depend on the academic achievement of his/her learners. Thus, people have different values in a job environment and different ideas of what satisfies them, and it follows that the appearance of certain factors lead to job satisfaction while a lack of another set of factors leads to job dissatisfaction (Torkabadi & Kheirkhah, 2013). Successful attainment of the intended goals creates a pleasurable emotional state (in this case job satisfaction) on the part of the individual (Mengistu, 2012).

Exceeding the set goals increases satisfaction. The more goal-success an employee attains, the greater his/her job satisfaction (Latham & Locke, 2002). Locke (in Miner, 2005) suggests that job dissatisfaction is a function of the extent of the perceived discrepancy between the intended and the actual performance. The non-fulfilment of a goal creates a non-pleasurable emotional state, in this case job dissatisfaction (Mengistu, 2012). Different variables affect the attainment of goal-directed performance. These variables include effort, organisational support, individual abilities and personal traits (Griffin & Moorhead, 2010). Providing organisational support (by a supervisor) and permitting employees to participate in setting goals, affect job satisfaction positively (Hellgren & Swerke, 2011). Furthermore, rewarding employees for improved performance, giving them feedback and support, recognising their performance, and having low levels of goal-conflict and goal-stress are factors which have been found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Hellgren & Swerke, 2011).

Even though Locke's theory has been labelled as one of the most influential theories in job satisfaction literature, some points of criticism include (Mengistu, 2012:48) the following:

- It is difficult to implement the theory in practice. The Goal-setting theory is more of a technique than a theory of motivation and/or of satisfaction.
- Goal-setting can lead to undesirable competition amongst employees. This may lead to the neglect of quality as well as the desired goal of the organisation.
- It can also lead to an over-emphasis of some aspects of performance, and the neglect of others (e.g. quantity over quality).

2.2.4 The Dispositional Theory

The Dispositional Theory of Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1997) suggests that individuals vary in their tendency to be satisfied with their jobs (Swarnalatha & Prasanna, 2013). Job satisfaction is thus seen as a *personal trait* rather than a *condition* that varies. The dispositional theory suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward certain levels of satisfaction, regardless of their jobs. Moreover, job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Judge et al. developed the *Core Self-Evaluations model* in 1997 (Swarnalatha & Prasanna, 2013) which holds that core self-evaluations are multidimensional traits which facilitate a fundamental appraisal of one's worthiness, effectiveness, and capability (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2003). Core self-evaluations are described as broad personality traits indicated by four well-established personality traits, namely self-esteem (overall value), self-efficacy (performance in a variety of situations), neuroticism (negative tendencies), and locus of control (belief of control) (Bono et al, 2003). According to the Dispositional Theory, higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/herself) and general self-efficacy (the belief in one's own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction (Barbouletos, 2011). Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over one's own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction (Swarnalatha & Prasanna, 2013). Neuroticism is the way people approach a challenge - a neurotic person will typically meet a challenge in a negative way and not enjoy it, whereas a person with a lower sense of neuroticism would take up the challenge and do it to the best of his/her ability. Locus of control refers to the sense that one is in control of one's actions and environment. For example, LSEN teachers may potentially experience a sense of dissatisfaction due to their perceived inability to be in control at work. It is possible that, should they teach in mainstream schools, they subconsciously also sense a lack of control, but do not perceive it as such.

The Dispositional Theory has high internal and external validities (Barbouletos, 2011) and enjoys support from both researchers and managers, as it is viewed as an "open" theory to which new elements are continually added as new discoveries are made. It can be illustrated as follows:

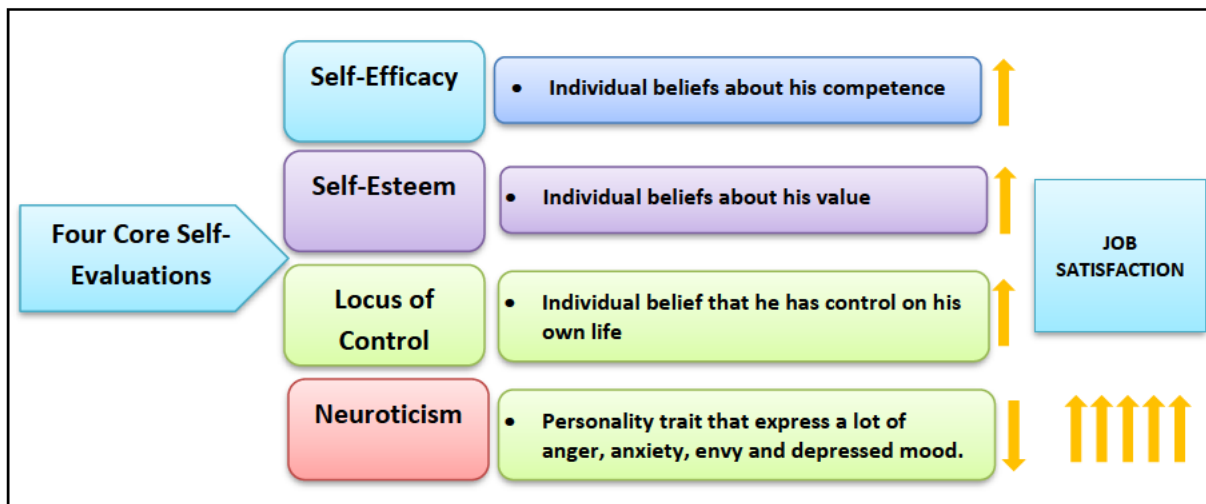


Figure 2.3: The Dispositional Theory

(Source: Abdallah Abdelal [<https://www.slideshare.net/attitudes-and-job-satisfaction>])

There are however certain limitations levelled at the Dispositional Theory which are worth mentioning. Barboutelos (2011) argues that the theory behind the core self-evaluations construct is abstract because it posits that a person's own fundamental evaluations may influence most other appraisals they make about themselves and their environment. For this reason it is difficult to empirically test the Core Self-evaluation trait and its subconscious effect on locus of control, neuroticism, self-esteem, and generalised self-efficacy. Moreover, Swarnalatha and Prasanna (2013) assert that it is unclear why Core Self-evaluation theory chose the four dimensions that it encompasses. According to Bono et al. (2003), Locus of control was originally not included in the list of traits that constituted core self-evaluations. It was added as a consideration later because it generally meets the criteria set forth by Judge et al. (2003: 97) of being a core self-evaluation trait. It later became part of the theory for two primary reasons, i.e. its scale measured many self-oriented items, and it was conceptually and empirically related to generalised self-efficacy. Bono et al. (2003) propose that future research should examine the theory more empirically and provide criteria to determine how broad, fundamental, and evaluative a trait should be for it to be included in core self-evaluations research.

2.2.5 The Job Characteristics Model of Hackman & Oldham

The Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980) describes the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses to work. The theory specifies the conditions in which individuals are predicted to prosper in their work (Mukul, Rayhan, Hoque & Islam, 2013). The model postulates that an individual experiences positive affect proportionate to the extent that he/she learns (knowledge of results), personally experience responsibility (experienced responsibility), and perform on a task that he/she cares about (experienced meaningfulness) (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). This positive affect is reinforcing to the individual and serves as an incentive for him/her to maintain his/her performance in future (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The authors identify five “core job characteristics” (1980:28) such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The five core job characteristics are specified as determinants of three “critical psychological states” (Hackman & Oldman, 1976:32), which are experienced meaningfulness (skill variety, task identity and task significance), experienced responsibility (autonomy) and knowledge of results (feedback). The five job characteristics can be explained as follows:

- *Skill variety* refers to the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person.
- *Task identity* is the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole, identifiable piece of work from beginning to end with (a) visible outcome/s.
- *Task significance* represents the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large.
- *Autonomy* denotes the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedure to be followed in carrying it out.
- *Feedback* refers to the degree to which the individual is provided with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her performance in carrying out the job.

It is possible to combine the five characteristics into a single index that reflects the overall motivating potential of a job (Mukul et al. 2013). Figure 2.4 represents a graphic explanation of the Job characteristics theory. It sorts the five job characteristics (skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) under the heading *Core job dimensions*.

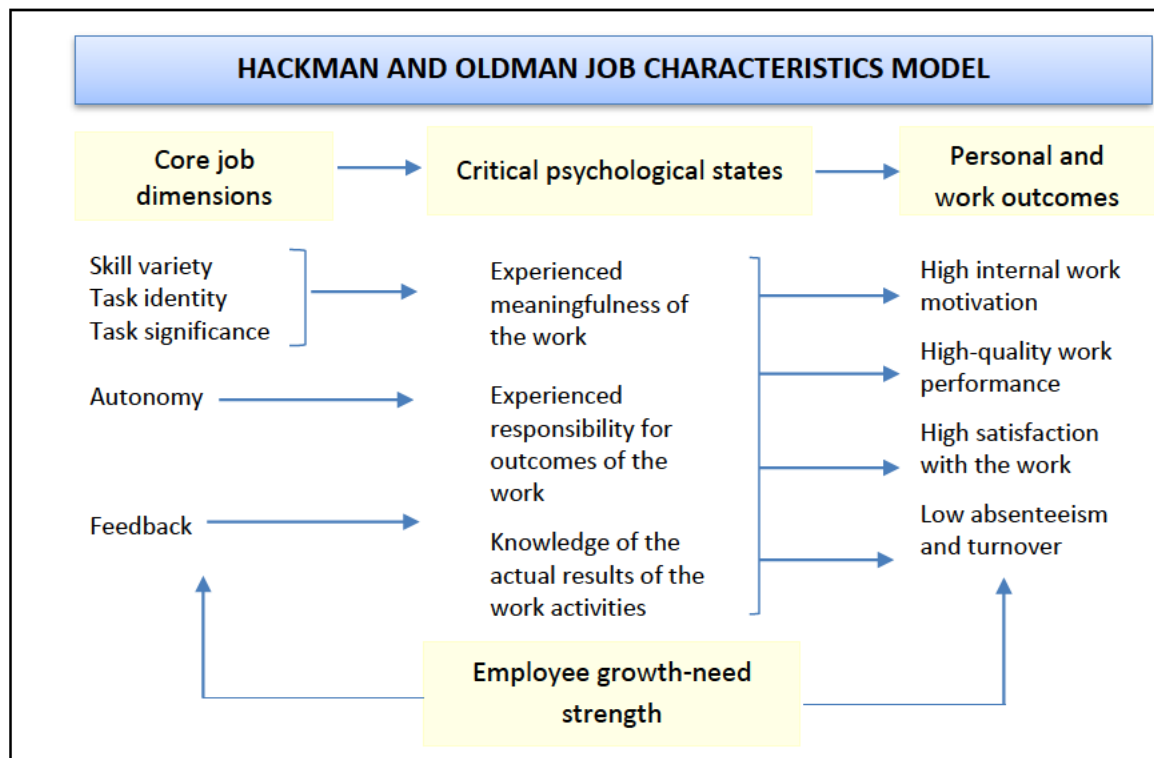


Figure 2.4: Hackman and Oldman's Core Job Dimensions

(Source: Hackman & Oldman, 1980)

The Core Job Dimensions influence the three critical psychological states which, in turn, influence the personal and work outcomes. Feedback, either positive or negative, will start the process again. When a person does not perform well he/she does not experience an internally reinforcing state of affairs which may lead to a subsequently resolve to try harder in future so as to regain the internal rewards accompanied by good performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The net result is a self-perpetuating cycle of positive work motivation, powered by self-generated rewards which is believed to continue until one or more of the three psychological states are no longer present, or until the individual no longer values the internal rewards derived from good performance.

Despite its popularity owing to its practical implementation value, the Job Characteristics Model comes under scrutiny by Mukul et al. (2013). They argue that the distinctiveness of the five job characteristics prohibits people from approaching the job with the certainty that it can be changed. Also, Hackman and Oldham (1976) failed to recognize important features within a work place such as the "social environment and work context" (Mukul et al., 2013:47).

2.2.6 The Five-factor Theory

The Big Five Personality Traits, also known as the Five Factor Model (FFM), is a theory based on common language descriptors of personality. It is a widely examined theory (Othman, 2009) which suggests five broad dimensions used by some psychologists to describe the human personality and psyche. The five factors have been defined as: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism, often presented as the acronyms *OCEAN* or *CANOE*. For example, extraversion is said to include related qualities such as gregariousness, assertiveness, excitement seeking, warmth, activity, and positive emotions. Essentially, the theory holds that those personality characteristics that are most important in peoples' lives will eventually become a part of their personality, or their "language" (Tallman & Bruning, 2008:702). Below follows a brief discussion of each of the five traits, with an illustration of correlated and more specific examples of self-talk" associated with them (Othman, 2009; Tallman & Bruning, 2008; Dijkstra, Van Dierendonck, Evers & De Dreu, 2005).

- *Extraversion*

Extroverts tend to seek interaction with others, novel experiences and complex, varied and intense stimuli. Introverts, on the other hand, prefer their own company and prefer the familiar and unfamiliar (Eysenck, 1986). Extraversion is most often described as the degree to which an individual is sociable, gregarious, talkative, assertive, adventurous, active, energetic and ambitious (Mount & Barrick, 1995). Extraversion is also about the extent to which people are comfortable in social relationships and to what extent they are socially inhibited (Manning, Tör, Poole, Hong, Thompson, King & Seymour (2006). People high in extroversion

tend to be high performers and committed to the organization and their work (Tallman & Bruning, 2008). They will develop psychological contracts that reflect their hard work, commitment and willingness to work with others (Othman, 2009).

- *Agreeableness*

Agreeableness is associated with “the need for intimacy”; the recurrent preference in thought and behaviour for experiencing warm, close and communicative interactions with others. Individuals high in agreeableness are trusting, cooperative, altruistic, compliant and “moved by others” (Tallman & Burning, 2008:62). Agreeableness is related to “pro-social motives”, aimed at seeking good outcomes for oneself as well as for other group members (Barry & Friedman, 1998). Agreeableness describes the courteous, sympathetic, tender-hearted and kind characteristics (Harris & Fleming, 2005). All these traits are important for the interpersonal relationships of teachers. Persons low in agreeableness have been described as antagonistic, competitive, cynical, callous, ruthless and cruel, and they tend to experience and express hostility (Dijkstra, Van Dierendonck, Evers & De Dreu, 2005). At the two extremes are the tough-minded individual, operating predominantly at a thinking level and lacking sensitivity and responsiveness; and the tender-minded individual, operating predominantly at a feelings level and displaying sensitivity and responsiveness (Othman, 2009). Agreeableness is thus at the core of teaching and harmonious relationships with all stakeholders in school.

- *Conscientiousness*

Conscientious individuals have been characterised as dependable, responsible, hard-working, self-disciplined, persistent, and organized (Yahaya, Yahaya, Talib, Bon, Ismail & Noor, 2012). These authors explain that conscientiousness is associated with adjectives such as efficient, organized, reliable, planful, responsible, achievement-oriented and productive. According to them, individuals high in conscientiousness are characterised as being responsible, careful, preserving, orderly, cautious, hardworking and achievement-oriented (Mount & Barrick, 1995). Moreover, they have a sense of duty and obligation to their work and have high job performance, career success, motivation and job satisfaction (Wright, 2003). The two

extreme dispositions associated with conscientiousness are the spontaneous individual who pursues many goals albeit in an unfocused way, and the conscientiousness individual who pursues fewer goals, but in a more focused, controlled and structured way (Othman, 2009).

- *Neuroticism*

Neuroticism is always related to the characteristics of people who have negative affect and who are low in self-esteem (Othman, 2009). Individuals high in negative affect tend to focus on the negative aspects of other people and themselves (Levin & Stokes, 1989). Neuroticism is therefore a negative trait which seems to create a level of low self-esteem and negative attitudes towards others.

- *Openness to experience*

Open employees seek challenging and interesting work and would expect the organization to satisfy this need (Tallman & Burning, 2008). People who are open have a high need for autonomy and they tend to be creative, adaptive and accepting of change (Othman, 2009). Open individuals are also at times better able to understand and adapt to new perspectives (Judge & Bono, 2000). Individuals who score high on openness will more likely show involvement in their work, as their work can serve as the arena to entertain their curiosity, their appetite for exploring new perspectives, and their tendency to develop genuine interests for activities they are involved in (Bozionelos, 2004). Openness is also about a person's willingness to embrace new experiences and it is manifested in factors such as an individual's breadth of interests, level of creativity and intellectual qualities (Manning et. al, 2006). Teachers with high levels of openness display the ability to adapt and be creative in their quest to overcome difficulties, which is as such a desirable trait to possess.

Figure 2.5 on the next page graphically represents the main tenets of the Five Factor personality traits.

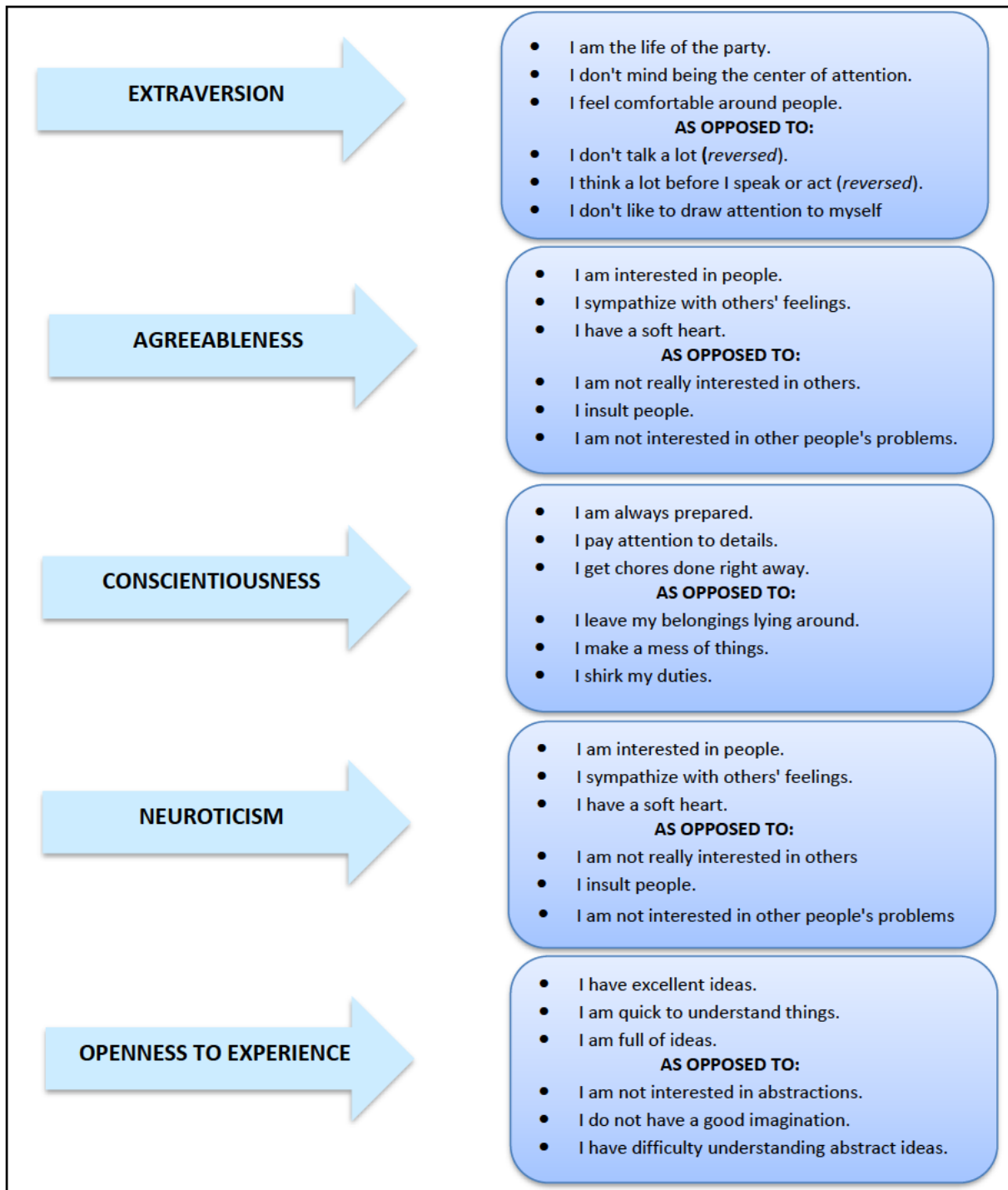


Figure 2.5: A graphical illustration of the Five-Factor Personality Trait Theory

(Source: Author)

In summary, all traits denoted in the Five Factor Model are potentially present in all teachers which may manifest as either positive or negative, depending on their dispositions. The five personality traits will undoubtedly have a profound effect on the degree to which teachers experience satisfaction or dissatisfaction in their jobs.

Since the Five-Factor Model is a widely examined theory revealed certain real problems when scrutinized for its theoretical qualities, came to the fore. It has been suggested that the model was not so much a theory, but rather an idea or a means of classification. Ohtman (2009) believe that this view certainly restricts the model's chances at greatness. Also, while the Five-Factor model passed the test of originality with flying colours (Mukul et al., 2013), another flaw appeared when examined to see if it held true universally. The broad taxonomy that is so elemental to the model makes it difficult to specifically anticipate behaviour in many situations. From the standpoint of a multifaceted personology, Mukul et al. (2013) maintain that the five-factor model "is one important model *in* personality studies, not the integrative model *of* personality" (2013:191).

2.2.7 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow distinguished a theory of human needs based on a hierarchical model ranging from lower-order needs to higher-order needs (Maslow, 1954). He suggested that human needs are arranged in a series of levels according to a hierarchy of importance (Mengistu, 2012). According to Maslow, human behaviour is related to a person's needs which are placed in a hierarchy of their importance and priority. He believed that when one set of needs is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivating factor. Thereafter the next set of needs in the hierarchy order takes its place. Based on this hierarchy, Maslow identified five human needs which are, starting at the lowest level, physiological needs, safety and security needs, love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-fulfilment at the highest level (Maslow, 1954).

The principle behind the hierarchy is that, unless the needs at each level have been satisfied to some extent and until they are met, people find it difficult to respond to higher-order needs (Steyn, 2002). Once a lower-order need is satisfied, it is no longer a motivator or satisfier

(Mullins, 2005). It ceases to motivate employees' (e.g. LSEN teachers) behaviour, and they are satisfied or motivated by the need at the next level of the hierarchy (Mengistu, 2012).

The succession of needs as described by Maslow are illustrated in Figure 2.6 below.

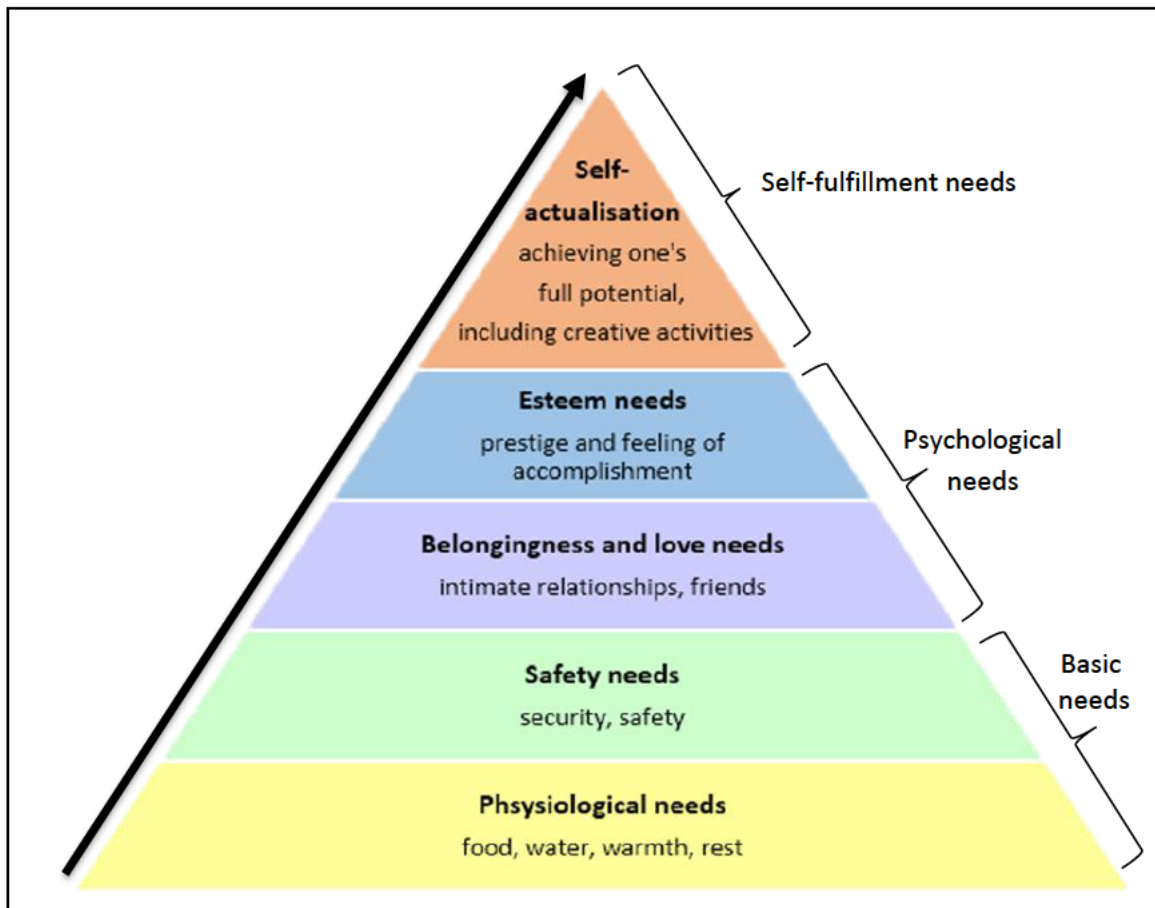


Figure 2.6: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

(Source: <https://www.slideshare.net/amykua/maslow-theories-and-criticism>)

The hierarchy of needs may be explained as follows:

2.2.7.1 *Physiological or basic needs*

The physiological needs are the lowest level of needs that must be satisfied to survive physically (Mengistu, 2012). They are important for the body's automatic efforts to retain normal functioning, such as the need to satisfy hunger and thirst, the need for oxygen, and the need to regulate the body's temperature (Mullins, 2005). Physiological needs also include

the need for sleep, shelter, sex, an adequate salary, satisfying working conditions, heat and lighting, clothes and exercise (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Mullins, 2005; Steyn, 2002). These basic needs can be fulfilled if teachers are employed and are provided with a salary that enables them to cope with the rising living conditions (Steyn, 2002). Following Maslow, it seems that a teacher will only be concerned about the higher-order needs or be self-actualised as a teacher if his/her basic needs are satisfied fairly well (Mengistu, 2012). Teachers will move to the next level of needs provided the basic needs or physiological needs are met, i.e. the safety and security needs.

2.2.7.2 Safety or security needs

Once individuals have substantially satisfied their basic or biological needs, the safety or security needs emerge to direct behaviour (Maslow, 1954). These needs include the need for protection from danger or deprivation, the need for freedom from pain or from the threat of physical attack, the need for savings, medical aid, and even for armed response (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Mullins, 2005; Steyn, 2002). For LSEN teachers, the safety needs are reflected not only in the desire for financial security, but also in fair treatment by the principals, safe working conditions, first-rate fringe benefits, fairness, quality supervision, and job security (Amos & Weathington, 2008). Once these needs are met and satisfied the individual can move on to the next level which denotes the need for love and a sense of belonging – also described as social needs.

2.2.7.3 Social needs

Social needs include the needs for giving and receiving love, for affection, for belonging, and for social activities and friendships (Mullins, 2005). In the school setting these are manifested in the LSEN teachers' need for belonging and affiliation, including professional friendships, good interpersonal relations with colleagues, learners and principals, acceptance by others, and affable supervision by the principals (Mengistu, 2012). If LSEN teachers experience a sense of belonging at their schools, it will result in fulfilment of their social needs (Boey, 2010). When the LSEN teachers participate in the school's activities and are involved in the decision-making processes, a sense of belonging is created (Mengistu, 2012). As a result, communication

between and among teachers, the principal and the learners will be effective, and the teachers will have a propensity to produce good quality results (Boey, 2010).

2.2.7.4 *Esteem or ego needs*

Esteem or ego needs refer to both self-respect and the esteem of people (Mengistu, 2012). The principle behind esteem-needs is that a person who feels loved and has a sense of belonging, will subsequently start to develop the need for esteem and self-respect. Self-respect involves the desire for and subsequent experiencing of feelings of confidence, achievement, independence and freedom. To be held in high esteem by others involves a good reputation or prestige, status, recognition, and being appreciated (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Mullins, 2005). In the work-place these needs are reflected in the form of a merit pay-increase, peer/supervisory recognition, and by getting added responsibility and promotions (Mengistu, 2012). LSEN teachers who do not feel that their status and self-esteem needs are met in their work, may become discouraged (Steyn, 2002). The satisfaction of esteem or ego needs lead to self-confidence and a sense of pleasure. When teachers are recognised for their first-rate job performances and are rewarded for what they have done, their self-confidence together with their self-esteem will improve (Boey, 2010). The development of esteem-needs will help the teachers to be effective in their day-to-day professional activities. If teachers are recognized and rewarded for their work and efforts, they would have more confidence and self-belief to do more and to achieve more. This perception of control will give them a sense of achievement at work which, in turn, will make it more likely for them to be effective in their professional activities (Mengistu, 2012). Once a person has satisfied the need to be respected and recognized for what he/she does, he/she progresses to the final level of needs described by Maslow, i.e. self-actualisation needs.

2.2.7.5 *Self-actualisation needs*

The self-actualisation needs are at the top of the hierarchy and refer to the need for development and the realisation of one's full potential (Mengistu, 2012). These needs compel us to become all that we are capable of becoming (Maslow, 1954), and a person who has not reached this level will likely be restless, frustrated and discontented (Boey, 2010). At this level

the individual strives for truth, beauty, justice, individuality, meaningfulness, and perfection (Amos & Weathington, 2008).

Benell and Akyeampong (2007) argue that the non-fulfilment of these needs may seriously impair the realisation of higher-order needs without which effective teacher performance cannot be realised. Their view is corroborated by Amos et al. (2008) who point out that the higher-order needs, which are the basis for true job satisfaction and motivation, may only be realised once the basic needs have been met. Unless their physical needs are satisfied, employees will not be able to satisfy their higher-order needs (Barboutelos, 2011). Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a valuable theory for understanding what LSEN teachers strive for and what they might see as important or not. It helps us understand why some people may experience higher levels of job satisfaction. The higher the need fulfilment, the higher the job satisfaction.

Maslow's theory is still very popular worldwide and provides guidelines to managers/managements for motivating employees. The theory however has many limitations, as outlined by Lundberg (2008):

- The theory is over-simplified and is based on human needs only. There is lack of direct cause and effect relationship between need and behaviour.
 - The theory has to refer to other motivating factors like expectations, experience and perception.
 - The needs of all employees are not uniform. For instance, many may be satisfied only with physiological needs and security of employment.
 - The pattern of hierarchy of needs as suggested by Maslow, may not be applicable uniformly to all categories of employees.
 - Maslow's assumption of a "need hierarchy" does not hold good in the present age as each person has plenty of needs to satisfied, which may not necessarily follow Maslow's need hierarchy.
 - Even though the theory is widely accepted, there is little empirical evidence to support it. It is largely tentative and untested. His writings are more philosophical than scientific.
- The next section will focus on factors that influence the job satisfaction of teachers, as

indicated by the findings of several researchers in the field of job satisfaction.

2.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION OF LSEN TEACHERS

When reviewing the literature, it becomes clear that there are quite a range of factors that influence job satisfaction of teachers. These factors can be headed by two constructs, namely working conditions and personal factors. In a study by Chen, Yang, Shiau and Wang (2006) listed and ranked the top five quality attributes for education employees to experience job satisfaction. They found that a good salary system was the most important to teachers, with provision of fair promotion systems second. The third important was provision of good fringe benefits. Other factors identified in various studies that are strongly linked to job satisfaction include provision of good management, school environment, resource availability, interpersonal relationships, and learner-related factors. Especially in LSEN education, a lack of job satisfaction has been attributed to an excessive workload because of curriculum changes, unreasonable demands and a lack of support systems (Castro, Kelly & Shih, 2010).

2.3.1 Working conditions

The focus here is on working conditions as extrinsic motivators that originate from outside the teacher. It refers to engaging in a task in order to attain some separable outcomes, such as approval from authority figures or special privileges (Hayenga & Corpus, 2010). Teachers who teach in favourable work environments report that they experience higher satisfaction levels and are less likely to transfer or leave the profession. This is in contrast to their peers teaching at schools with less favourable conditions (Hayenga & Corpus, 2010). Literature on the topic reveals that the following working conditions play a role in the job satisfaction of teachers:

2.3.1.1 School Leadership

Effective management is pivotal to teacher motivation, especially at school level. If systems and structures which were set up to manage and support teachers are dysfunctional, teachers are likely to lose their sense of professional responsibility and commitment (Bennell &

Akyeampong, 2007). Ladd (2009) found in her study that teachers' perceptions of school leadership are most predictive of their satisfaction (2009). Similarly, Evans (2001) report that school leadership and management are the main influences on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation. School leadership aimed at building a sense of community, establishing school routines, providing teachers with necessary resources, and promoting the school to stakeholders, are met with satisfied, emotionally healthy teachers that would work to contribute to the benefit of the school (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Effective school leadership has a reciprocal effect on teacher job satisfaction since it may indirectly influence learner achievement which, in turn, impacts on teacher satisfaction. To create a school environment which is favourable for effective teaching, high-quality school management policies should be in place (Mengistu, 2012). Schools where efficient management policies are practised may attract first rate teachers from other schools. If the systems, policies and structures to manage and support the teachers are not in place as expected, the teachers are more likely to lose their sense of professional responsibility and commitment. The same applies more so to LSEN teachers at integrated public primary schools who, due to the taxing nature of their instructional activities, need consistent support from their managers (Kinyua, 2011). A considerate, supportive and employee-oriented supervisor will elicit better productivity and higher levels of job satisfaction from workers (Davis, 1992). It is the responsibility of School Management Teams (SMT's) and School Governing Bodies (SGB's) to ensure that these systems and support structures are functioning optimally.

2.3.1.2 Salaries

Teachers are typically concerned with salaries and work security and they wish to have stable jobs and salaries (Chen et al., 2006). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) maintain that teachers hold the perception they are seriously underpaid which seems to be the main factor undermining teacher morale and motivation. Low salaries may seriously impair teachers' job satisfaction (Mengistu, 2012). Inadequate salaries may hinder their efforts to strive towards higher-order needs such as achievement, responsibility, or their esteem-needs (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). Kim (2005) found in his study that employees who perceive their salaries as unfair, unavoidably become dissatisfied. Both Cheng et al. (2006) and Mengistu (2012)

reported in their research that an increase in salary was followed by a considerable increase in teachers' job satisfaction.

Teachers in South Africa (including LSEN teachers) do not have great salary growth opportunities and they perceive improvement of qualifications and better performance at work to contribute little to salary increments (Van der Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaul, & Armstrong, 2011). Current salary increases are based on the expected inflation rate plus 1%. This implies that if the inflation rate is 6%, a teacher's salary should improve by at least 7% in a particular year. While this may seem acceptable, the reality is that living costs such as medical aid contributions, food prices, housing, etc. may easily increase by 10% per annum which consequently thwarts teachers' financial progress so that they instead grow poorer each year. Arguably, the biggest drawback of teacher remuneration in South Africa is the fact that the system hardly differentiates between better- and worse-performing teachers (Van der Berg et al., 2011). This hampers the financial incentive for teachers to perform better. Another demotivational aspect related to teacher salaries is the disparity in workload among teachers, with some carrying much heavier workloads than others due to extra-mural activities, additional subject responsibilities, etc. Imazeki's (2005) research confirmed that teachers' number one reason for leaving or staying at a school is directly linked to their salaries. Certainly, the higher the teacher's salary, the higher the levels of job satisfaction; and more likely will he/she be retained.

2.3.1.3 Promotion opportunities

As in any occupation, teachers justly harbour expectations for promotion. Opportunities to progress to a higher level in line with a fair promotion system are therefore very important (Chen et al., 2006). This suggests that teachers who work in a school environment where fair promotional practises are implemented, are likely more satisfied than teachers who do not experience the same opportunities (Ku"sku", 2001).

2.3.1.4 Physical environment

Working and living conditions have a huge impact on teacher morale and motivation, and consequently classroom performance. The impact may be less direct and less marked than some of the other features of work environments, but they may nonetheless be significant in particular kinds of work. According to Bennell & Akyeampong (2007), the key factors are workload (number of pupils and working hours), general classroom conditions, collegial and management support, location, living arrangements and distance to work. To this Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) add that housing and travel are two critical issues affecting teacher morale and motivation in virtually every country. In South Africa, decent accommodation in rural areas is a major headache for most teachers. Many South African schools, especially those situated in township and rural schools, experience a serious lack of facilities. Included are overcrowded classrooms, limited desk space for learners, bad ventilation and dilapidated physical spaces. Briner (2009) additionally highlights three kinds of influences, specifically work factors such as heat, noise, and lighting which have proven to affect a number of psychological processes in both direct and indirect ways. Noise, for example, may impair cognitive performance at certain kinds of tasks. Also, the physical setting impacts on the level and nature of social interaction between learners and teachers, and the physical environment should moreover offer physical safety. Concerns about accidents or injury are likely to have some effect on psychological well-being. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) believe that the lack of secure and safe schools is also a widespread concern, especially in urban schools in Africa.

2.3.1.5 Administrative support

Ingersoll (2001) reports that cultivating administrative support and seeking teacher input in decision making, increase teacher satisfaction. Administrators willing to provide supportive feedback to teachers and to collaborate on ideas, are more likely to have committed teachers (Bandura, 2000). Schools that enlist administrative support for decision making and classroom management have much more committed and satisfied teachers. Teachers need to be convinced that they have the efficacy to enlist the support of their principals, that they impact policies at their schools, and work independently when following instructions. To

achieve this aim, administrators need to recognise their staff, update them about their plans for the school, enforce the rules, and inform them of what is expected of them through conversations about instructional practices. Teacher satisfaction is directly linked to efficient principles who address the issues directly with teachers (Ingersoll, 2001).

School policies can also contribute to teacher satisfaction. Policies about mentoring programmes and retention bonuses, for instance, are aimed at boosting teacher satisfaction and curbing attrition. If the policy is designed to support teachers physically and emotionally, they will be more satisfied and more likely to continue working at a particular school (Waters et al., 2003)

2.3.1.6 *Learner demographics*

Learners' inabilities, the number of learners in a class as well as the social status of the job may also influence the degree of job satisfaction experienced by teachers (Boyd et. al., 2005). Schools with large concentrations of low-income and low-achieving learners are the most likely to experience high teacher turnover (Guarino, & Mejia, 2000). This scenario may furthermore be associated with behavioural problems of learners and learners' loss of concentration due to a lack of basic nutrition. It may also be attributed to the fact that large numbers of learners per class may overwhelm a teacher (Boyd, Lankford & Loeb, 2005). The detrimental effect of high concentrations of low-achieving learners is especially prevalent in LSEN schools. LSEN schools are typically designed to host low-achieving learners requiring special interventions, and if class sizes exceed the norm, teachers may easily become engulfed and discouraged when learners are unable to perform. Learner development and learning are major motivators for most teachers which certainly creates ample opportunity for satisfaction in the teaching profession (Christopher, Munyua & Okendo, 2014).

2.3.1.7 *Motivation of learners*

Learners with learning disabilities often become frustrated because they perceive themselves as incompetent in many areas of school life. For fear of failure, embarrassment and disrespect, this negative perception leads to a lack of motivation and a general absence of

excitement – even when they need to perform and complete basic tasks such as reading and writing (Weiser, 2014). Although some learners with varying abilities seem naturally enthusiastic about learning, many remain particularly dependant on their teachers for challenges, inspiration and stimulation (Christopher et al., 2014). However, as they start experiencing success, their levels of motivation typically increase, generating a cycle of engagement, motivation and competence, which subsequently result in better academic achievement (Irvin, Meltzer & Dukes, 2007). In South Africa, the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) curriculum was followed between 1994 and 2011. This approach required the constant assessment of learners and group work with the teacher as facilitator. In addition, learners were encouraged to assume responsibility for their own studies (Botha, 2002) and to work at their own pace. While the OBE approach was fiercely criticised and reportedly failed to produce the desired outcomes in mainstream schools, it seemed to be quite effective in LSEN schools. The fact that learners were encouraged to work at their own pace tended to decrease their stress levels and created a sense of accomplishment (Spady, 2008). Conversely, learners with special needs who attended mainstream schools were often ignored by teachers who arguably did not possess the needed skills to adapt the OBE curriculum to their needs. It is assumed that learners become discouraged and demotivated when they struggle to master subject content, when their comprehension fails and when they are subsequently not able to develop the required cognitive skills for their developmental level.

Davis (1999) identified potential factors which affect a particular learner's motivation to work and to learn. These include interest in the subject matter; perception of its usefulness; a general desire to achieve; self-confidence; self-esteem; patience and persistence. Moreover, not all learners are motivated by the same values, needs, desires, or wants (Davis, 1999). For example, some are motivated by the approval of others, and others by overcoming challenges. These two examples illustrate the difference between *intrinsic* motivators and *extrinsic* motivators. Extrinsic motivation occurs when the source of the motivation originates from outside the learner and task - another person (e.g. the teacher or a parent) uses rewards or punishment to either encourage, or threaten the learner to complete an assignment or task (Witzel & Mercer, 2003). Extrinsic motivation is very common in schools because learners experience instant gratification for completing a task (Weiser, 2014). Awards, trophies, stickers, appraisal, etc. are types of extrinsic motivation. While learners may seem to be

adequately motivated, these kinds of motivators may result in a number of severe drawbacks: (1) when motivators are not sustainable and the reward or punishment is withdrawn, the motivation often disappears; (2) when the effect of the motivator wears off when the reward or punishment stays the same, the motivation tends to slowly drop off and often requires a bigger reward as a follow-up motivator; and (3) when the motivation prevents *intrinsic* motivation (Weiser, 2014). Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, occurs when the source of motivation comes from within the learner and task (Weiser, 2014). If learners set learning or performance goals for themselves, they generally tend to be more intrinsically motivated and have a greater sense of accomplishment when working towards meeting their goals and achieving them (Weiser, 2014). Teachers who are repeatedly confronted with extremely demotivated learners are definitely at risk of becoming negative and demotivated themselves. To provide the best possible education for special needs learners, it is crucial to have teachers of exceptional quality as well as a learning environment that seems encouraging and inviting (Billingsley, 2004). LSEN teachers therefore have trouble experiencing job satisfaction when working regularly with demotivated learners.

2.3.1.8 *Learner behaviour*

Learners with special needs are often not well disciplined; they experience constant conflict and abuse at home and would easily pick an argument with teachers (Strydom et al., 2012). Teachers in LSEN schools need to be particularly skilled in maintaining discipline in their classes without infringing on the learners' rights (Peltzer, Shisana, Zuma, Van Wyk & Zungu-Dirway, 2008). In LSEN schools teachers often do not have the required skills to maintain discipline which may contribute to a loss of job satisfaction.

2.3.1.9 *Availability of resources*

While some South African schools have excellent infrastructure, others lack basic services such as water and sanitation (Gibberd, 2007). The resources available at schools are closely linked to the school's location and how well the school is managed financially. In 2013, for example, there were still thousands of children in South Africa attending dilapidated mud schools which lack sanitation and/or electricity (Skelton, 2014). This situation has

unfortunately not improved in recent years. The unavailability of electricity means that no electronic equipment such as computers are available. Furthermore, poor sanitation is a great concern as it may cause major health problems if not managed properly. A safe and supportive environment is crucial in fostering a climate of teaching and learning. Modisaotsile (2012) points out that despite the large budgetary commitments by government, a crippling shortage of resources is still faced in education. Obviously, learners who attend “resource handicapped” schools with no electricity, no running water and no toilets are likely to underperform (Skelton, 2014). As a result of its political history of racial segregation and inequality, some schools are well-resourced and provide learners with adequate resources to perform optimally. For historically less privileged schools, however, the opposite is true. LSEN schools are no exception. Evidence suggests that many teachers often take it upon themselves to raise the funds to purchase some essential resources (Botes, 2012). Their commitment bears testimony to the fact that they have the learners’ best interest at heart.

2.3.1.10 Work load

Teaching is hard work, requiring coping mechanisms to counter the considerable adverse effects of the profession (Mengistu, 2012). A common perception held by the general public is that teachers have a half day job with four holidays per year. This perception is patently false because their actual teaching responsibilities comprise roughly two thirds of their entire workload. A typical work day is from 07:00 to 15:00, after which extramural sport and cultural duties are performed. Furthermore, it is expected of teachers to accompany learners on educational tours and to attend compulsory workshops to improve their skills. For example, the personnel administrative measures (PAM, 2016) states that all educators may be required to attend programmes for ongoing professional development up to a maximum of 80 hours per annum. These programmes are conducted outside the formal school day hours or during vacations. At LSEN schools, for example, a typical 7 hour formal instructional school day involves scheduled teaching time, relief teaching, extra and co-curricular duties and pastoral duties (ground, detention, scholar patrol, etc.). The following duties are additionally expected: administrative, supervisory and management functions; professional duties (meetings, workshops, seminars, conferences, etc.) and planning, preparation and evaluation (PAM, 2016). It is quite apparent that seven hours would be insufficient time to perform all

these duties. Taking all these aspects into consideration, it becomes clear that the teaching profession requires from the teachers to provide a variety of professional services, including the professional caring of learners which is regarded as a core task of teachers (Mengistu, 2012; Butt & Lance, 2005).

2.3.1.11 Responsibilities

Somewhat related to the previous point, responsibility varies from teacher to teacher, depending on what his/her role entails in the school setting. For example, a teacher may have added responsibility as subject head or grade head together with all the responsibilities of a normal teacher. Teachers are responsible for performing duties such as teaching; assessing and reporting learners' results; participating in staff development training programmes; attending meetings; disciplining learners; managing numerous extra-curricular activities; and administration (Mengistu, 2012). According to the South African Schools Act (Act no. 84 of 1996) "in loco parentis" refers to teachers acting in the place of a parent who has entrusted the custody and control of his/her child to an educator or another person during usual intramural or extramural school activities. "In loco parentis" is a legal doctrine under which an individual assumes parental rights, duties and obligations without going through the formalities of legal adoption (Nakpodia, 2012). Collectively these responsibilities undoubtedly place a considerable amount of pressure on teachers.

2.3.2. Personal factors

2.3.2.1 Vocational commitment and occupational status

The teaching profession no longer commands the high status it enjoyed 30 years ago and teachers are now "undervalued by society" (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007: 147). According to these authors, studies confirm that teaching is very much regarded as "employment of last resort" by most school leavers and university graduates. Teaching as a profession is frowned upon and is perceived to be a low effort occupation - a "half-day and four-vacations a year" job. Realising that their job is not regarded as important by society justifiably leads to a sense of dissatisfaction amongst teachers.

2.3.2.2 *Teacher-learner relationships*

Amongst all others in the educational context, the relationship between teachers and learners is considered to be vital for positive educational outcomes in the school setting (Mengistu, 2012). Nakpodia (2012) adds that meaningful interpersonal relationships are essential for learner success. These relationships include, but are not limited to, teamwork; joint decision-making; amiable superior-subordinate relations; praise and recognition; appreciation of work done; learner cooperation; academic performance; empowerment opportunities through fair delegation of tasks; and parental support (Dehaloo, 2011). Nakpodia (2012) found that relationships with other teachers and with learners scored the highest means respectively. She further found that work-related relationships predicted teachers' job satisfaction profoundly. Hereof it is my personal observation that learners in LSEN schools long for a special, intimate relationship with their teachers. A positive relationship between learners and teachers is not only of significance to the learners and the educational outcomes of any educational system, but also for the job satisfaction of the teachers (Mengistu, 2012). A positive interaction between teachers and learners is an important variable impacting on the classroom climate. Mengistu (2012) adds that a high premium is placed on this aspect by both parties. The above clearly suggests that the behaviour of the learners in the interaction process has always been closely linked to the teachers' job satisfaction, which in turn underscores its importance when job satisfaction is measured.

2.3.2.3 *Teacher qualifications and experience*

In LSEN schools it is desirable for teachers to keep abreast of new developments in the field of special education to foster a continued and comprehensive understanding of their learners' disabilities. This will inevitable result in more effective learner behaviour management and motivation (Peltzer et al. 2009). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) along with Perrachione, Rosser & Petersen (2008) report a positive correlation between teachers' qualifications and their job satisfaction. They point out that better educated employees are more likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties they perform are in line with their levels of education (Dehaloo, 2011). Conversely, Mengistu (2012) discovered that a number of researchers found job satisfaction to decrease as teachers' education levels increase. His

own research revealed that teachers with a lower level of education were significantly more satisfied than those with a higher level of education. Similarly, Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) found a negative relationship between educational level and job satisfaction. They concluded that the most educated teachers are the least satisfied because of the gap that existed between the teachers' expectations and the realities of professional work.

Teaching experience is another important factor influencing job satisfaction (Mengistu, 2012). In a study done by Crossman and Harris (2006), there was a curvilinear type of relationship between length of service (teaching experience) and the teachers' job satisfaction. The results indicated that satisfaction was high for early career teachers, decreasing at the midpoint of their careers and rebounding again towards the end of their teaching careers. In the early periods of employment there were more novel things to be learnt from the job, and teachers subsequently gained a sense of self actualisation. The mid-career coincides with the so-called mid-life crises experienced by many people often characterised by a desire for change, and when they feel "stuck" they experience feelings of disillusionment, also with regard to their careers. But then again, as time progresses, they become more experienced and reach a stage of maturity which ultimately results in higher confidence levels and a sense of equilibrium. Mengistu (2012) also found that the longer the teachers' service, the more they experienced self-fulfilment, satisfaction with their salaries, and collegial relationships.

2.3.2.4 Parent-teacher relationships

Strong teacher-parent relationships are deemed very important for successful learning (Mengistu, 2012). Sharma and Jyoti (2009) found that the teachers' satisfaction with parent-teacher relationships ranked the lowest of the given variables in their studies, and that the teachers were dissatisfied with the under-estimation of the value of the teaching profession by society in general, and by parents in particular. Similarly, Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2006) found that parents' undesirable school interventions and a lack of respect and recognition for the status of the teachers, were some of the factors that aggravated the teachers' disappointment with their work. The parents' lack of respect for and recognition of the teachers, and their lack of involvement in school-related issues may increase the gap

between the teachers and parents (Mengistu, 2012). Sadly, parent involvement in LSEN schools, similar to mainstream schools, leaves much to be desired.

2.3.2.5 Growth opportunities

In the teaching profession applicable qualifications are expected to result in advancement to higher level posts such as principals, heads of departments, supervisors and district officers (Mengistu, 2012). The availability of opportunities for career advancement and recognition of their contribution to schools improve their teaching efforts (Choi & Tang, 2009). As Rosenholtz (in Sargent & Hannum, 2005) remarks, teachers are more satisfied if their jobs provide opportunities for personal and professional advancement. Ellickson (2002) and Mengistu (2012) also underscored opportunities for promotion and positive performance appraisal as important determinants of employee satisfaction.

2.3.2.6 Personality

Personality is regarded the most important key factor for learning and academic achievement in the field of learning and education (Entwistle & Entwistle, 1970; De Raad & Schouwenburg, 1996;). A focus on the teacher's personality could be an effective means in identifying factors that influence their performance in supporting the achievement of education goals (Othman, 2009). Teachers' performance is unmistakably linked to their personality traits (Polk, 2006). According to Hill and Christian (2012), teachers are often categorised in terms of three basic domains, namely academic qualifications, relationship with learners, and personality traits. Eryilmaz (2014) believes that teachers should be humble, polite and friendly, serious, eager to teach, fond of their job, warm, cheerful, and well-balanced. Teachers should moreover hold creative and flexible viewpoints and display high levels of cognitive proficiency and creativity (Vidergor & Eliam, 2011). Some studies also place emphasis on conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, and extroverted personality traits in order to yield positive educational results (Goldstein & Benassi, 2006; Polk, 2006; Vidergor & Eliam, 2011). Finally, it appears that many personality psychologists have reached consensus that the five personality constructs identified by Hackman and Oldham (1976), as discussed in section 2.2.5

and also referred to as the Big Five, are necessary and sufficient to describe the basic dimensions of normal personality (Mount & Barrick, 1995).

2.4 CONCLUSION

The work conditions of teachers matter a great deal to them, and ultimately to their learners. Teachers are more satisfied and are prepared to stay longer in schools that have a positive work environment, independent of the school's learner demographic characteristics. Although a wide range of working conditions matters to teachers, the specific elements of the work environment that matter the most to teachers are not narrowly conceived "working conditions" such as clean and well-maintained facilities or access to modern instructional technology. It is instead the social conditions—the school's culture, the principal's leadership, and relationships among colleagues—that predominate in predicting teachers' job satisfaction and career plans. Bryk and his colleagues documented that improving social conditions involves building relational trust between teachers and school leaders and engaging teachers in co-constructing the social context of their work (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009). More importantly, providing a supportive context in which teachers can work appears to contribute to improved learner achievement.

Chapter 3 will give a detailed account of the research methods and design used in this study. It will also concentrate on the quantitative sampling techniques, population selection, research instrumentation, and data collection procedures. Data analysis, processing, and presentation will be outlined. The rationale for choosing a quantitative research methodology will be explored, followed by a discussion of validity and reliability as manifested in this research.

CHAPTER 3

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 presented the background to the study on the theories underpinning job satisfaction as well as the factors influencing job satisfaction for both LSEN and mainstream teachers. The existing body of evidence was closely examined. The observed theories and factors provided insight into what job satisfaction/job dissatisfaction entails and how it could be managed effectively.

Chapter 3 explains the research design in detail. The explanation includes the ethical considerations of the study, the hypotheses that were stated in relation to each research question, the research design, population and sampling, the instruments for data collection, validity and reliability, and methods of data analysis.

3.2 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Social research and other forms of research which study people and their relationships to each other and to the world, need to be particularly sensitive about matters pertaining to ethical behaviour (Walliman, 2005). In research, certain actions may be referred to as unethical and others as ethically acceptable. The following ethical measures were observed during the research:

3.2.1 Informed consent

Voluntary informed consent is a prerequisite for a subject's participation in research and is a vital step in any research project. It allows the participants the freedom and self-determination to choose whether they want to participate (Mengistu, 2012). The researcher has to explain all the required information to his/her prospective participants, including the right to confidentiality, the non-disclosure of information, the right to withdraw from the

research process at any time, and the benefits of the research. In this study the participants comprised LSEN teachers from all five LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa Education District. All the participants were informed about the purpose of the study and how their participation would unfold.

3.2.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

The researcher is responsible not only for ensuring the confidentiality of the protected information, but also for maintaining the confidentiality of information with regard to the privacy and dignity of the participants (Mengistu, 2012). This principle is integral to our societal beliefs that individuals matter and that individuals have the right to keep their affairs private (Wiles et al. 2006). Anonymity and confidentiality of participants are pivotal to ethical research practice in social research (Crow & Wiles, 2006). Accordingly, I assured the participants of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses, and the questionnaires were completed by the participants individually and anonymously. The only other person to peruse the questionnaires was my study supervisor.

3.2.3 Professional ethics

According to Creswell (2012), professional ethics refers to the moral commitment that scientists are required to make to acquire objective and accurate data about real phenomena. Hence this research was conducted in a professional manner for the following reasons:

- I endeavoured to be objective in reviewing literature and obtaining the data.
- I attempted to refrain from falsification and/or fabrication of data.
- I described the methodology used to obtain the data in detail.

3.2.4 Publishing ethics

According to Auricombe and Mouton (2007), one of the major ethical principles of scientific publication is that the researcher must acknowledge sources. In compliance to this principle, the following publishing ethics were observed:

- The work of all authors used in this study were acknowledged in a list of references.
- All other written work was free from plagiarism and flowed from my pen.

3.2.5 Accountability

The research and its results were conducted in an open and transparent manner by adhering to the following principles:

- Full permission from the Free State Department of Education was obtained to conduct the research at special schools in the Lejweleputswa Education district.
- The research results will be open and available to all interested parties and stakeholders.

3.2.6 Publication of results

The findings of the study will be introduced to the reading public in written form in order to be of value for current and future researchers (De Vos, 2005):

- The report written as a result of this investigation was written in a clear and unambiguous manner to ensure that whoever uses it, can rely on it.
- A shortened version of this research will be submitted as a journal article to an accredited publisher.

3.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The main question that guided the study was:

What is the level of job satisfaction amongst LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa Education district and which specific factors impact on their levels of job satisfaction?

On the basis of the main research question, the following specific research questions and hypotheses were stated:

Specific research question 1

What can we learn from literature that can broaden our understanding of job satisfaction of teachers in general, and job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in particular?

Specific research question 2

How satisfied or dissatisfied are LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa Education district with the following work factors?

- salary
- administrative support and management
- work characteristics
- interpersonal relations

Specific research question 3

Are there statistically significant differences between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications in the Lejweleputswa district, and certain work factors as identified above?

Subsequently the following hypotheses were stated:

- There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different *age groups*.
- There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different *teaching experience*.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different *qualifications*.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from the different *genders*.

Specific research question 4

Which strategies may be considered by school managers and education authorities to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers?

3.4 THE AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The following have been identified as the aims of the study, namely:

- to conduct a literature review on theories and models of job satisfaction with particular focus on teachers;
- to investigate the factors most frequently listed in literature which influence the job satisfaction levels of employees;
- to determine empirically, through quantitative means, the factors that influence the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers at LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa Education district;
- to determine quantitatively if different groups of LSEN teachers differ significantly in their views regarding their job satisfaction in terms of gender, age, teaching experience, and qualifications;
- to suggest strategies to school managers and education authorities on how the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in the Free State province can be enhanced.

3.5 THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Definitions of research design vary and authors tend to emphasise different aspects. For instance, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) define a research design as the plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analysing data. Firstly, this strategy helps to systematically address the central research problem and specific research questions, secondly to situate researchers in the context of the empirical world, and thirdly to connect them to specific sites, individuals/groups, and methods of data analysis. Mengistu (2012) sees the research design as a game plan for the study to identify all the components involved as well as the time frame and methods needed to make the study a success. It enables the researcher to draw valid conclusions and to answer the research question(s). Adams, Khan, Raeside and

White (2007) add that the design is a plan for achieving the research purposes and for solving the research problems. More specifically, it is the main guide that indicates the techniques and processes for gathering and examining the data. Furthermore, it illustrates whether the data are gathered in a way that is suitable for the questions asked (Adams et al., 2007). The *research methodology*, on the other hand, indicates the variables that are studied, the sampling procedures, the research context, the data-gathering approaches, and the data-examining techniques (Kalaian, 2008:724).

3.5.1 Research paradigm

A paradigm is the shared beliefs within a community of scholars or researchers who have consensus about which research questions are most meaningful, and which procedures are most appropriate for answering those questions (Gay et al., 2011; Creswell, 2012). McMillan & Schumacher (2010) define research paradigms as distinctive belief systems that influence how research questions are asked and answered, and which take a narrow approach by concentrating on one's world view about issues within the philosophy of knowledge construction. In view of this, Creswell (2012) declares that the researcher needs to understand the philosophical underpinnings that inform his/her choices of research questions, methodology, and methods and intentions in order to conduct clear, precise research and to evaluate others' research.

Different worldviews (paradigms) used in research are posed by different scholars. Creswell (2014) propose the postpositivist, constructivist, participatory and pragmatic worldview. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:35) distinguish between the normative, interpretive and critical paradigm, while Wiersma and Jurs (2009:10-11) identify the positivist, postpositivist, constructionist and transformative paradigms. In this study, a positivist paradigm informed the epistemological underpinning of the study.

Positivism

Positivists believe in a "real world" out there and posit that it can be studied in ways similar to studying physical sciences (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Positivists thus hold the

assumption that there are universal laws that govern social events, and they advocate the application of the natural science method of inquiry to study social realities (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). In similar vein, Punch and Oancea (2014:18) define positivism as “... the belief that objective accounts can be given, and that the function of science is to develop explanations in the form of universal laws, that is to develop nomothetic knowledge.”

Positivism is an epistemological position that believes in a factual world. Firstly, it assumes that the world is objective and independent of those who seek to understand it. This signifies that there exists clear separation between the knower (the subject) and the known (the object). Facts have to do with the objective world, whereas values and concerns involve the subjective which should not be allowed to interfere in the process of discovering facts in the natural or social world. Secondly, validity depends on observable and measurable phenomena and on different observers coming to the same conclusions about what they observe. Thirdly, the social world is not essentially different from the natural world. In both the social and natural world there is order and reason, patterns, and cause and effect (Gay et al., 2011).

Positivism is furthermore the underpinning paradigm for the quantitative research method. It relies on mathematical or statistical measurements of data collected. The quantitative approach usually answers questions related to what is happening in physical or in social phenomena (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Hence, research questions related to ‘how’ and ‘why’ events happen will not be answered using the quantitative approach; they would rather be explored by using the qualitative approach which is based on interpretivism/constructivism.

3.6.2 A quantitative approach

Research methods in the social sciences are often quantitative. A quantitative research approach involves the gathering of numerical data, such as average scores from different respondents on some types of behaviour or activity, or the calculation of percentages of people who exhibit a given behaviour or perform a certain task. The data can be presented in the form of graphs and tables (Goodwin, 2010). The current study employed a survey design which is a commonly used non-experimental research design used in the social sciences to gather information from a relatively small group of people taken from the population

(Kalaian, 2008). The study was also descriptive in the sense that average scores or correlations were used. It was moreover exploratory because research on the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers had not yet been conducted in the particular setting used in this study. Thus, the design was mainly a survey, but it was also descriptive and exploratory in nature.

3.6.3 The participants/sampling

The participants of the study were derived from all five LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa Education district. The sample constituted 120 participants and 94 questionnaires were retained. This turn-out (78%) is by all accounts regarded as very favourable. The following table presents a summary of the context of the participant schools:

Table 3.1: The context of participant schools

SCHOOL	DESCRIPTION	DISABILITY STATUS	NUMBER OF LEARNERS	STAFF COMPOSITION		
				Male	Female	Total
School A	Multiracial Ex-Model C	Medium Impaired Disability	399	11	21	32
School B	Multiracial Ex-Model C	Medium Impaired Disability	215	7	12	19
School C	Multiracial Ex-Model C	Medium Impaired Disability	303	7	21	28
School D	Multiracial Ex-Model C	Severe Impaired Disability	229	6	18	24
School E	Homogeneous Township (Disadvantaged)	Severe Impaired Disability	280	4	23	27

3.6.4. The data collection instrument

In order to use a questionnaire to retrieve data, permission was sought from the Department of Basic Education, Free State Province, including all participating school principals. The

questionnaire was adopted from Mengistu (2012) who conducted a study on the job satisfaction of secondary teachers in Ethiopia. The questionnaire was adapted to answer the research questions of the present study and to address the specific needs of the teachers.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections, i.e. sections A, B and C. Section A covered the demographic information of the respondents. Section B interrogated the general job satisfaction levels of participants with regard to the variables below, as identified in the theoretical overview of literature as reported in Chapter 2:

- salaries
- administrative support and management
- working conditions
- interpersonal relations

The items had to be answered on a four-grade Likert scale offering the following choices:

1= Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Agree

4 = Strongly agree

The questions were designed to save time and also to gain a better understanding of how LSEN teachers experienced the different aspects impacting on their levels of satisfaction. Section C was descriptive in nature, comprising three open-ended questions which added a more enriched and comprehensive dimension to the closed items in section B.

The distribution of items are provided in the table on the next page.

Table 3.2: A distribution of items in terms of the grouping

GROUP OF ITEMS	DESCRIPTION	TOTAL
Salary and benefits		
Items 8 -11	Comparison	4 items
Items 12-13	Expectations	2 items
Items 14-15	Satisfaction	2 items
	TOTAL	8 ITEMS
Management		
Items 16, 19, 21, 22, 23, 28	Administrative support	6 items
Items 17, 18, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 38	School management and leadership	12 items
Items 20, 21, 39, 40, 69, 70	Recognition	6 items
	TOTAL	24 Items
Working conditions		
Q43-45	Workload	3 items
Q26, 27, 46, 47, 51, 53, 54, 56, 63, 66	Work itself	10 items
Q48, 49, 52, 55, 57	Responsibility	4 items
	TOTAL	17 ITEMS
Interpersonal relationships		
33, 35, 58	Teacher-principal relations	3 items
36, 37, 59, 64, 65, 68	Teacher-learner relations	6 items
42, 61, 63, 67, 71	Teacher-colleague relations	5 items
41, 60, 73	Teacher-parent relations	3 items
	TOTAL	17 ITEMS

In section C the following three open-ended questions were asked:

1. Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that give you the most satisfaction.
2. Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that dissatisfy you the most.
3. Which strategies would you recommend to the education authorities and stakeholders to improve the job satisfaction of teachers at schools for Learners with Special Educational Needs?

3.6.5 Data collection procedure

It is important to note that thorough planning and preparation of questionnaires are essential for the questionnaire to elicit the required information. Permission for the research was sought from the Free State Department of Education (Annexure A), the participating school principals (Annexure B) and participant teachers (Annexure C). Once permission was granted, a suitable date and time to gather the data were arranged. All the questionnaires were distributed to the relevant schools and the teachers completed the questionnaires after hours.

The information in the questionnaires was clear and to the point (Addendum D). A brief introduction provided participants with a short background which explained the aim of the research, viz. investigating the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers. Clear instructions stipulated the procedure to be followed when completing the questionnaires. The participants were moreover assured of their anonymity in completing the questionnaires and the confidentiality of the information to be provided. The last part of the questionnaire (Section C) required the participants to provide in their own words their honest/candid opinions with regard to their work experiences. This section was included solely for the purpose of confirming the most important findings of the quantitative part of the questionnaire. Participants were not required to provide information-rich answers, and for this reason the data provided in Section C was not regarded as typical in-depth qualitative data. The respondents were also provided with the contact number of the study supervisor in case they had any discomfort about any of the questions of the questionnaire.

3.6.6 Reliability and validity

As I attempted to quantify constructs which are not directly measurable, I opted to use a Likert-type scale to gather the information. The invention of the Likert scale during 1931 is attributed to Rensis Likert who described this technique for the assessment of attitudes (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). To ensure that the research data are valuable and useful, it should be both reliable and valid. It should be mentioned that in order for data to be classified as valid, it must also be reliable. Reliability is a precondition for validity (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009).

3.6.6.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency, dependability and replicability of the measuring instrument over time, while utilising the same respondents (Cohan et al., 2007). The Cronbach alpha was used as the reliability coefficient for the Likert type scales which measured the internal consistency reliability of the research instrument. A Cronbach alpha coefficient (see Chapter 4) was calculated on each of the constructs (items) in the questionnaire to confirm their reliability in the local context. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. In this study, the Cronbach alpha for the questionnaire was 0.96 which indicates a very high level (96%) of internal consistency for the Likert type questions.

3.6.6.2 Validity

Validity is the extent to which the measuring instrument (e.g. a questionnaire) essentially measures the characteristic or dimension which is intended to be measured (Leedy & Ormrod, 2017). Validity ensures that the research instrument indeed measures what is intended to be measured. Reports of validity and reliability estimates are therefore necessary to determine the adequacy of the scales' psychometric properties.

Mengistu (2012) asserts that the issue of validity is the most important concept that researchers are required to critically deal with. According to him, the design of the measuring instrument must be valid so that the collected data will lead to sound conclusions. In support of this, Cohen et al. (2007) emphasise that research is worthless if it is invalid (as a result of a poor instrument). The question of validity bears on three points: the test, the purpose of the test and the population for whom it is intended. Therefore, a general question such as, "Is this a valid test?" is inappropriate; it should rather be, "How valid is this test for the decision that I need to make?", or "How valid is the interpretation I propose for the test?" For this reason, the types of validity may either be logical (content validity) or empirical (face validity) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2017).

Cohen et al. (2007) postulates that *content validity* is a form of validity that refers to the extent to which the measuring instrument (e.g. test, questionnaire or inventory) shows that it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover. To this Mengistu (2012) adds that content validity is concerned with the degree to which the designed questionnaire items fairly and accurately represent the main variables. In this study the dependent variables included salary, management, working conditions and interpersonal relationships. Both my supervisor and I judged the validity of the questionnaire. Since the questionnaire was adopted from Mengistu (2012), no need arose for factor analysis to statistically justify content validity.

Face validity refers to the appearance of the test items. It is about whether the measuring instrument (test) appears, at face value on the surface, to test what is intended to be tested (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003). Mengistu (2012) confirms that face validity cannot be checked using statistical significance tests because it is based on subjective judgment. I regarded the face validity of the questionnaire as high. This was also confirmed by my supervisor.

3.6.7 Data-analysis

3.6.7.1. Descriptive analysis

As a first step in analysing the data, descriptive statistics have been calculated to summarise the characteristics of the data (O'Neil, 2009). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations through mathematical formulas. The most popular measurements that are used in descriptive statistics are frequency distribution, measures of central tendency and dispersion (Gabrenya, 2003). Descriptive statistics include the number of respondents per group (N), the mean or average score per groups, the standard deviation, standard error of the mean, and the minimum and maximum scores (O'Neil, 2009).

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample in terms of the demographic variables. It also answered the specific research question that set out to determine how satisfied or

dissatisfied LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district were with work factors such as salaries, administrative support and management, working conditions and interpersonal relations.

3.6.7.2 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The hypotheses formulated in this study were tested by means of a *univariate analysis of variance* (ANOVA). As indicated by the acronym, the ANOVA looks at the variances (or differences in variances) between different groups. If differences exist, we assume that there are differences somewhere between the means of different groups (O'Neil, 2009).

With a t-test the researcher wants to state with some degree of confidence that the obtained differences between the means of the sample groups are too great to be a chance event and that some difference also exist in the population from which the sample was drawn (Siegle, 2012). This confidence level is referred to as the Alpha level which is used to test the mean difference (how confident the researcher is that there is a mean difference). A larger Alpha level requires fewer differences between the means. It is much harder to find differences between groups when one is prepared to only have results occur by a chance of 1 out of a 100 times ($p < .01$), compared to 5 out of 100 times ($p < .05$). One can also assume that it is unlikely that the results occurred by chance and the difference that is found in the sample probably exists in the populations from which it was drawn (Field, 2012).

The level of significance was set at a numerical value as a result of the t-test computation of 0.05. The rationale for the level of significance was to assume whether the hypotheses could be either accepted or rejected. Thus, if the results of none or one of the groups were above 0.05, the hypothesis was not accepted; if the results for both of the groups were below 0.05, the hypothesis was accepted.

General assumptions for all ANOVA designs are also tested and reported in Chapter 4. These assumptions provide for observations to be independent of each other; scores in populations to be normally distributed; and variances in population to be homogeneous (Fausset, Rodgers & Fisk, 2009).

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the general research design, including the research paradigm, the approach followed, and the non-experimental strategy of inquiry. A detailed description of the sampling techniques, data collection procedures, and data analysis were provided. Chapter 4 will present the results of the study and relevant findings will be interpreted against the theoretical framework as discussed in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3 the research design was discussed. This included the types of variables, the research questions with their related hypotheses, the data-collection instrument, the methods of data-analysis, and the ethical considerations of the study. The study aimed to investigate factors influencing the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers and ascertain to which extent these factors impacted on their job satisfaction. The correlation between job satisfaction and several job-related factors was also determined by means of a theoretical overview as reported in Chapter 2. Subsequently, the study examined whether statistically significant variances existed between the job satisfaction of teachers in terms of their different genders, different levels of qualifications, their teaching experience and the different age groups. The results are reported in Chapter 4.

The main research question that guided the study was:

What is the level of job satisfaction amongst LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district and which specific factors impact their levels of job satisfaction?

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the main research question, the following specific research questions and hypotheses were formulated:

Specific research question 1

What can we learn from the literature that can broaden our understanding of job satisfaction in general, and job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in particular?

Specific research question 2

How satisfied or dissatisfied are LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district with regard to the following work factors?

- salary
- administrative support and management
- work characteristics
- interpersonal relations

Specific research question 3

Are there statistically significant differences in the levels of job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications in the Lejweleputswa district in relation to certain work factors as identified?

Based on the interaction between the most reported dependent and independent variables as presented in the literature (Chapter 2), hypotheses were stated with the following variables in mind:

Table 4.1: Hypotheses

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES (IV)	DEPENDENT VARIABLES (DV)
Hypothesis 3.1: AGE	
There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different <i>age groups</i> .	<p>Hypothesis 3.1.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different <i>age groups</i> in terms of <i>salary</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.1.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different <i>age groups</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics (work load)</i>.</p>
Hypothesis 3.2: TEACHING EXPERIENCE	
There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experience</i> .	Hypothesis 3.2.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experience</i> in terms of <i>salary</i> .

(continued on next page)

Table 4.1 (continued)

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES (IV)	DEPENDENT VARIABLES (DV)
	<p>Hypothesis 3.2.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experience</i> in terms of <i>administrative support and the management style of the principal.</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 3.2.3: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experience</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics.</i></p>
Hypothesis 3.3: QUALIFICATIONS	
<p>There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>qualifications.</i></p>	<p>Hypothesis 3.3.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>qualifications</i> in terms of their <i>salaries.</i></p>
Hypothesis 3.4: GENDER	
<p>There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from the different <i>genders.</i></p>	<p>Hypothesis 3.4.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>salaries.</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.2: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics.</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.3: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>management style.</i></p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.4: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>interpersonal relationships.</i></p>

Specific research question 4

Which strategies may be considered by school managers and education authorities to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers?

This chapter presents the results and a discussion of the results in order to answer the above-mentioned questions. The results are based on the data that were collected using a

quantitative questionnaire which included three open-ended questions as the last part of the instrument.

The biographical data of the participants will be provided in the first section of this chapter. The next section presents the results of the quantitative phase of the study. In this section, the results from the quantitative data are presented in tables and figures and discussed accordingly. Thereafter the findings from the open-ended items in the questionnaire are presented. All the above-mentioned findings are finally interpreted and discussed.

4.3 VARIABLES

A variable is a characteristic property or attribute of a concept that takes on different values. Such variables have numbers, values or symbols assigned to them, and may either be dependent or independent (Ross, 2005). In research, variables are classified as either independent or dependent.

4.3.1 Independent variables (IV)

An independent variable (or variables) is the variable that is manipulated by the researcher. It is thought to influence other variables in a particular study, and predictions can be formulated based on it/them (Tirivangana, 2013).

For the purpose of this study, the following independent variables were identified:

- Gender of respondents
- Age of respondents
- Experience of respondents
- Qualifications of respondents

4.3.2 Dependent variables (DV)

The dependent variable(s) in a study is the reputed effect which varies concomitantly with changes or variation in the independent variable(s) (Bryman & Liao, 2004). Dependent variables are not manipulated by the researcher, and as a result predictions can also be made about them. In this study, the dependent variables were salary, administrative support and management style of principals, work characteristics, and interpersonal relationships.

4.4 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The biographical data of the respondents are summarised in Table 4.2 below. In the figures that follow, a graphical representation of each Independent Variable (gender, age, experience and qualifications of respondents) is offered.

Table 4.2: The biographical data of the teachers (frequency analysis)

VARIABLE	F	%
Gender		
Male	20	21.7
Female	72	78.2
Total	92	100
Age		
21-29	11	12.0
30-39	19	20.7
40-49	22	23.8
50+	40	43.5
Total	92	100
Teaching experience		
5 or less	12	13.1
6-10	16	17.4
11-15	14	15.2
16-20	10	10.8
21 and more	40	43.5
Total	92	100

From Table 4.2 it is evident that the population was mainly composed of female teachers. As illustrated above, from a total of 92 teachers, females comprised 78% (N=72) and males made up the rest (N=20; 21.7%). This is also displayed in figure 4.1 on the next page.

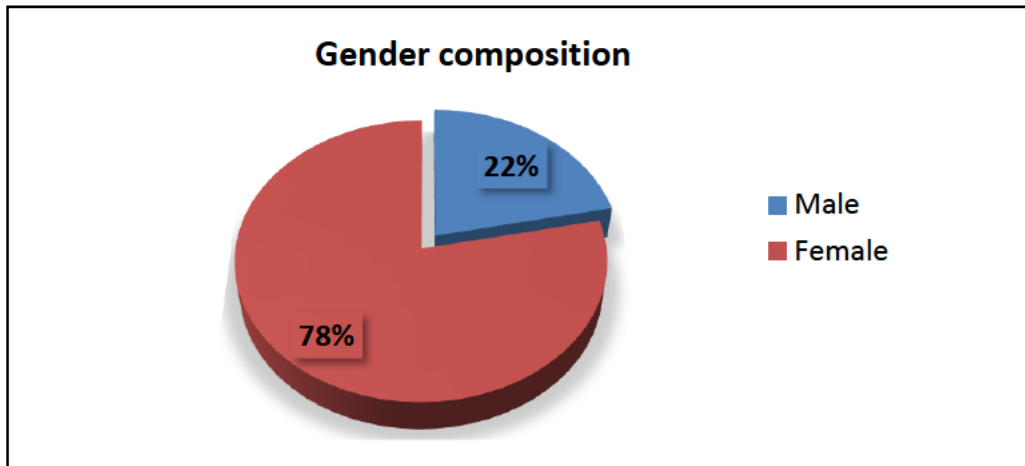


Figure 4.1: Gender composition of sample (N=92)

The frequency distribution of the respondents by age shows that the largest group (N=40; 43.3%) were in the age category 50+. This category also denotes the oldest age group. The respondents who belonged to the age category 40 to 49 years constituted the second largest group of respondents (N=22; 23.8%). The respondents who were younger than 40 years constituted 20.7% of the sample, while 12.0% of the sample belonged to the 21 to 29 year age group.

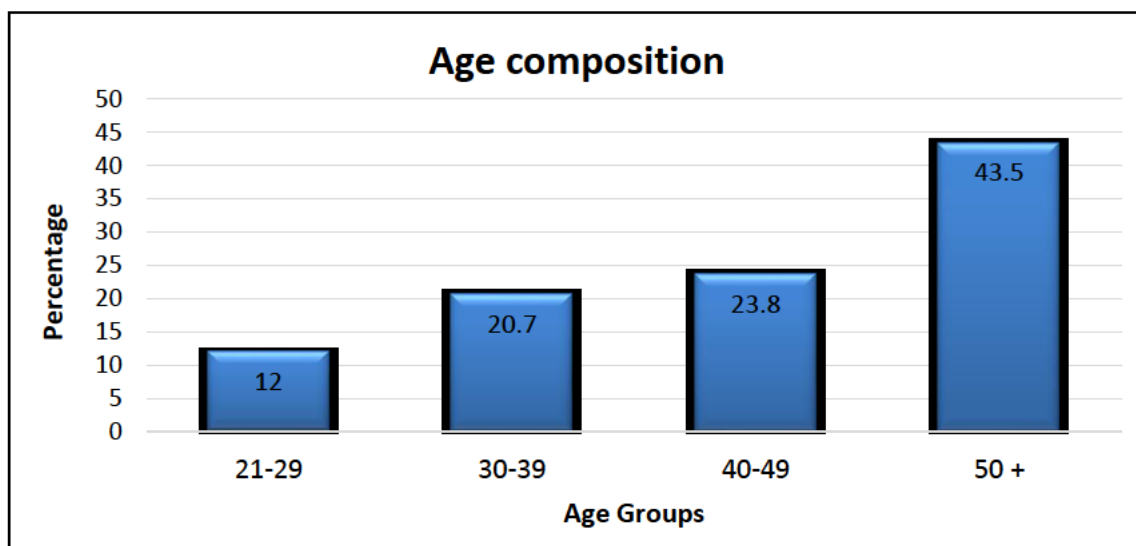


Figure 4.2: Age composition of sample (N=92)

Table 4.2 also indicates that the largest group (N=40; 43.5%) of the respondents had 21 or more years' experience as a teacher, while 10.8% (N=10) had between 16 to 20 years'

experience. Hence, slightly more than half of the respondents (N=50; 54.3%) were quite experienced. The other groups were fairly equally represented in terms of their teaching experience (See figure 4.3 below).

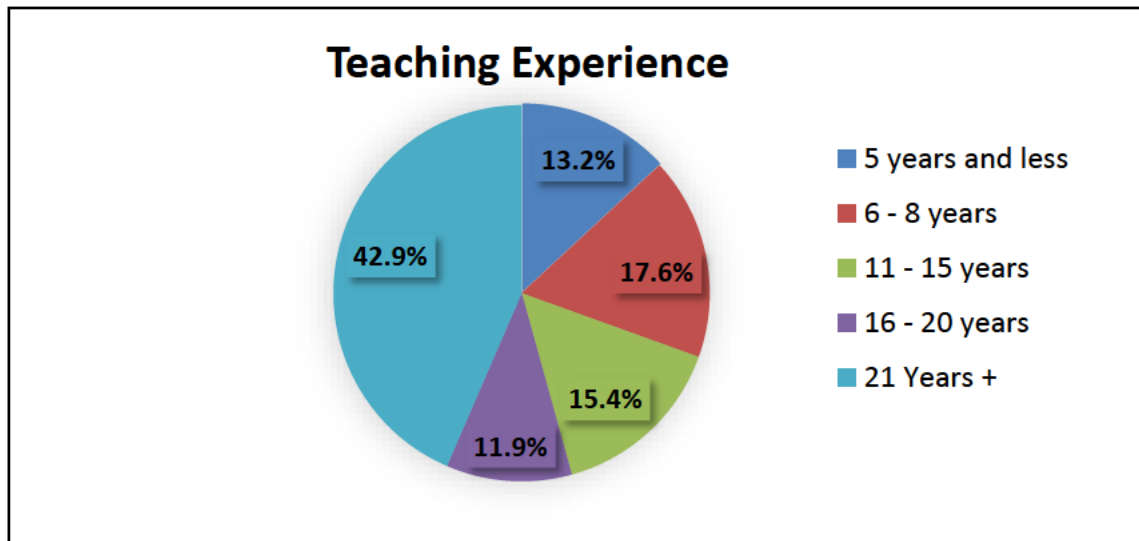


Figure 4.3: Teaching experience of teachers (N=92)

The highest academic qualification of the respondents, as displayed in figure 4.4, was either a bachelor’s degree (N=45; 48.8%) or an education diploma (N=34, 37.0%). Only 2 (2.2%) of the respondents held masters’ degrees. This result shows that, on average, the majority of the respondents were adequately qualified (85.8%) which is consistent with the South African education system that requires of teachers to have at least a relevant four year qualification.

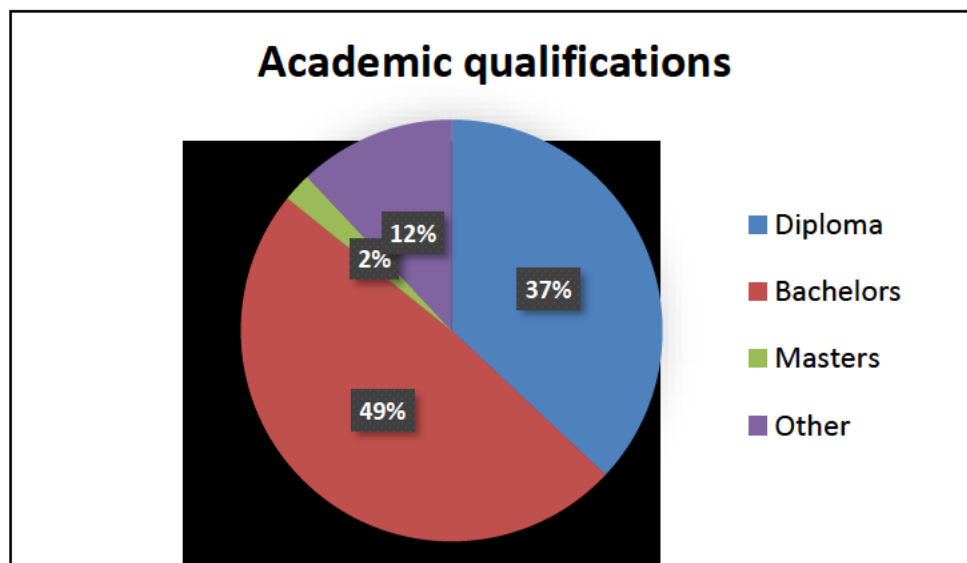


Figure 4.4: Teachers' teaching qualification verification (N=92)

4.5 RESULTS OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

(Specific research question 1 relates to the theoretical component of the study and the results are summarised in Chapter 5).

For **specific research question 2**, to facilitate clarity of interpretation, the four questionnaire response categories (Strongly disagree=1; Disagree=2; Agree=3; Strongly agree=4) were divided into two categories, namely dissatisfied (categories 1 and 2) and satisfied (categories 3 and 4) of the Likert scale items.

4.5.1 Specific research question 2

How satisfied or dissatisfied are LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district with regard to the following **work factors**?

- salary
- administrative support and management
- work characteristics
- interpersonal relations

An analysis of each of the four factors follows. Table 4.3 on the next page shows the mean satisfaction ratings of the four “work” factors, standard deviations, and the average percentages for satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Table 4.3: The teachers' mean satisfaction rating of the work factors (N=92)

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS							
Factors	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Satisfied %	Dis-satisfied %
Salary rating index	89	8	32	17.10	5.368	35	65
Management style rating index	82	39	80	62.09	8.756	73	27
Work characteristics rating index	88	39	71	54.45	7.004	88	12
Interpersonal relationships rating index	86	31	70	51.91	6.977	74	26

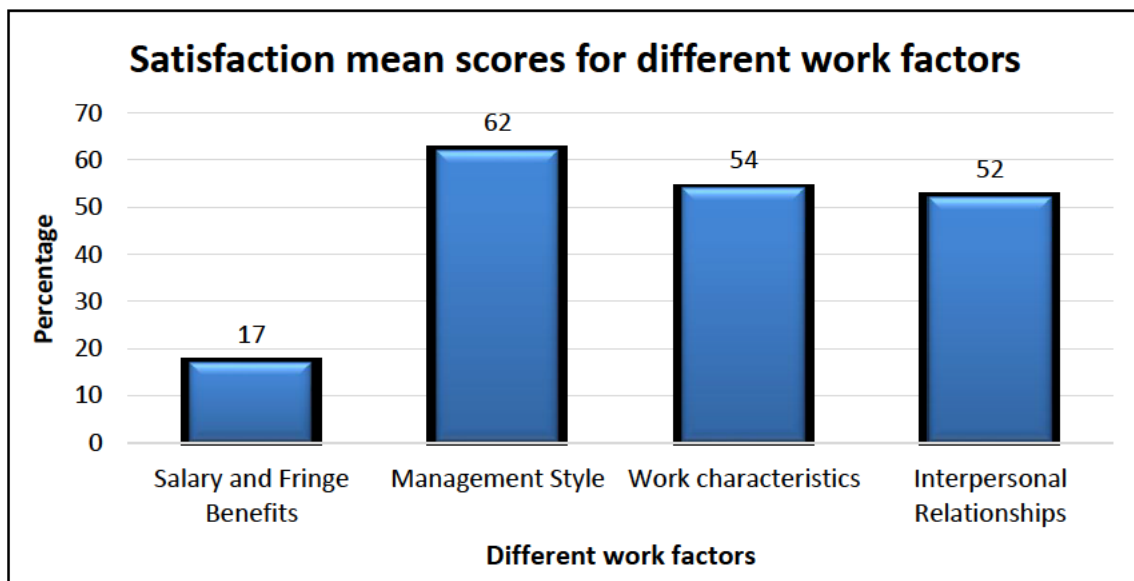


Figure 4.5: Satisfaction mean scores for the different work factors (N=92)

Firstly, the descriptive statistics compared the mean scores of satisfaction on the different work factors. As evident from figure 4.5, LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district were the most satisfied with the management style of their principals as a work factor (62%), and least satisfied with their salaries (17%). The mean value of this factor was 17.10, a value obtained by aggregating the mean values of each of the statements and then dividing this

value by the total number of items constituting the factor “salary” - in this case 8 items). On a scale of 1 = Strongly disagree/Dissatisfied to 4 = Strongly agree/Satisfied, the results in Table 4.3 show that the respondents generally disagreed with all of the eight statements.

Table 4.3 also shows the mean satisfaction rating of the *management* factor. This aspect focused on administrative support, school management and leadership, and recognition. The mean value of this factor was 62.09. This is the highest mean of all the factors, indicating that this aspect of their work was the most satisfying for respondents. *Work characteristics* encompassed workload, the nature of the work and responsibility.

A mean of 54.45, as illustrated by Table 4.3, indicates that teachers were also quite satisfied with this aspect of their work. Table 4.3 further indicates the mean satisfaction rating of the *interpersonal relationships* factor as 51.91, implying that the teachers were also above average satisfied with their interpersonal relationships within the school setting. This factor included the relationship of teachers with their principals, colleagues, learners and parents.

Finally, Table 4.3 illustrates that, in rank order, the percentage of teachers who expressed their disagreement with the factor *salary* accounted for 65%, while those who indicated satisfaction accounted for 35% of the sample; for the factor *management*, 73% was satisfied with this aspect of their work; and for *work characteristics*, a substantially higher figure of 88% expressed their satisfaction. The levels of satisfaction for their relationships with the principal, colleagues, learners, and parents were also consistent with the previous two factors; 74% of the teachers expressed their satisfaction with this aspect of their work, while only 26% experienced dissatisfaction with interpersonal relations items.

In the following sections the teachers’ responses on the individual items of the questionnaire are presented.

4.5.1.1 Factor 1: Salaries

The frequencies, percentages and means of the teachers' responses indicate whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied with their salaries (Table 4.4). The salary factor was sub-divided into comparison (perceived salary competitiveness), expectation (expected remuneration) and satisfaction (status of income requirements with regard to salary earned) for clarification purposes. The comparison component described the respondents' opinion regarding the salary received compared to their qualifications, workload, experience and other professional jobs. The expectation component entailed the expectation of the respondents in terms of a salary increase as well as their work efforts in relation to their salaries. The last component refers to satisfaction and covers the respondents' opinion of satisfaction with the salary per se, but also whether the salary covered all their basic needs. The salary factor represented question(s) eight to fifteen in the questionnaire.

Figure 4.6 below graphically displays the overall satisfaction levels of teachers with regard to their salaries.

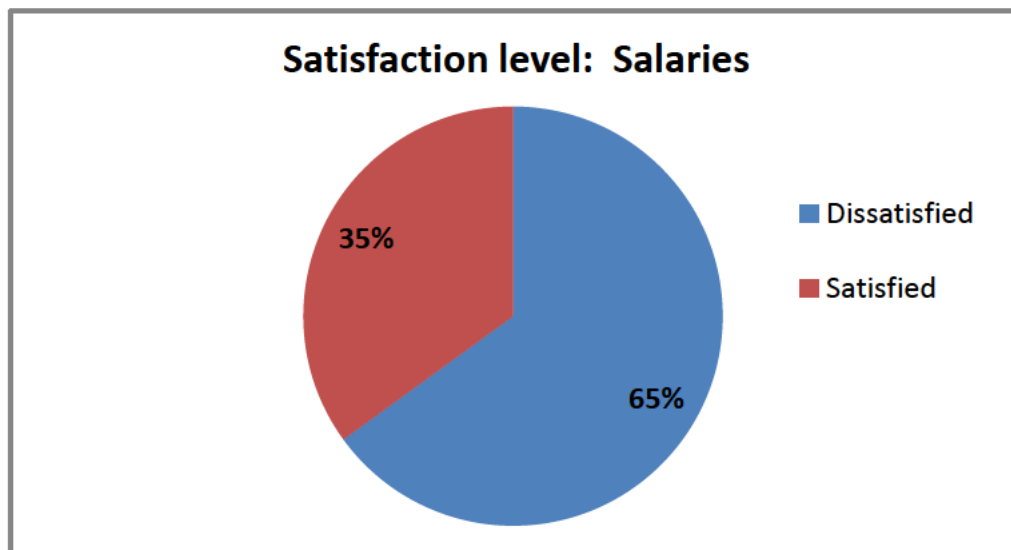


Figure 4.6: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to salaries (N=92)

In Table 4.4 on the next page each sub-factor of salaries with its accompanying statement are listed.

Table 4.4: The teachers' views on their salaries

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
<i>Comparison – perceived salary competitiveness</i>	68.9	31.1	4	16	2.10	0.798
My salary compares well with my qualification(s)	68.1	31.9	1	4	2.18	0.754
My salary compares well with my workload	62.6	37.4	1	4	2.22	0.814
My salary is appropriate for my experience	67.0	33.0	1	4	2.12	0.814
I earn well in comparison to other professional jobs	77.8	22.2	1	4	1.87	0.810
<i>Expectation – expected remuneration</i>	58.3	41.7	2	8	2.28	0.800
I have good expectations for a salary increase	44.4	55.6	1	4	2.49	0.811
My salary is equal to the effort I put into my job	72.2	27.8	1	4	2.07	0.790
<i>Satisfaction - status of income requirements with regard to salary earned</i>	63.9	36.1	2	8	2.11	0.873
My salary covers all my basic needs	60.0	40.0	1	4	2.13	0.889
I am satisfied with my salary	67.8	32.2	1	4	2.09	0.856
TOTAL	65	35	8	32	17.10	5.368

(4 Point Likert scale: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly agree)

The results in Table 4.4 show that the respondents disagreed with all of the 8 statements. Given this, the data tended to reflect a pattern of teacher discontent as far as salary is concerned. In addition, a variable mean of 2.10 for *comparison* indicates that the teachers were very dissatisfied with this aspect of their work. The highest area of dissatisfaction or disagreement had to do with the comparison between their salaries and remuneration in other professional jobs. Additional areas of discontent related to whether their salary compared well with their qualification(s), whether it was appropriate for their experience, and whether the monthly salary they received compared favourably with their workload (68.9%). Seventy-eight percent of the respondents expressed their disagreement with the statement “I earn well in comparison to other professional jobs”, and 68% of the respondents

expressed their disagreement with the statement “My salary compares well with my qualification”.

Table 4.4 further shows the frequencies, percentages, and the means of each of the teachers’ responses to the two statements that focussed on the *expectation* variable. A variable mean of 2.28 indicates that the teachers were dissatisfied with the expectations related to their salaries. More than 70% of the respondents reported their disagreement with the statement that their salary was equal to the effort they put into their jobs. However, more than 50% (55.6%) believed that they had good expectations for a salary increase.

Figure 4.7 displays the salary factor in terms of comparison, expectation and satisfaction.

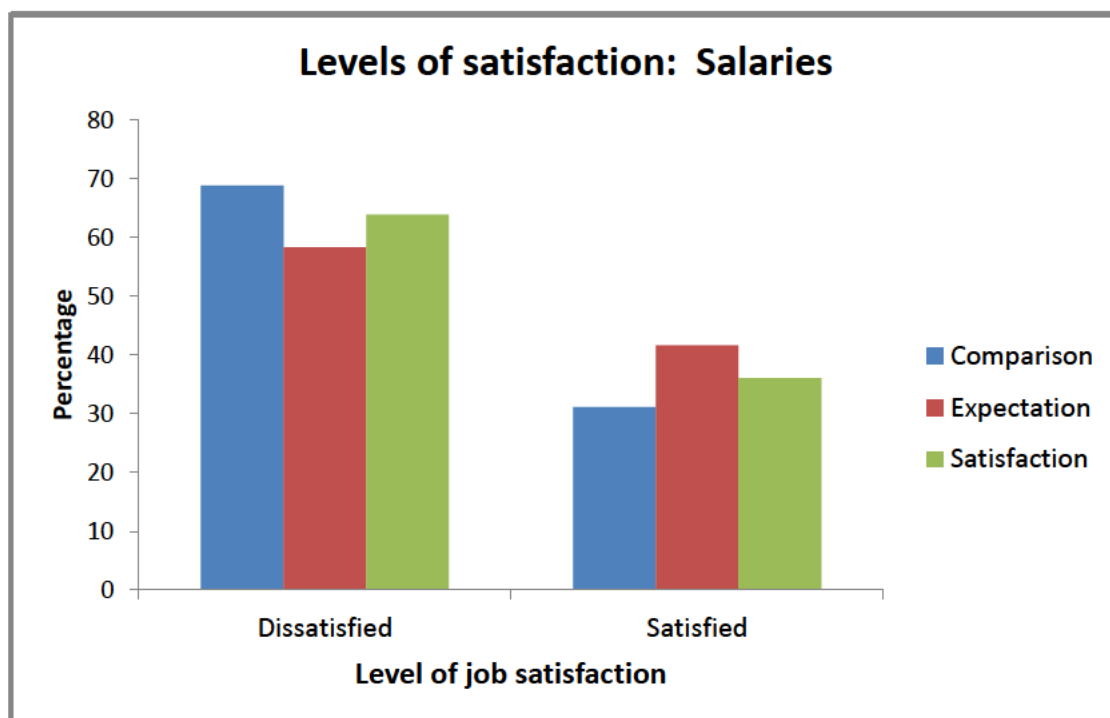


Figure 4.7: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to salaries breakdown (N=92)

Unsurprisingly, the findings on teachers’ discontent with their salaries are in accordance with the literature findings as reported in section 2.3.1.2. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) maintain that in their review of literature in the field, they were unable to find a single study where teachers indicated contentment with their remuneration. This factor, more than any other, appears to be a key factor undermining teacher morale and motivation.

4.5.1.2 Factor 2: Administrative support, management and recognition

Factor 2 included the variables *administrative support, school management and leadership,* and the *recognition* teachers received (Table 4.5). Figure 4.8 displays the overall levels of satisfaction of teachers in this regard. Overall, almost 73% of teachers expressed satisfaction with this work factor.

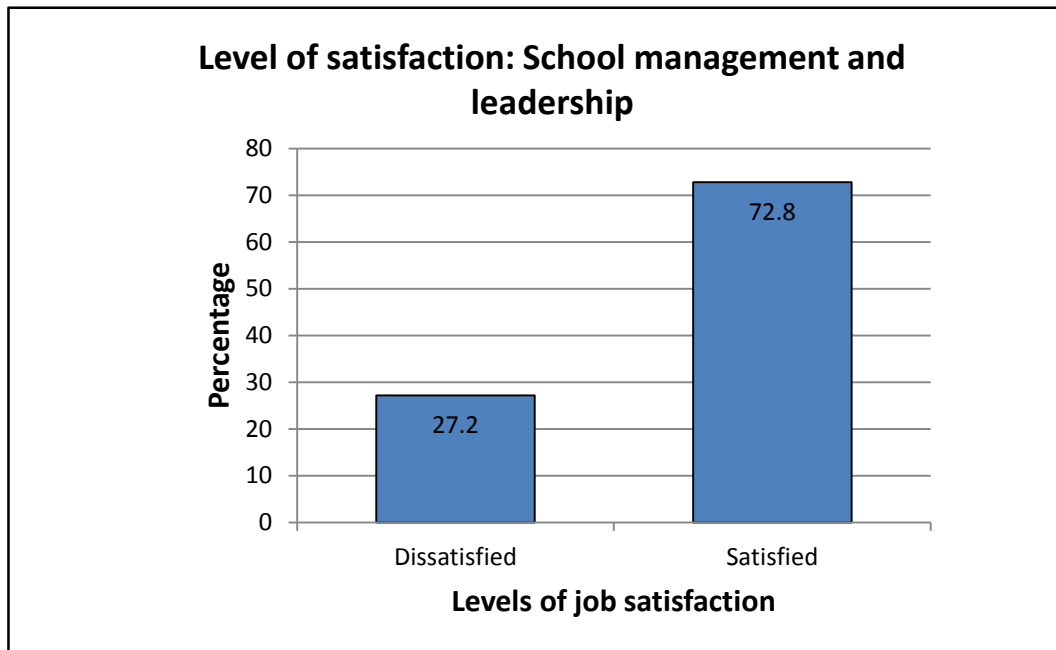


Figure 4.8: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to school management and leadership (N=92)

Table 4.5: The teachers' views on administrative support, management and recognition

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
(1) Administrative support	26.6	73.4	6	24	2.80	0.662
The quality of in-service training at my school (to teach learners with special needs) is good	20.0	80.0	1	4	2.88	0.700
I am happy with the way teachers are evaluated at my school	22.2	77.8	1	4	2.83	0.585
I am satisfied with the administrative support at my school	18.2	81.8	1	4	2.93	0.583
I have enough instructional materials available to teach my learners	41.1	58.9	1	4	2.59	0.777
I have suitable instructional materials for my learners according to their special needs and academic levels	45.6	54.4	1	4	2.56	0.795
School administration supports good teacher-learner relationships	12.2	87.8	1	4	2.99	0.530
(2) School management and leadership	32.4	67.6	11	44	2.77	0.690
I have many opportunities for professional advancement	52.2	47.8	1	4	2.49	0.738
I have opportunities for promotion	61.1	38.9	1	4	2.29	0.738
I am satisfied with the curriculum support we get from the Department of Education	72.2	27.8	1	4	2.03	0.726
Learners at my school are developed optimally and benefit from the instruction they receive at the school	30.0	70.0	1	4	2.73	0.700
I get enough support with learner disciplinary problems	22.2	77.8	1	4	2.83	0.658
I am satisfied with our school policies	12.4	87.6	1	4	3.02	0.522
I am happy with how decisions are made at my school	38.9	61.1	1	4	2.63	0.710
I am pleased with the leadership style of the school principal	23.6	76.4	1	4	2.98	0.768
I am satisfied with the teacher management system of the school	23.3	76.7	1	4	2.89	0.661
My school principal is competent	11.5	88.5	1	4	3.23	0.710
My school principal does his/her best toward fulfilling the school's mission/goal	8.9	91.1	1	4	3.3	0.661

(continued on next page)

Table 4.5 (continued)

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
(3) Recognition	22.6	77.4	5	20	2.92	0.666
My job provides me with an opportunity to achieve professionally	27.8	72.2	1	4	2.8	0.565
My school principal focuses his/her attention on identifying my strengths	25.6	74.4	1	4	3.0	0.833
In my school I am recognised for a job well done	21.1	78.9	1	4	3.0	0.726
I am satisfied with the feedback I get from learners	26.9	73.1	1	4	2.8	0.661
The relationships with colleagues enhance my teaching	11.4	88.6	1	4	3.1	0.542
TOTAL	27.2	72.8	39	80	62.09	8.756

(4 Point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree)

Table 4.5 (1) first presents the teachers’ views on the six statements constituting the *administrative support* variable. When looking at the percentages from this section of the table, it is evident that most of the respondents were generally satisfied with the school administration practices. The variable mean of 2.80 also confirms their positive views in this regard.

According to Table 4.5 (2) respondents were largely satisfied (with a variable mean of 2.77) with the way in which their schools are managed, with the exception of (1) opportunities for professional advancement, (2) opportunities for promotion and (3) the curriculum support they received. This is well-illustrated by the following findings: slightly more than half of the teachers (52.2%) expressed their dissatisfaction with opportunities provided for professional advancement and opportunities for promotion respectively (61.1%); the majority (72.2%) were very dissatisfied with the curriculum support they received from the Department of Basic Education – the mean of 2.03 affirms their discontent. These findings concur with the view of Chen et al. (2006) that job satisfaction will be significantly compromised when opportunities to progress to a higher level in line with a fair promotion system are not in place (2.3.1.3).

As far as management and leadership are concerned, the findings are promising and somewhat unexpected. Various researchers established a negative correlation between school management and leadership, and job satisfaction of teachers (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009; Mengistu, 2012; Kinyua, 2011; Waters et al., 2003). As mentioned in Chapter 2, if current operational systems and structures to manage and support teachers are dysfunctional, teachers are likely to lose their sense of professional responsibility and commitment (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). The high satisfaction levels of participants in this regard correspond with the statement of Waters et al. (2003) who maintain that positive school leadership aimed at building a sense of community amongst staff, will in all likelihood be rewarded with satisfied, emotionally healthy teachers that would work to contribute to the benefit of the school (see 2.3.1.1).

Table 4.5 (3) finally indicates that most of the respondents were satisfied with each of the five statements in relation to the *recognition* variable. This was also evident from the variable mean of 2.92, a value denoting slightly below average satisfaction on a scale of 1 = Strongly disagree/Dissatisfied to 4 = Strongly agree/Satisfied. Importantly, almost 90% of the respondents were satisfied with their relationships with colleagues, which enhanced their teaching.

4.5.1.3 Factor 3: Work characteristics

The factor *work characteristics* is explained in Table 4.6 and included workload, the work itself and participants' responsibilities at work.

Table 4.6: The teachers' view on work characteristics

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
Workload	11.7	88.3	2	8	3.0	0.530
I am satisfied with my workload within my department	14.4	85.6	1	4	2.9	0.515
The demands of my job are fair	8.9	91.1	1	4	3.1	0.545

(continued on next page)

Table 4.6 (continued)

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
Work itself	14	86	9	36	3.0	0.510
Our school has good security	37.1	62.9	1	4	2.6	0.737
I have enough time to participate in social activities	10.0	90.0	1	4	3.1	0.542
I am happy with the type of work I do as a teacher	10.0	90.0	1	4	3.1	0.589
I get intellectual rewards from teaching learners with special needs	24.4	75.6	1	4	2.9	0.750
I believe my teaching develops the learners	3.3	96.7	1	4	3.3	0.537
I am satisfied with the amount of freedom I have in decision-making	20.0	80.0	1	4	3.1	0.747
I am pleased with my teaching responsibilities	4.4	95.6	1	4	3.2	0.508
I am happy with my work hours	5.6	94.4	1	4	3.2	0.510
I am happy with how I handle learner discipline	11.2	88.8	1	4	3.1	0.539
Responsibility	9.1	90.9	11	44	2.77	0.690
I have opportunities for personal development	12.4	87.6	1	4	3.1	0.551
I am adequately qualified to deal with learners with special needs	10.0	90.0	1	4	3.2	0.598
I have the opportunity to use my skills at school	6.7	93.3	1	4	3.3	0.572
I get pleasure from teaching learners with special needs	4.4	95.6	1	4	3.3	0.600
I am satisfied with my responsibility to solve school-related problems	16.7	83.3	1	4	3.0	0.652
I am satisfied with my school responsibilities after class hours	4.4	95.6	1	4	3.2	0.520
TOTAL	11.6	88.4	39	71	54.45	7.004

(4 Point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree)

Figure 4.9 below graphically depicts the level of overall satisfaction of teachers with this factor. It is evident that the majority of teachers were satisfied.



Figure 4.9: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to work characteristics summary (N=92)

Table 4.6 confirms that almost 90% of the respondents were satisfied with their work circumstances. At 3.0, the mean variable substantiates the results for workload, 3.0 for the work itself and 2.77 for responsibility variables. Teachers felt that the demands of their job were fair (91.1%), that their teaching developed learners (96.7%), and that they derived pleasure from teaching learners with special needs (95.6%). This finding is in contrast with the research of Mengistu (2012) who reported alarmingly high levels of dissatisfaction with the working conditions (work load and responsibilities) of their sample.

With a mean of 2.6, almost 40% of teachers (371%) felt dissatisfied with the statement “Our school has good security”.

Figure 4.10 on the next page outlines the individual variables of the work characteristics.

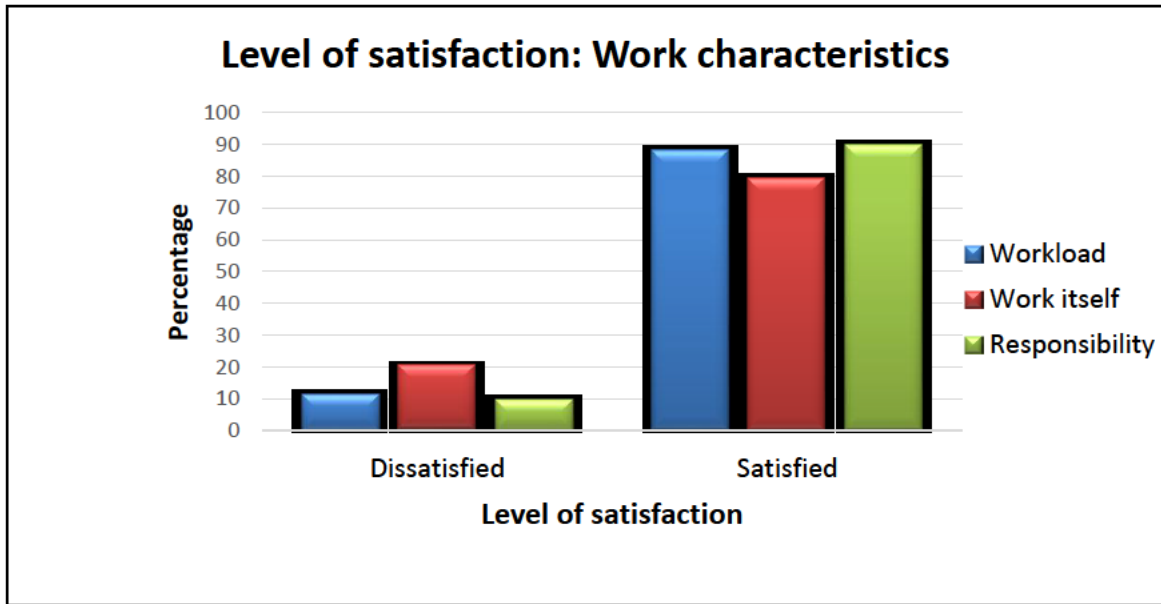


Figure 4.10: Teachers' description of level of job satisfaction with regard to work characteristics variables (N=92)

4.5.1.4 Factor 4: Interpersonal relations

Table 4.7 depicts the teachers' views on their relationships with their principals, colleagues, learners and parents. The table shows the frequencies, percentages, and means of each of these variables.

Table 4.7: The teachers' views on interpersonal relationships

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
(1) Teacher-principal relations	8.6	91.4	3	12	3.2	0.655
I am satisfied with how the school principal handles the teachers	14.6	85.4	1	4	3.1	0.754
The school principal supports the staff	7.9	92.1	1	4	3.3	0.635
I am happy with my professional relationship with the school principal	3.4	96.6	1	4	3.3	0.576

(continued on next page)

Table 4.7 (continued)

Statement	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Min	Max	Mean	Std
(2) Teacher-colleagues relations	10.5	89.5	6	24	3.2	0.595
My immediate supervisor(s) treats me fairly	6.7	93.3	1	4	3.3	0.585
My immediate supervisor(s) listens to my suggestions	13.3	86.7	1	4	3.2	0.652
I am satisfied with my relationships with colleagues	4.4	95.6	1	4	3.3	0.561
I am satisfied with the support from colleagues	10.1	89.9	1	4	3.0	0.564
I am pleased with the relationships among the staff members	21.6	78.4	1	4	2.9	0.665
I am happy with the behaviour of my colleagues towards me	6.7	93.3	1	4	3.2	0.541
(3) Teacher-learner relations	43.1	56.9	6	24	2.6	0.753
At my school the learners respect the teachers	55.6	44.4	1	4	2.3	0.827
I am happy with my relationships with the learners	6.7	93.3	1	4	3.2	0.556
I am satisfied with the behaviour of the learners	64.0	36.0	1	4	2.2	0.840
I am pleased with the motivation levels of the learners	49.4	50.6	1	4	2.5	0.814
My good relations with learners keep me in teaching	25.8	74.2	1	4	2.8	0.630
I am satisfied with the learners' behaviour	57.3	42.7	1	4	2.3	0.853
(4) Teacher-parent relations	42.9	57.1	3	12	2.5	0.669
At my school the parents respect the teachers	22.2	77.8	1	4	2.8	0.662
I am pleased with my relationships with the learners' parents	22.2	77.8	1	4	2.8	0.662
In my school the parents are involved in their children's learning	84.3	15.7	1	4	1.8	0.726
TOTAL	26.3	73.7	31	70	51.91	6.977

(4 Point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree)

The following is most significant from table 4.7.

Table 4.7 (1) indicates the mean of the variable *teacher-principal relationships* to be 3.2 which indicates that the teachers were on average satisfied with this component of their work. From the teachers, 96.6% were satisfied with the professional relationship with their principal and 92.1% agreed that the principal supported the staff. The teachers also indicated that they were satisfied with the way the principal handled the teachers (85.4%).

Table 4.7 (2) further shows the satisfaction or dissatisfaction rating of the teachers' views of *teacher-colleague* relationships. As indicated in this table, the average mean of 3.2 indicates that the teachers were generally satisfied with this aspect of their work which implies that LSEN teachers in Lejweleputswa are sociable and value their relationships with their colleagues (89.55). The teachers expressed a strong positive feeling with regard to all six statements. Most of the teachers reported satisfaction with the behaviour of colleagues towards them (93.3%), treatment by their immediate supervisor (93.3%), and support from their colleagues (89.9%).

However, Table 4.7(3) reveals that the teachers were quite discontented with their relationship with the learners - the variable mean was 2.6. More than half of the respondents were not satisfied with the behaviour and discipline of the learners (64%). Similarly, the majority of teachers felt that learners did not show respect (55.6%). From table 4.7(3) it is clear that teacher-learner factors were the only aspects which caused dissatisfaction with their interpersonal relations at work.

Table 4.7 (4) lastly indicates that the teachers were in general slightly more satisfied with the teacher-parent relationships. However, strong dissatisfaction was indicated particularly with the parents' involvement in their children's learning (84.3%). The teachers were relatively satisfied with regard to their relationships with the learners' parents since 77.8% of the sample agreed. The same trend was visible with regard to the respect they got from the learners' parents.

Despite the few noteworthy outliers as indicated in Table 4.7, Figure 4.11 graphically displays an overall high satisfaction rate of 74% which clearly indicates that the respondents did not experience significant frustration in this area. On the whole, the findings look promising. In accordance with Maslow’s theory (see 2.2.6.3), interpersonal relationships are at the core of a person’s need for belonging and affiliation; in the context of this study, professional friendships and good interpersonal relations with colleagues, parents and principals evidently play a significant role in the job satisfaction of the participants.

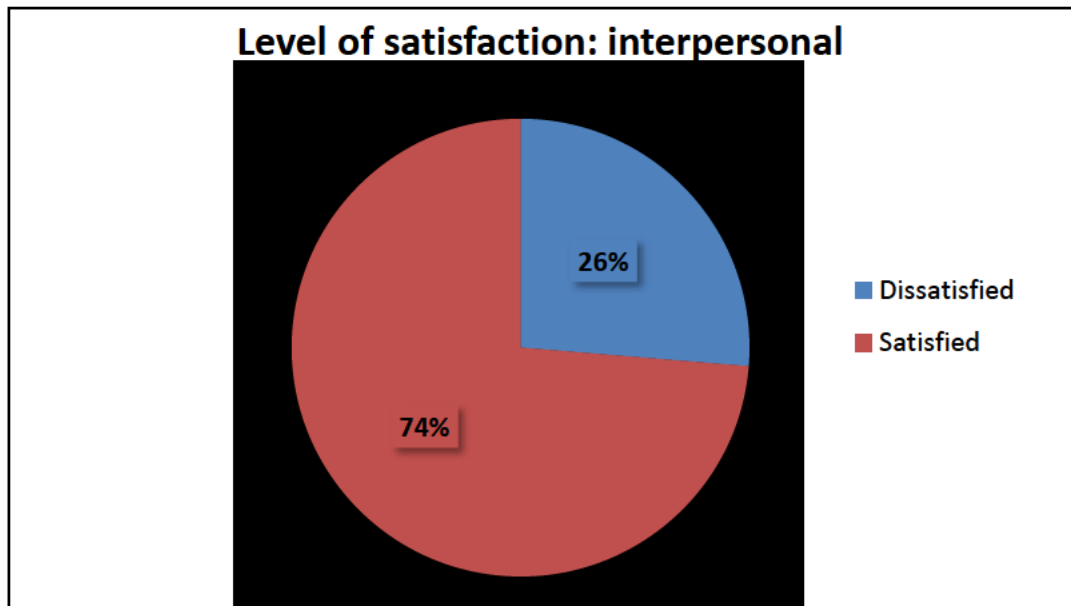


Figure 4.11: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to interpersonal relations (N=92)

When considering the individual satisfaction levels, Figure 4.12 indicates that teachers were the most dissatisfied with teacher-learner relations, and the most satisfied with their relationships with their principals. Interestingly, Ladd (2009) found in her study that teachers' perceptions of their school are most predictive of teachers' satisfaction. As pointed out in Chapter 2 (see 2.3.1.1), effective management is pivotal to teacher motivation.

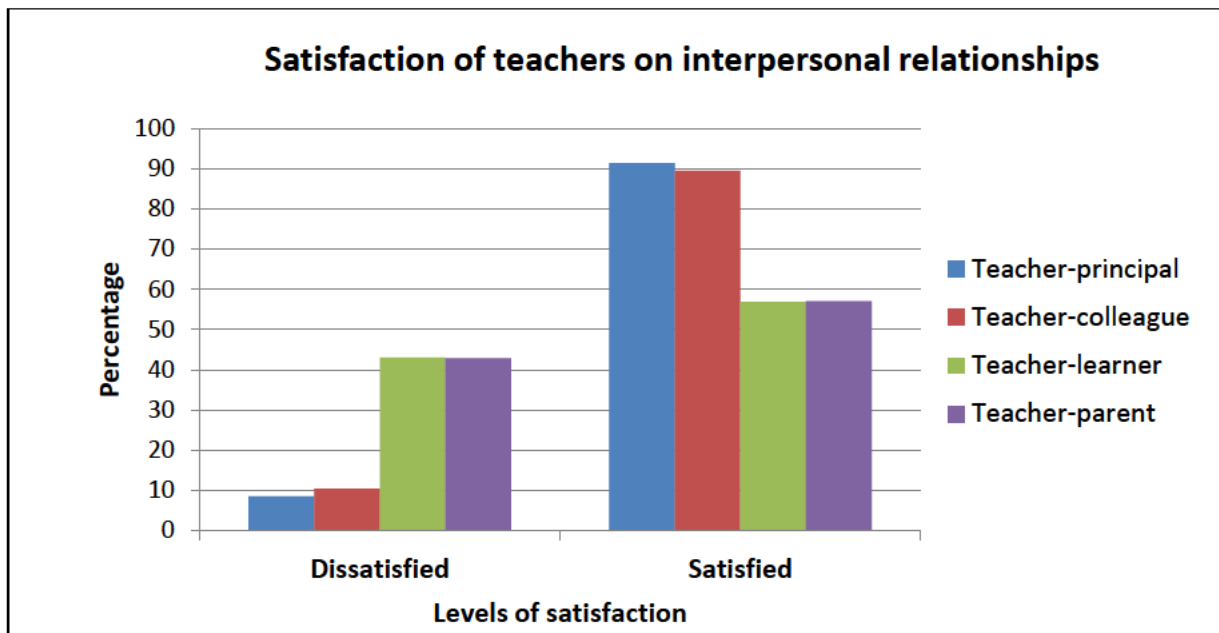


Figure 4.12: Teachers' description of the level of job satisfaction with regard to interpersonal relations variables (N=92)

The following section turns the focus to the inferential statistics of this study.

4.6 RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE: INFERENCE STATISTICS

4.6.1 Reliability and validity of the measuring instrument

Reports of reliability and validity estimates are necessary to determine the adequacy of the psychometric properties of the scales in a questionnaire. The information gathered for this study was done by using a Likert type scale questionnaire. Since it was attempted to quantify constructs which are not directly measurable, multiple-item scales and summated ratings were utilised to quantify the construct(s) of interest. The Likert scale's invention in 1931 is attributed to Rensis Likert who described this technique for the assessment of attitudes (Gliem & Gliem 2003:82). Cronbach's alpha which measures the internal consistency reliability of the research instrument for this study, was used as the reliability coefficient for the Likert type scales. A Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated on each of the constructs to confirm their reliability in the local context. A Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient

usually ranges between 0 and 1. The closer Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. Based on the formula $\alpha = \frac{rk}{[1 + (k - 1) r]}$, where k is the number of items considered and r is the mean of the inter-item correlations, the size of alpha is determined by both the number of items in the scale and the means of the inter-item correlations. George and Mallery (2003:231) provide the following rules of thumb: $\alpha > .9$ – Excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – Good, $\alpha > .7$ – Acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – Questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – Poor, and $\alpha < .5$ – Unacceptable.

As shown by Table 4.8, the Cronbach alpha for the questionnaire was 0.96, which indicates a very high level (96%) of internal consistency for the Likert type questions.

Table 4.8: Cronbach alpha analysis table

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
	0.96113	69

4.6.2 Assumptions for statistical analysis

Garson (2012:7) asserts that all statistical procedures have underlying assumptions. An expected component of quantitative studies is to establish that the data of the study meet these assumptions of the procedure. Similarly, O’Neil (2009) outlines the importance of meeting the conditions of a particular statistical procedure before data analysis is done. Parametric tests are significant tests which assume (1) a certain distribution of the data (usually a normal distribution), (2) the interval level of measurement and (3) the homogeneity of variances when two or more samples are compared. Most common significance tests are parametric (Garson, 2013). However, it has long been established that moderate violations of parametric assumptions have little or no effect on substantive conclusions in most instances (Cohen in Garson, 2013). In this study, the said tests were all conducted before analysing the data to ensure that these conditions were met.

4.6.2.1 Normality

According to O’Neil (2009), it is assumed that the data gathered for statistical analysis is from a normally distributed population. As inferential statistics is done to verify that some or all of the results are applicable to the entire population, it is paramount that the population’s distribution should also be normal. The analysis for normality should furthermore include statistics pertaining to, amongst others, skewness, kurtosis, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Q-Q plots to check for normality of the data distribution (O’Neil, 2009).

One instance which guarantees normality is when the distribution of the individual observations from the sample is normal. However, even if the distribution of the individual observations is not normal, the distribution of the *sample means* will be normal if the sample size is around 30 or larger. This is due to the ‘central limit theorem’ which posits that even when a population is non-normally distributed, the distribution of the *sample means* will be normal when the sample size is 30 or more. Since the sample size of this study was larger than 30 (N=92), the principle of normality of distribution was adopted.

Table 4.9 below depicts the statistical calculations for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) tests. The normal Q-Q plots and relevant boxplots are also included to substantiate the test of normality done for the Independent Variables and Dependent Variables (see Figure 4.13 to Figure 4.16).

Table 4.9: Test of normality (normal distribution)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Salary	0.140	79	0.001	0.964	79	0.025
Admin support and management style	0.090	79	0.180	0.975	79	0.120
Interpersonal relationships	0.105	79	0.032	0.976	79	0.142
Work characteristics	0.148	79	0	0.969	79	0.052

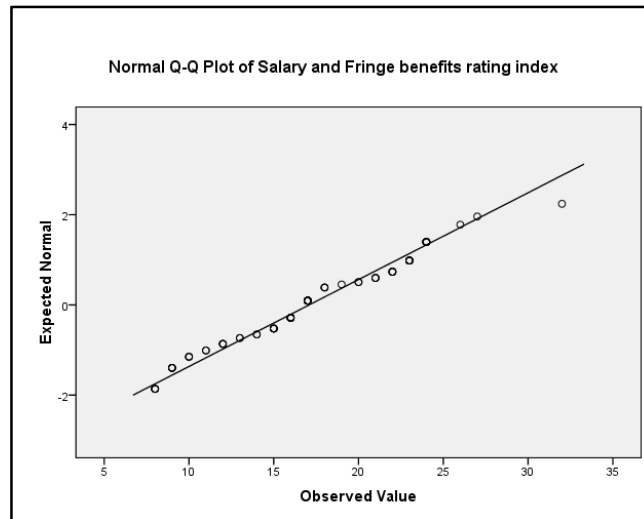


Figure 4.13: Test of normality for DV salary (N=92)

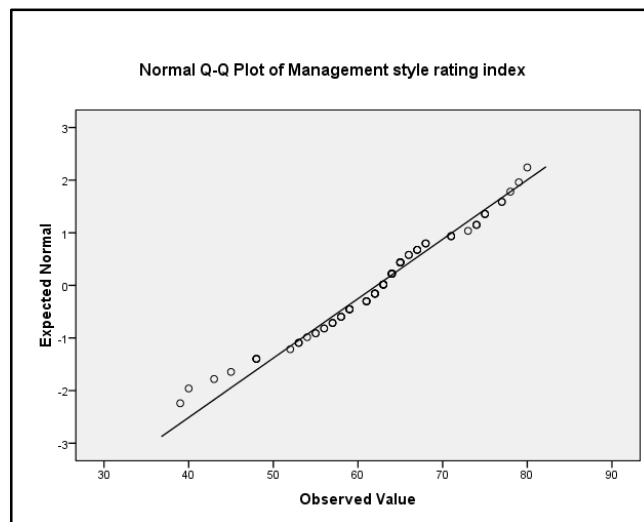


Figure 4.14: Test of normality for DV management style (N=92)

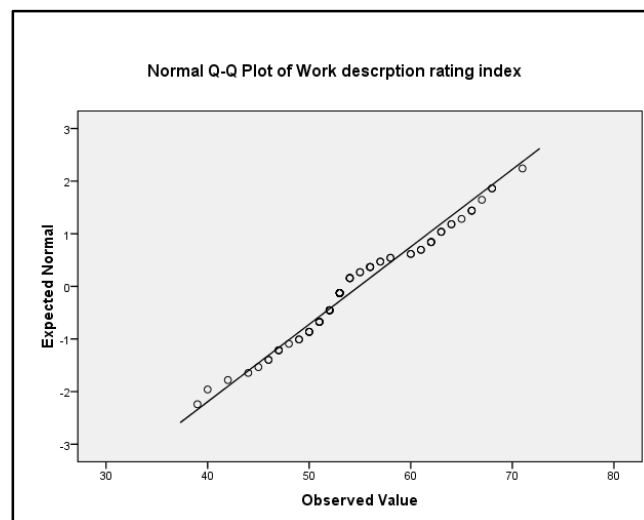


Figure 4.15: Test of normality for DV work characteristics (N=92)

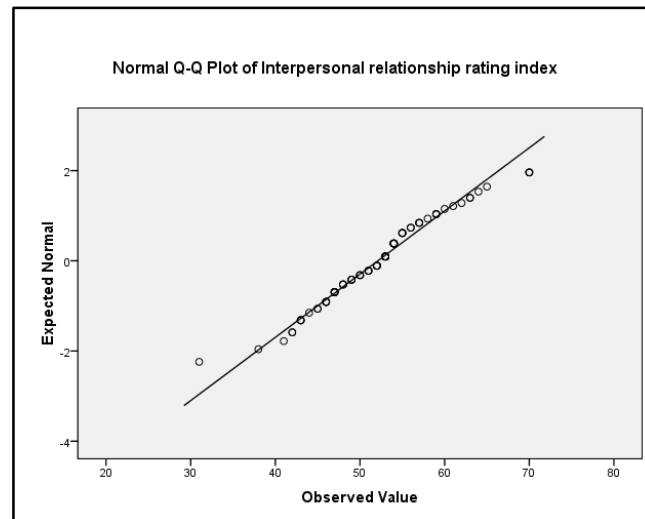


Figure 4.16: Satisfaction on interpersonal relationships (N = 92)

When considering Shapiro-Wilk as a means of assessing normality, Table 4.9 indicates that the variables *administrative support and management style*, *interpersonal relationships* and *work characteristics* are normally distributed since the significant values are greater than 0.05. Thus, the normality assumption is not violated. *Salary* as variable appears not to be normally distributed since the significant value is less than 0.05. However, if the normality is considered graphically using the Q-Q plots (Figures 4.13 to 4.16), it shows that the variables *salary*; *administrative support and management style*; *interpersonal relationships*; and *work characteristics* all appear to be normally distributed - the data points are close to the straight line.

4.6.2.2 Homoscedasticity

Homogeneity of variances (homoscedasticity) assumes that the dependent variables exhibit equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variables. Conversely, heteroscedasticity refers to a scenario where the variability of a variable is unequal across the range of values of a second variable that predicts it (Taylor, 2013). Table 4.10 indicates the descriptive statistics and tests conducted for homoscedasticity.

Table 4.10: Test of Homogeneity of variances

Test of Homogeneity of variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Salary	0.096	1	86	0.757
Management style	0.211	1	79	0.647
Work description	0.156	1	85	0.694
Interpersonal relationships	0.097	1	83	0.756

A Levene's test was conducted which was found to be *statistically non-significant* for each of the following variables, since the p-value was in each case > (more than) 0.05:

- Salary (p = 0.757; > 0.05)
- Management style (p = 0.647; > 0.05)
- Work description (p = 0.694; > 0.05)
- Interpersonal relationship (p = 0.756; > 0.05)

Based on the above homogeneity of variances for each of the four variables, a parametric test (One-way ANOVA) was conducted.

4.7 RESULTS FOR THE ANOVA TESTS

As reported above, the levels of differences for the four main categories of variables were *overall* not statistically significant; however, intergroup statistical differences could be found for some of the inter-variables. These are reported via the following different hypotheses that were stated.

4.7.1 Specific research question 3

Is there a statistically significant difference between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district and the following work factors?

- salaries
- administrative support and management

- work characteristics
- Interpersonal relations

Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated (See Table 4.1):

Hypotheses: AGE GROUP

Hypothesis 3.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different *age groups*.

Hypothesis 3.1.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different *age groups* in terms of *salary*.

Hypothesis 3.1.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different *age groups* in terms of *work characteristics*.

Table 4.11: Descriptive statistics for AGE hypotheses

Descriptive statistics for AGE GROUP hypotheses									
Variable	Age group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Salary	21-29	11	19.82	4.490	1.354	16.80	22.83	11	26
	30-39	18	16.61	3.346	.789	14.95	18.27	10	23
	40-49	20	15.35	5.696	1.274	12.68	18.02	8	27
	50 or more	39	17.69	5.814	.931	15.81	19.58	8	32
	Total	88	17.20	5.309	.566	16.08	18.33	8	32
Work characteristics	21-29	11	53.18	7.026	2.118	48.46	57.90	39	64
	30-39	19	53.53	5.591	1.283	50.83	56.22	45	66
	40-49	20	54.10	7.497	1.676	50.59	57.61	40	68
	50 or more	37	55.54	7.567	1.244	53.02	58.06	41	71
	Total	87	54.47	7.043	.755	52.97	55.97	39	71

Table 4.12: One-way ANOVA for AGE hypotheses

ONE-WAY ANOVA for AGE GROUP hypotheses						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Salaries rating index	Between Groups	159.546	3	53.182	1.948	0.128
	Within Groups	2292.772	84	27.295		
	Total	2452.318	87			
Work characteristics rating index	Between Groups	80.316	3	26.772	.531	.662
	Within Groups	4185.362	83	50.426		
	Total	4265.678	86			

4.7.1.1 Findings with regard to Hypothesis 3.1.1

The level of *statistical significance* is often expressed as the so-called *p-value* (see Table 4.12). Depending on the statistical test one has chosen (in this case the Levene test), a probability calculation (i.e. the *p-value*) is made by observing one’s sample results. To ascertain whether a hypothesis statement is statistically *significant*, the *p-value* has to be less than 0.05. This means that there was a 5% or less chance (5 times in 100 or less) that the difference in the levels of job satisfaction between different age groups, is statistically significant. Alternatively, if the chance was greater than 5% (5 times in 100 or more), one would accept the hypothesis.

As can be seen from the above tables, job satisfaction did not differ significantly among the four age groups with respect to *salaries* on the 5% level, $F(3,84) = 1.984$; $p = 0.128$; >0.05 . Teachers in the age group 21-29 (Mean=19.82) experienced the highest levels of job satisfaction with regard to their salaries, while the least satisfied group was respondents with ages ranging from 40-49 (Mean=15.35). The hypothesis can therefore not be accepted.

4.7.1.2 Findings with regard to Hypothesis 3.1.2

Job satisfaction did not differ significantly among the four age groups with respect to *work characteristics* (Table 4.12) as $F(3,83) = 0.5318$; $p > 0.05$ (0.662) . Teachers in the age group

50 years or more (Mean=55.54) displayed the highest levels of job satisfaction with regard to work characteristics, and the least satisfied group was in the age group 21-29 (Mean=53.18).

Hypotheses: EXPERIENCE

Hypothesis 3.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different *teaching experience*.

Hypothesis 3.2.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different *teaching experiences* in terms of *salary*.

Hypothesis 3.2.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different *teaching experiences* in terms of *management style*.

Hypothesis 3.2.3: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different *teaching experiences* in terms of *work characteristics*.

Table 4.13: Descriptive statistics for EXPERIENCE hypotheses

Descriptive statistics for EXPERIENCE hypotheses									
Variable	Expe- rience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Salary rating index	5 or less	11	20.91	3.477	1.048	18.57	23.25	16	26
	6-8	15	17.47	3.871	.999	15.32	19.61	11	27
	11-15	14	15.79	4.042	1.080	13.45	18.12	10	24
	16-20	10	14.10	5.174	1.636	10.40	17.80	8	22
	21 or more	39	17.13	6.233	.998	15.11	19.15	8	32
	Total	89	17.10	5.368	.569	15.97	18.23	8	32
Management style rating index	5 or less	12	64.58	8.533	2.463	59.16	70.00	45	75
	6-8	15	59.60	7.169	1.851	55.63	63.57	48	75
	11-15	14	60.07	7.087	1.894	55.98	64.16	48	71
	16-20	9	56.44	7.230	2.410	50.89	62.00	39	64
	21 or more	32	64.78	9.631	1.703	61.31	68.25	40	80
	Total	82	62.09	8.756	.967	60.16	64.01	39	80

(continued on next page)

Table 4.13 (continued)

Variable	Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work characteristics rating index	5 or less	12	55.33	7.463	2.154	50.59	60.08	39	68
	6-8	15	52.60	5.792	1.495	49.39	55.81	44	64
	11-15	13	53.77	7.247	2.010	49.39	58.15	42	66
	16-20	10	53.90	6.707	2.121	49.10	58.70	40	63
	21 or more	38	55.29	7.450	1.209	52.84	57.74	41	71
	Total	88	54.45	7.004	.747	52.97	55.94	39	71

Table 4.14: One-way ANOVA for EXPERIENCE hypotheses

ONE-WAY ANOVA for EXPERIENCE hypotheses						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Salaries rating index	Between Groups	275.831	4	68.958	2.563	.044
	Within Groups	2260.259	84	26.908		
	Total	2536.090	88			
Management style rating index	Between Groups	743.266	4	185.817	2.617	.041
	Within Groups	5467.136	77	71.002		
	Total	6210.402	81			
Working characteristics rating index	Between Groups	96.528	4	24.132	.480	.750
	Within Groups	4171.290	83	50.257		
	Total	4267.818	87			

4.7.1.3 Findings with regard to Hypothesis 3.2.1 (Both results from descriptive analysis and ANOVA were used)

Job satisfaction differed significantly among the five different groups with respect to *salary* (Table 4.14) with $F = 2.563$; $p < 0.05$ (0.044). Teachers with teaching experience of five years or less (Mean=20.91) displayed the highest levels of job satisfaction with regard to their salaries, while the group in the 16-20 years category displayed the lowest levels of job satisfaction (Mean=14.10). The hypothesis can thus be accepted. This finding is in stark contrast with findings reported by Bolin (2007) and Mengistu (2012) who both found that

teachers with teaching experience of five years or less were significantly less satisfied with their salaries than their more experienced counterparts.

4.7.1.4 Findings with regard to Hypotheses 3.2.2

Consistent with the previous finding, job satisfaction differed significantly among the five groups with respect to **management style** (Table 4.14) with $F = 2.617$; $p < 0.05$ (0.041). Teachers with teaching experience of 21 years or more (Mean = 64.78) experienced more job satisfaction with regard to their principals' management style, while teachers with 6 – 8 years' experience showed significantly lower levels of satisfaction (Mean = 59.60). This may be related to the fact that the older teachers, by virtue of their experience and better job performance (they may have learnt from past mistakes), are treated less stringently by their supervisors. They probably attach more value to the intrinsic aspects of a job, or they may have adapted to the working conditions prevailing in schools. The hypothesis can therefore be accepted.

4.7.1.5 Findings with regard to Hypotheses 3.2.3

Job satisfaction did not differ significantly among the groups with respect to **work characteristics** (Table 4.14), with $F(4, 83) = 0.480$; $p(0.750) > 0.05$. Consequently, the hypothesis cannot be accepted. However, it is noteworthy that teachers with teaching experience of five years or less (Mean = 55.33) displayed more job satisfaction with regard to work characteristics than the group with 6 - 8 years' experience (Mean = 52.60).

Findings with regard to Hypotheses for QUALIFICATIONS

Hypothesis 3.3: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different **qualifications**.

Hypothesis 3.3.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different **qualifications** in terms of **salary**.

Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics for QUALIFICATION Hypothesis

Descriptive statistics for QUALIFICATION hypotheses									
Variable	Quali- fication	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Salary	Diploma	31	16.42	5.277	0.948	14.48	18.36	8	27
	BA/BEd/ BSc	45	17.51	5.32	0.793	15.91	19.11	8	32
	MA/MEd /MSc	1	30	-	-	-	-	30	30
	Other	10	16.8	5.116	1.618	13.14	20.46	9	24
	Total	87	17.18	5.397	0.579	16.03	18.33	8	32

Table 4.16: One-way ANOVA for QUALIFICATION hypotheses

ONE-WAY ANOVA for QUALIFICATION hypotheses						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Salary	Between Groups	188.665	3	62.888	2.253	0.088
	Within Groups	2316.393	83	27.908		
	Total	2505.057	86			
	Within Groups	4061.259	80	50.766		
	Total	4136.036	83			

Job satisfaction did not differ significantly among the different qualification levels with respect to salary (Table 4.16), with $F(3,83) = 2.253$, $p = 0.088$; > 0.05 . Only one teacher with a master’s qualification (Mean = 30) indicated a high level of satisfaction with regard to salary, while the least satisfied respondent held a diploma (Mean = 16.42). This finding supports other researchers’ findings (Badenhorst et al. 2008; Turner, 2007; Ting, 1997). In his sample of teachers, Turner (2007) found a non-significant relationship between job satisfaction and educational qualifications regarding salaries. The hypothesis can thus not be accepted.

Hypotheses: GENDER

Hypothesis 3.4: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from the different *genders*.

Hypothesis 3.4.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different *genders* in terms of *salaries*.

Hypothesis 3.4.2: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different *genders* in terms of *work characteristics*.

Hypothesis 3.4.3: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers from different *genders* in terms of *management style*.

Hypothesis 3.4.4: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different *genders* in terms of *interpersonal relationships*.

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics for GENDER Hypothesis

Descriptive statistics for GENDER hypotheses									
Variable	Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Salary	Male	19	18.32	5.468	1.254	15.68	20.95	9	30
	Female	69	16.90	5.264	.634	15.63	18.16	8	32
	Total	88	17.20	5.309	.566	16.08	18.33	8	32
Administrative support and management style	Male	18	64.11	9.597	2.262	59.34	68.88	43	79
	Female	63	61.49	8.565	1.079	59.34	63.65	39	80
	Total	81	62.07	8.810	.979	60.13	64.02	39	80
Work characteristics	Male	19	55.84	6.994	1.605	52.47	59.21	44	68
	Female	68	54.09	7.060	.856	52.38	55.80	39	71
	Total	87	54.47	7.043	.755	52.97	55.97	39	71
Interpersonal relationships	Male	18	52.17	6.148	1.449	49.11	55.22	42	64
	Female	67	51.91	7.250	.886	50.14	53.68	31	70
	Total	85	51.96	6.997	.759	50.46	53.47	31	70

Table 4.18: One-way ANOVA for GENDER hypotheses

ONE-WAY ANOVA for GENDER hypotheses						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Salary	Between Groups	29.923	1	29.923	1.062	.306
	Within Groups	2422.395	86	28.167		
	Total	2452.318	87			
Administrative support and management style	Between Groups	96.032	1	96.032	1.241	.269
	Within Groups	6113.524	79	77.386		
	Total	6209.556	80			
Work characteristics rating index	Between Groups	45.681	1	45.681	.920	.340
	Within Groups	4219.997	85	49.647		
	Total	4265.678	86			
Interpersonal relationships rating index	Between Groups	.931	1	.931	.019	.891
	Within Groups	4111.963	83	49.542		
	Total	4112.894	84			

Job satisfaction did not differ significantly among the different genders with respect to all the work factors as the significance is higher than the alpha level (Table 4.18). The hypotheses are therefore not accepted. The finding that gender made no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction is in agreement with the findings of Badenhorst et al.(2008) as well as Akiri and Ogborugbo’s (2009) who found that the teachers’ gender did not significantly influence their job satisfaction levels.

4.8 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

The table below offers an overview of the results in terms of the significance of the hypotheses.

Table 4.19: An overview of the results in terms of the significance of the hypotheses

Hypotheses indicating statistically significant differences (accepted)	Hypotheses indicating statistically non-significant differences (not accepted)
Hypothesis 3.2.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experiences</i> in terms of <i>salary</i> .	Hypothesis 3.1.1: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different <i>age groups</i> in terms of <i>salary</i> .

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Table 4.19 (continued)

Hypotheses indicating statistically significant differences (accepted)	Hypotheses indicating statistically non-significant differences (not accepted)
<p>Hypothesis 3.2.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experiences</i> in terms of <i>management style</i>.</p>	<p>Hypothesis 3.1.2: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the different <i>age groups</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.2.3: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>teaching experiences</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.3.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different <i>qualifications</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.1: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>salaries</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.2: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>work characteristics</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.3: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>management style</i>.</p> <p>Hypothesis 3.4.4: There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different <i>genders</i> in terms of <i>interpersonal relationships</i>.</p>

4.9 FINDINGS FOR THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

As indicated in Chapter 3, this was not a mixed method study. The three open-ended questions of section C of the questionnaire were included for the purpose of enriching the quantitative findings by giving a "voice" to the respondents. They were asked to briefly describe the factors in their school environment that gave them the most satisfaction, or

displeased them the most, and to recommend ways on how education leaders and stakeholders may improve their work satisfaction levels. The results are summarised below.

Question 1: Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that give you the most satisfaction.

- The teachers' sense of professional worth and value and their capacity to influence the achievement and success of their learners were some of the most frequently mentioned aspects of their work that provided them with a sense of great satisfaction. Respondents mentioned their passion for teaching LSEN learners, particularly because tangible evidence of improvement could be detected when learners achieved their goals. The fact that they added value by building learners' worth and making a remarkable difference in their lives was highly satisfying.
- The respondents revealed that their relationships with their colleagues played a decisive role towards their job satisfaction. Positive social relationships with colleagues were important sources of their emotional well-being, not only as an important source of friendship, but also for academic, social and emotional support. Collegial relationships were seen as a predominant satisfying aspect of the respondents' work, as revealed by both the questionnaire items and the open-ended questions.
- Management played a significant role in maintaining teacher satisfaction. The majority of the respondents reported that school management supported and developed them. Positive feedback was given on management systems and the management styles of their supervisors.
- Satisfaction with their work environment was also evident from the responses. Teachers expressed positive views on how they accepted the responsibility associated with teaching. It was also noteworthy that they voiced very little concern about their workloads. The general impression was that they were able to accomplish their tasks comfortably.

Question 2: Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that dissatisfy you the most.

- A lack of funding from the Department of Basic Education was a source of dissatisfaction which was even described by some as ‘disastrous’. The inability to acquire adequate resources, learning materials and other equipment forced them to pay for it out of their own pocket. Similar frustrations were noted in the questionnaire pertaining to items 22 (“I have enough instructional materials available to teach my learners”) and 23 (“I have suitable instructional materials for my learners according to their special needs and academic levels”).
- Related to the previous point, a lack of proper curriculum support from the Department of Basic Education was accentuated as one of the most distressing causes for concern and frustration. Item 24 in the questionnaire also stood out as a major concern for the respondents as 72% indicated their dissatisfaction with this aspect of their work.
- Learner ill-discipline featured prominently as a factor that caused job dissatisfaction. The general feeling was that learners failed to show respect for their teachers and disobeyed rules and regulations. Another area of concern was learners’ lack of motivation; they did not display the required levels of self-discipline to work diligently and to make a success of their lives. Words such as ‘disrespectful’ and ‘arrogant’ described respondents’ attitudes. Learners arrived late for school and were indifferent about completing their homework and even their classwork.

Question 3: What would you recommend to the education leaders and stakeholders to improve the job satisfaction of teachers at schools for Learners with Special Education Needs?

- Most respondents felt that they needed sufficient hands-on training in LSEN support for their learners. Particular emphasis was placed on the need for learners to acquire much-needed skills that would enable them to function as socially and economically active citizens in society when they have completed their schooling;
- Sufficient government funding should be invested into the LSEN sector. Respondents were resolute about the role of adequate resources and proper facilities to enable them

to fulfil their teaching task optimally and to provide quality education. This would rightly enable learners to realise their potential to the fullest.

- The current curriculum (Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement – CAPS) left much to be desired and should be adapted to meet the specific academic and intellectual needs of the learners. As a result, teachers have to work in an un-coordinated and “haphazard” manner. Standardised, measurable learning outcomes pitched at a suitable competency level nationwide would enable LSEN schools to benchmark and set specific learning goals and skills acquisition levels for sustainable education in the sector.

4.10 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.10.1 The role of salary

The fact that low salaries may impede teachers’ job satisfaction is well-documented (Ingorsol, 2003; Maniram, 2007; Mengistu, 2012). It appears that monetary rewards are oftentimes viewed as a symbol of status or recognition (see 2.3.1.2). It was documented as early as 1977 that if people perceived their salaries as uncompetitive or not market-related, they are less satisfied in their jobs (Maniram, 2007).

Expectedly, the results in this study confirm literature findings in the field, i.e. the majority of the respondents were not satisfied with their salaries. It was to be expected since teachers in South Africa in general perceive salary growth opportunities negatively; even the monetary rewards which accompany better qualifications or performance at work are discounted as they are also perceived to contribute little to salary increments (Botes, 2012). Sixty eight percent of the sample disagreed with the statement: “My salary compares well with my qualification(s)”, while 72% felt that their salary did not compensate for the effort they put into their jobs (Table 4.4). Importantly, the aspect that educed the highest dissatisfaction among respondents related to the comparison between their salary and remuneration in other professional jobs.

This finding sits well with Bandura's Theory of Self-efficacy (see 2.2.1) which posits that extrinsic factors such as salaries and benefits may offset high satisfaction levels (which are based on intrinsic, self-regulating factors) of employees, resulting in poorer overall job satisfaction. The finding also resonates with Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (see 2.2.2) which states that Hygiene factors, inter alia salaries, are listed as likely causes for dissatisfaction among employees.

4.10.2 The role of administrative support and management

The fact that teachers in this study experienced this particular aspect of their work so positively is indicative of the strength and quality of management and administrative procedures in the participant schools. As reported in section 2.3.1.1, teacher motivation critically depends on effective management, particularly at school level. If systems and structures tailored to manage and support teachers are dysfunctional, teachers are likely to lose their sense of professional responsibility and commitment (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Many researchers have reported on the crucial influence of effective management and leadership on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation (Waters et al, 2003; Ladd, 2009; Kinyua, 2011). These findings are consistent with research conducted by Evans (2001) who reports that the main influences on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation are school leadership and management. Effective school leadership has a reciprocal effect on teacher job satisfaction as it may indirectly influence learner achievement, which may, in turn, impact on teacher satisfaction. However, despite these positive sentiments expressed about management and leadership, more than 60% of the respondents felt that there were not enough opportunities for promotion and advancement. This finding is in keeping with the findings of Chen et al. (2006) and Ku"sku" (2001) (See 2.3.1.3). Furthermore, although the participants were by and large satisfied with administrative support and management, an alarmingly high number expressed their dissatisfaction with the curriculum support they received from the Department of Basic Education (See section 4.8). Therefore only two aspects, promotion and curriculum support, emerged as having a negative impact on respondents' satisfaction levels regarding management factors.

In line with Herzberg's Two-factor Theory (see 2.2.2), administrative support and managerial factors also qualify as Hygiene factors which may impact negatively on staff who are otherwise

strongly inclined towards the Motivator factors. Also, when applying the tenets of the Range of Affect Theory of Locke (2.2.3), it seems that people who place a high premium on administrative support and who are convinced that they have the efficacy to (1) enlist the support of their principals; (2) that policies and rules are enforced at their schools (e.g. disciplinary policies); (3) that they are updated about plans for the school; and (4) that they are being informed about what is expected of them; will experience intense levels of frustration which can subsequently lead to job dissatisfaction

4.10.3 The role of work characteristics

Work characteristics included workload, the work per se and respondents' responsibilities at work. In this instance the focus was on work characteristics as extrinsic factors impacting on the teacher. Hayenga and Corpus (2010) postulate that work characteristics may be seen as extrinsic motivators that originate from outside the teacher. In the school situation, teachers are responsible for accomplishing tasks such as teaching; assessing and reporting learners' results; participating in staff development training programmes; attending meetings; disciplining learners; managing numerous extra-curricular activities; and administration (Mengistu, 2012). Importantly, the teachers were very satisfied with this aspect of their work. The fact that 88.4% of the participants agreed with statements in this category is indeed encouraging and suggests that they enjoyed the core aspects of their work.

Findings in this category relate in varying degrees to all the theories as discussed in sections 2.2.1 to 2.2.6 of Chapter 2.

4.10.4 The role of interpersonal relations

Considering all relationships, the one between teachers and learners is seen to be vital to positive educational outcomes in the school setting (Mengistu, 2012). According to the latter a positive relationship between learners and teachers is not only of significance for the learners and for the educational outcomes of any educational system, but also for the job satisfaction of the teachers. Overall, 74% of the respondents in this study were satisfied with their interpersonal relationships at school. As such this is a significantly positive finding, but

it is worth noting that as far as student-teacher relationships were concerned, slightly less than half of the sample expressed their dissatisfaction in this regard. Incidentally, this item rendered the lowest satisfaction score which was for apparent reasons a discouraging finding. The principles (traits) explained in the Five Factor Theory (see 2.2.6), particularly the notions of extraversion and agreeableness, manifest prominently with the findings on the importance of interpersonal relations in the LSEN school setting.

4.11 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research results. The results were discussed in terms of the stated research questions and hypotheses. An attempt was made to provide some order to the range of information provided by the respondents to the questions in the questionnaire (Appendix D). Some of the data were of a factual or demographic nature. This assisted me to construct a broad profile of the sample selected for this investigation.

The data collected were organised using frequency distribution tables. The data were then transferred to a data analysis programme. Thereafter the data were analysed using inferential techniques. This was followed by a discussion of the findings. The findings were narrated and compared to other findings of researchers in their studies. In chapter five the conclusions, a number of limitations of the study and strategies for consideration will be presented.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the results were presented, discussed and interpreted against the background of the theoretical perspectives as discussed in Chapter 2, and the empirical results presented in Chapter 4. In this chapter the conclusions of the study are stated while focussing on the research questions and hypotheses as stated in Chapter 1 and Chapter 4 respectively.

The main research question that was posed in the first chapter was:

What is the level of job satisfaction amongst LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district and which specific factors impact their levels of job satisfaction?

The sub-questions that arose from the main question were:

- What can we learn from literature that can broaden our understanding of job satisfaction in general, and job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in particular?
- How satisfied or dissatisfied are LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district with the following work factors?
 - salary
 - administrative support and management
 - working conditions
 - interpersonal relations

- Are there in the Lejweleputswa district statistically significant differences between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications, and certain work factors as identified?
- Which strategies may be considered by school managers and education authorities to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers?

The conclusions are indicated in the next section and are drawn from the results, in line with the research questions and the hypotheses that were stated.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Research Question 1

What can we learn from literature that can broaden our understanding of job satisfaction in general, and job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in particular?

Research Question 1 was explored in Chapter 2 of the study. Various theories related to job satisfaction were discussed, followed by a discussion of factors that impact job satisfaction. The literature revealed that the school environments between mainstream and LSEN schools were quite different in a number of ways.

Theories that came under scrutiny were Bandura's Self-efficacy Theory (2.2.1) where self-efficacy, or a lack thereof, was explored in relation to job satisfaction. Also, it came to light how feelings of efficacy could affect a teacher's job satisfaction and performance. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (2.2.2) focused on the so-called satisfiers and dissatisfiers that influence job satisfaction, be it positive or negative. Moreover, it also created an understanding of factors that might either enhance or impede job satisfaction. Edwin Locke's Range of Effect Theory (2.2.3) explored the role of job satisfaction in setting and achieving personal goals.

The Dispositional Theory of Judge, Locke and Durham (2.2.4) suggested that job satisfaction is a personal trait, rather than a variable condition. To this end, job satisfaction originates

within oneself and may be experienced inherently. Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (2.2.5) described five characteristics which could either enhance or impede job satisfaction.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theories (2.2.6) were presented as a pyramid with the most fundamental needs of a person at the bottom, gradually moving up to the need for self-actualisation and self-transcendence at the top. A direct relation between the third level - denoting the need for love, recognition and belonging - and job satisfaction was established.

Working conditions impacting job satisfaction were also discussed. These included school leadership (2.3.1.1); salaries (2.3.1.2); promotion opportunities (2.3.1.3); the physical environment (2.3.1.4); administrative and management support (2.3.1.5); learner demographics (2.3.1.6); motivation of learners (2.3.1.7); learner behaviour (2.3.1.8); availability of resources (2.3.1.9); work load (2.3.1.10); and responsibilities (2.3.1.11). Personal factors (2.3.2) were discussed and comprised vocational commitment and occupational status (2.3.2.1); teacher-learner relationships (2.3.2.2); teacher qualifications and experience (2.3.2.3); parent-teacher relationships (2.3.2.4); growth opportunities (2.3.2.5); and personality (2.3.1.6).

To conclude, it emerged from the literature that job satisfaction is not a single dimension that is influenced by one factor. Rather, job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted construct, influenced by the interplay of numerous elements. Importantly, it appeared that job satisfaction is not static and may change over time, depending on circumstances.

Research Question 2

How satisfied or dissatisfied are LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa district with the following work factors?

- salary
- administrative support and management
- working conditions
- interpersonal relations

The findings in Chapter 4 revealed the following:

Salary (4.9.1)

Salaries emerged as the single most important factor that caused job satisfaction amongst participants. It was confirmed, as indicated by various other findings reported in the literature, that teachers were dissatisfied with their salaries, especially in comparison to other professional jobs.

Administrative support and management (4.9.2)

In general, participants were positive and satisfied with this category. However, the majority indicated that there were not enough opportunities for promotion and advancement, and an alarmingly high number expressed their dissatisfaction with the lack of curriculum support they received from the Department of Basic Education (See section 4.8).

Working conditions (4.9.3)

In this case the focus was on work characteristics as extrinsic factors impacting on the teacher. Work characteristics included workload, the work itself and respondents' responsibilities at work. It was encouraging to learn that participants seemed generally happy and satisfied with the working conditions that they encounter daily.

Interpersonal relations (4.9.4)

The majority of items in the interpersonal relations category were assessed very positively. On face value it seems to be quite an affirmative finding, but it is, however, worth noting that as far as learner-teacher relationships were concerned, almost half of the sample expressed their dissatisfaction in this regard. Incidentally, this item rendered the lowest satisfaction score which was obviously a discouraging finding.

Research Question 3

Are there in the Lejweleputswa district statistically significant differences between the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers of different genders, age groups, teaching experience and qualifications, and certain work factors as identified?

The correlation coefficient between the different variables were analysed and the results indicated that the below mentioned hypotheses regarding job satisfaction in relation to teaching experience and management style, could be accepted.

- There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different **teaching experiences** in terms of **salary**.
- There is a significant difference in job satisfaction of teachers with different **teaching experiences** in terms of **management style**.

It emerged that participants with less teaching experience (0-5 years) were more satisfied with their salaries than teachers with more teaching experience (16-20 years). This finding is in direct contrast to findings from other studies as reported in Chapter 2.

In keeping with the above, job satisfaction differed significantly among the five groups with respect to **management style** (Table 4.14). Teachers with teaching experience of 21 years or more experienced more job satisfaction with regard to their principals' management style, while teachers with 6 to 8 years' experience showed significantly lower levels of satisfaction. This may be attributed to the fact that the older teachers, by virtue of their experience and better job performance, were treated less stringently by their supervisors. They probably attached more value to the intrinsic aspects of their job, or they may have adapted over time to the working conditions prevailing in schools.

The following hypotheses could, however, not be accepted as no statistically significant differences between job satisfaction and the variables could be established from the data.

- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction between the different **age groups** in terms of **salary**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction between the different **age groups** in terms of **work characteristics**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different **teaching experiences** in terms of **work characteristics**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers with different **qualifications**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different **genders** in terms of **salaries**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different **genders** in terms of **work characteristics**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different **genders** in terms of **management style**.
- There is a significant difference in the job satisfaction of teachers from different **genders** in terms of **interpersonal relationships**.

The rejection of the first hypothesis indicates that although LSEN teachers were in general dissatisfied with their salaries, the levels of dissatisfaction did not differ significantly between age groups. Regarding work characteristics, there were no significant differences in the satisfaction levels of LSEN teachers in terms of their age, teaching experience and gender, thus indicating that participants were generally satisfied with their working environments. This did not seem to change with age, experience or between genders. These findings are however open to speculation. It could be that LSEN teachers understand the particular demands and the pressures associated with learners with special needs. They probably realise that they work with a unique type of learner who requires extra attention and support. Another consideration might be that it was not expected from the respondents to perform equal academically to their counterparts in mainstream schools. Hence, the pressures associated with ensuring a high pass rate, i.e. producing as many distinctions as possible and delivering learners with university exemption, were absent. Expectations are quite different in LSEN schools. Learners are developed in different ways with the aim to prepare them for

meaningful future integration in society. LSEN learners generally do not have the ability to excel academically and pursue tertiary education. Ideally, they could be motivated and prepared to obtain a certificate in areas like woodwork, steelwork, panel beating, hairdressing, hospitality, etc.

Research Question 4

Which recommendations may be considered by school managers and education authorities to enhance the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers?

The answer to this question is discussed in section 5.3 as conclusions to question 4, but also as recommendations to education authorities based on the overall findings of the study.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings from both the literature and the empirical investigation, the following recommendations are put forth:

- 5.3.1 If schools wish to attract and retain quality teachers, the remuneration package of teachers is one of the most important concern that need to be addressed by government. Over the past few decades the teaching profession has gradually lost the status it used to enjoy. In this regard, South Africa is lagging way behind teachers in some African countries, the middle east, and in first world countries. Although this aspect is but one of the contributing factors to the poor reputation of the teaching fraternity, it may be one of *the* most important factors which may potentially reverse the situation. Almost 25% of South Africa's budget is allocated to education, yet it remains one of the most compromised sectors in society. The reasons for the desperate situation are certainly complex and are compounded by corruption and incompetence of officials. Strong and decisive leadership is needed to implement a remedial strategy. If ills such as corruption and incompetence could be curbed, effective management by education experts could result in optimised allocation of funds to provide for the much-needed human and physical resources.

- 5.3.2 The promotion system needs to be revisited. Performance management criteria should be implemented to ensure that principals and other education managers who do not perform satisfactorily are removed from their positions or demoted to make way for more competent applicants. This system should be managed by external agencies in order to curb unwarranted political interference and allow for a more objective, performance based process. Such a system may contribute significantly towards improving the status of the teaching profession in the eyes of communities and, most importantly, improve the standard of education.
- 5.3.3 With regard to the inadequate administrative support from the Department of Basic Education, a concerted effort should be made to involve the entire LSEN sector in collaboration with educational experts to identify the unique problems within the sector in an encompassing and systematic manner. The reported frustrations with the lack of resources and the uncoordinated and haphazard implementation of a watered-down CAPS curriculum should be addressed. The CAPS curriculum was developed with mainstream schools in mind; consequently there is a need for an integrated LSEN curriculum with realistic outcomes, focussing on skills development and aiming at preparing LSEN learners for effective and active participation in society.
- 5.3.3 Establishing a meaningful relationship between the teachers and the learners are essential. This might prove to be a difficult endeavour, requiring concerted efforts on the part of teachers in particular. The teachers should take the lead in this initiative by showing a sincere interest in all aspects of their learners' lives, not only in the classroom, but by becoming involved in other areas of the learners' school experience. Showing interest and becoming involved in extra-mural activities and/or cultural activities would be a good place to start. For instance, teachers who organise expeditions and group activities which foster holistic learner development may reap the relationship benefits in unexpected ways.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This investigation was restricted by the factors below which may have had an influence on the validity and reliability of the questionnaire:

- Although the respondents were assured of anonymity, it is possible that they might not have been frank and honest in their responses.
- The sensitive nature of some statements in the questionnaire may have elicited false or misleading responses, thereby influencing the reliability of the results.
- In all probability, the questionnaires were completed by LSEN teachers at school during their free time. It is possible that the respondents may have collaborated with their colleagues when completing the questionnaire.
- Finally, the researcher trusted the respondents' intellectual level in completing the questionnaire and the information provided as being accurate.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This research project explored the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa Education District guided by the main question:

What is the level of job satisfaction amongst LSEN teachers in the Lejweleputswa education district and which specific factors impact on their levels of job satisfaction?

The findings revealed that the LSEN teachers in this district on the whole displayed considerably high levels of job satisfaction. The findings were quite unexpected and pleasantly surprising since I embarked on this study with the assumption that many more shortcomings and frustrations with regard to job satisfaction would be revealed. It would be interesting to

conduct similar studies in other provinces in South Africa to ascertain whether the same trends could be detected in the LSEN sector nationally.

The study took me on a journey through the highs and lows of the LSEN teaching sector and as such, it provided much needed insight into the factors that may either improve or hinder the job satisfaction of teachers. The findings of the study can inculcate a better understanding amongst education authorities to create an environment where LSEN teachers may find optimum fulfilment in enhancing the learning experiences of this marginalised sector in society.

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ADDENDUM A

PERMISSION FROM THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

ADDENDUM B

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL

I hereby request permission to conduct research with teachers at your school. The responses will contribute towards a research dissertation for a master's qualification in Education offered by the Central University of Technology. The value of this research depends on the feedback that I receive from the attached questionnaire (Section A, B, C).

Please note that all the information collected will serve no other purpose than contributing to this research project. Please note that all names of participants and schools will be kept confidential. The estimated time to complete the questionnaire is about 25 minutes. The questionnaire will be conducted at a convenient time as negotiated with your office. Care will be taken to ensure that the research does not interfere with normal school activities.

I hope that the feedback I receive will add to the ongoing research on job satisfaction and its implications for quality education in our country.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

✍️

Regards

Wesley Wheeler

0724246672

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ADDENDUM C**LETTER TO TEACHER PARTICIPANTS**

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

I hereby request you to participate in a research project that will contribute towards a dissertation for a master's qualification in Education offered by the Central University of Technology. You are required to complete a questionnaire on your job satisfaction. The value of this research depends on the feedback that I receive from you (please see attached questionnaire (Section A, B, C).

Please note that all the information collected will serve no other purpose than contributing to this research project. Please note that the identity of individual participants and participant schools will be kept confidential. The estimated time to complete the questionnaire is about 25 minutes. The questionnaire will be conducted at a convenient time as negotiated with your principal. Care will be taken to ensure that the research does not interfere with your normal school activities.

I hope that the feedback I receive will add to the ongoing research on job satisfaction and its implications for quality education in our country.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.



Regards

Wesley Wheeler (0724246672)

ADDENDUM D**QUESTIONNAIRE****JOB SATISFACTION OF LSEN TEACHERS**

V1

This survey aims to provide information on the job satisfaction of LSEN teachers at LSEN schools in the Lejweleputswa district. The research is undertaken for an M.Ed-degree in Education. The questions are answered **anonymously** and for research purposes only. The answers to the questions will be treated strictly **confidential**. Do not provide your name. Please complete the questions honestly. Answer **all** questions – it should not take more than 30 minutes.

SECTION A

Please indicate your choice by making an **X** on the relevant answer.

1. Gender:

Male	=	(1)	
Female	=	(2)	V2

2. Age:

21-29	=	(1)	
30-39	=	(2)	
40-49	=	(3)	
50 +	=	(4)	V3

3. Your years' experience as a teacher/ (present year included)

5 or less	=	(1)	
6 – 10	=	(2)	
11 – 15	=	(3)	
16– 20	=	(4)	
21 or more	=	(5)	V4

4. Your **highest** academic qualification

Diploma	=	(1)	
BA/BEd/BSc degree	=	(2)	
MA/MEd/MSc degree	=	(3)	
Other	=	(4)	V5

5. How would you describe your general level of job satisfaction?

- Very dissatisfied = (1)
- Dissatisfied = (2)
- Satisfied = (3)
- Very satisfied = (4) V6

6. How would you describe your general level of satisfaction with your teaching career?

- Very dissatisfied = (1)
- Dissatisfied = (2)
- Satisfied = (3)
- Very satisfied = (4) V7

7. How would you describe your general hope/optimism about your future teaching career prospects?

- Very poor = (1)
- Poor = (2)
- Good = (3)
- Very good = (4) V8

SECTION B

In this section, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement. Indicate your answer by marking the response of your choice with an X on the number in the box on the right. The numbers have the following meaning:

1= Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree

8. My salary compares well with my qualification(s)	1	2	3	4	V9
9. My salary compares well with my workload	1	2	3	4	V10
10. My salary is appropriate for my experience	1	2	3	4	V11
11. I earn well in comparison to other professional jobs	1	2	3	4	V12
12. I have good expectations of a salary increase	1	2	3	4	V13
13. My salary is equal to the effort I put into my job	1	2	3	4	V14
14. My salary covers all my basic needs	1	2	3	4	V15

15. I am satisfied with my salary	1	2	3	4	V16
16. The quality of in-service training at my school (to teach learners with special needs) is good	1	2	3	4	V17
17. I have many opportunities for professional advancement	1	2	3	4	V18
18. I have opportunities for promotion	1	2	3	4	V19
19. I am happy with the way teachers are evaluated at my school	1	2	3	4	V20
20. My job provides me with an opportunity to achieve professionally	1	2	3	4	V21
21. I am satisfied with the administrative support at school	1	2	3	4	V22
22. I have enough instructional materials available to teach my learners	1	2	3	4	V23
23. I have suitable instructional materials for my learners according to their special needs and academic levels	1	2	3	4	V24
24. I am satisfied with the curriculum support we get from the Department of Education	1	2	3	4	V25
25. Learners at my school are developed optimally and benefit from the instruction they receive at the school	1	2	3	4	V26
26. Our school has good security	1	2	3	4	V27
27. I get enough support with learner disciplinary problems	1	2	3	4	V28
28. School administration supports good teacher-learner relationships	1	2	3	4	V29
29 I am satisfied with our school policies	1	2	3	4	V30
30. I am happy with how decisions are made at my school	1	2	3	4	V31
31. I am pleased with the leadership style of the school principal	1	2	3	4	V32
32. I am satisfied with the teacher management system of the school	1	2	3	4	V33
33. I am satisfied with how the school principal handles the teachers	1	2	3	4	V34
34. My school principal is competent	1	2	3	4	V35
35.The school principal supports the staff	1	2	3	4	V36
36. My immediate supervisor(s) treats me fairly	1	2	3	4	V37
37. My immediate supervisor(s) listens to my suggestions	1	2	3	4	V38

38. My school principal does his/her best toward fulfilling the school's mission/goal	1	2	3	4	V39
39. My school principal focuses his/her attention on identifying my strengths	1	2	3	4	V40
40. In my school I am recognised for a job well done	1	2	3	4	V41
41. At my school the parents respect the teachers	1	2	3	4	V42
42. At my school the learners respect the teachers	1	2	3	4	V43
43. I am satisfied with my workload within my department	1	2	3	4	V44
44. I am happy with my work hours	1	2	3	4	V45
45. The demands of my job are fair	1	2	3	4	V46
46. I have enough time to participate in social activities	1	2	3	4	V47
47. I am happy with the type of work I do as a teacher	1	2	3	4	V48
48. I have opportunities for personal development	1	2	3	4	V49
49. I am adequately qualified to deal with learners with special needs	1	2	3	4	V50
50. I get pleasure from teaching learners with special needs	1	2	3	4	V51
51. I get intellectual rewards from teaching learners with special needs	1	2	3	4	V52
52. I have the opportunity to use my skills at school	1	2	3	4	V53
53. I believe my teaching develops the learners	1	2	3	4	V54
54. I am satisfied with the amount of freedom I have in decision-making	1	2	3	4	V55
55. I am satisfied with my responsibility to solve school-related problems	1	2	3	4	V56
56. I am pleased with my teaching responsibilities	1	2	3	4	V57
57. I am satisfied with my school responsibilities after class hours	1	2	3	4	V58
58. I am happy with my professional relationship with the school principal	1	2	3	4	V59
59. I am satisfied with my relationships with colleagues	1	2	3	4	V60
60. I am pleased with my relationships with the learners' parents	1	2	3	4	V61
61. I am happy with my relationships with the learners	1	2	3	4	V62

62. I am happy with the work environment	1	2	3	4	V63
63. I am satisfied with the behaviour of the learners	1	2	3	4	V64
64. I am satisfied with the support from colleagues	1	2	3	4	V65
65. I am pleased with the relationships among the staff members	1	2	3	4	V66
66. I am happy with how I handle learner discipline	1	2	3	4	V67
67. I am pleased with the motivation levels of the learners	1	2	3	4	V68
68. I am happy with the behaviour of my colleagues towards me	1	2	3	4	V69
69. I am satisfied with the feedback I get from learners	1	2	3	4	V70
70. The relationships with colleagues enhance my teaching	1	2	3	4	V71
71. I am satisfied with the learners' behaviour	1	2	3	4	V72
72. My good relations with learners keep me in teaching	1	2	3	4	V73
73. In my school the parents are involved in their children's learning	1	2	3	4	V74

SECTION C

1. Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that give you the most satisfaction.

2. Briefly describe the factors in your school environment that dissatisfies you the most.

3. What would you recommend to the education leaders and stakeholders to improve the job satisfaction of teachers at schools for learners with special educational needs?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION!

Adapted from Mengistu (2012)