THE   UNIVERSITY   OF   HULL

A   STUDY   OF   THE   JOB   SATISFACTION,   TURNOVER

AND   WORK-VALUE   ORIENTATIONS   OF   TEACHERS   IN

THE   PRIMARY   AND   SECONDARY   SCHOOLS   IN   IMO

STATE,   NIGERIA.

being a Thesis Submitted for the Degree of

DOCTOR   OF   PHILOSOPHY

in the UNIVERSITY   OF   HULL

by

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Work,
Thank God for the Might of it!
The Glory, the strength,
The Delight of it.[1]

            - Sign beneath a clock in a classroom
              in New Rochelle, New York, 1930.

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1. Quoted by Harold L. Wilensky, "Varieties of Work Experience" in H.
   Borow, Man In a World at Work (Boston: Mifflin Company, 1964) p.125.

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Any omissions or mistakes I readily attribute to myself.

Aloy Ejiogu.

PART   ONE

BACKGROUND   TO   THE   STUDY

When a man does not know what harbour
he is making for, no wind is the right wind.

                              - Seneca.

CHAPTER ONE

AN OVERVIEW OF THE SETTING.

1. Introduction

The study reported here was undertaken with a view to ascertaining, among other things, the extent to which primary and secondary schools teachers in Imo State, Nigeria were satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs as well as the degree of their valuation of various work-related values. The assumption was that job satisfaction was positively related to the degree of congruence between job conditions and one's work-values. An attempt was also made to find out the extent to which the teachers were willing to stay in the state's teaching service.

This chapter describes briefly the setting of the study and the problem which motivated it, hoping that such information will help the reader to have a better understanding of the results of the investigation and the subsequent discussions and suggestions.

2. The Geo-Political Context.

Imo State, Nigeria came into being by the decree of the Federal Military Government on the third day of February 1976. It lies between latitudes $4^{\circ}45'N$ and $6^{\circ}15'N$ and between longitudes $6^{\circ}E$ and $8^{\circ}E$, covering an area of approximately 3900 square miles within the rain-forest region of Nigeria (see Fig. 1). In 1977 for example, the state had an average annual rainfall of 167.3mm while the temperature ranged from a minimum of 22.7 Centigrade to a maximum of 31.5 Centigrade.

With a population of about 5,189 million in 1977, Imo State has the fifth largest population among Nigeria's nineteen states. Its population density of about 700 is the second highest in the country.[1]

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1. These figures were extracted from, The Government of Imo State of Nigeria, Annual Digest of Statistics (2nd edition), 1977.

Fig. I.

A MAP OF IMO STATE, NIGERIA.
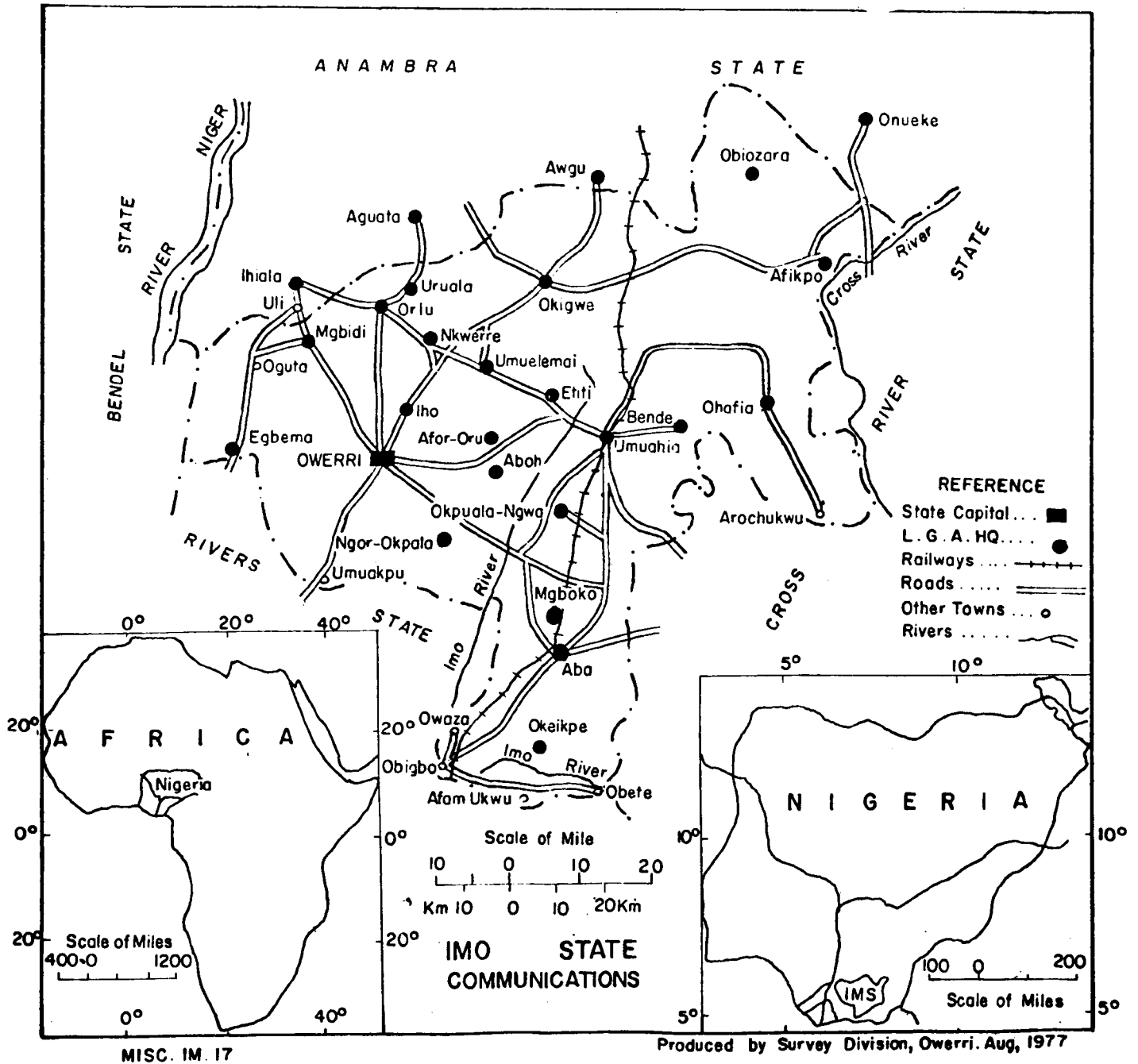
Source: Ministry of Lands and Survey, Survey Division Owerri, August 1977.

The state was part of the former East Central State which itself was created from the former Eastern Region also by a government decree in May 1967 (See Fig. 2).

Owerri is the seat of the state government which was headed by a military administrator until the first day of October 1979 when it was taken over by a democratically elected civilian government. There are twenty-one Local Government Areas (L.G.A.) in the state, each with an elected body of councillors acting as the main link between the people and the state government. The people themselves are, in the words of Forde and Jones, "tolerant, ultra-democratic and highly individualistic."[2]

The greater part of the state is rural and what used to be urban before 1970 is so only in name today. Part of the former secessionist Biafra, the state is yet to recover from the ravages of the obnoxious civil war of 1967-1970. Good roads, pipeborne water and electricity are still "dreams" in the state. Only recently, for example, the Imo State governor (Mr.S.Mbakwe) was reported to have sent a frantic appeal to the Federal Government of Nigeria to help him rebuild Aba (the largest town in the state) which used to be "one of the best planned townships in the country."[3] Equipped with a film of what he described as the "Aba disaster", the state governor told the Federal Government,

> Honestly I was in tears as I moved round
> and saw the squalor under which human beings
> live. The commercial town has become a
> national tragedy....[4]

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2. Daryll Forde and G.I.Jones, The Ibo and Ibibio Speaking Peoples of South Eastern Nigeria (London: International African Institute, 1950) p.24.

3. West Africa, No. 3253, (19 November 1979) p.2162.

4. ibid.

Fig. 2

THE EMERGENCE OF NIGERIA'S STATES.

1963 (4 Regions).	1967 (12 States).	1976 (19 States).
	1. South Eastern	1. Cross River.
1. Eastern	2. East Central	2. Anambra.
		3. Imo.
	3. Rivers	4. Rivers.
2. Western	4. Lagos	5. Lagos.
		6. Ogun.
	5. Western	7. Ondo.
		8. Oyo.
	6. Kwara	9. Kwara.
		10. Niger.
	7. North Western	
		11. Sokoto.
	8. North Central	12. Kaduna.
3. Northern		13. Benue.
	9. Benue Plateau	14. Plateau.
		15. Gongola.
	10. North Eastern	16. Borno.
		17. Bauchi.
	11. Kano	18. Kano.
4. Mid-Western	12. Mid-Western	19. Bendel.

and added that it was a wonder of modern times that the town had not been hit by some kind of epidemic or another. The same can be said of all the other "urban" areas. Of course the situation is much worse for the rural areas. The only saviour however from total extinction must have been what Nwafor regards as the people's (Ibos) greatest asset - "a copious supply of versatile commonsense and the unique capacity for improvisation"[5].

3. <u>The State Education System.</u>

Education in Nigeria is a shared responsibility between the Federal Government and the State Governments. For example, apart from being solely responsible for university education in the country, the Federal Government subsidises states' expenses on primary, secondary and tertiary education. It also lays down broad guidelines on education for the country but allows each state to work out the details of its own educational programmes on the bases of its own needs, problems and potentialities.

Accordingly, with annual financial assistance from the Federal Government, the Imo State government like the other state governments builds and maintains its own primary and secondary schools, and colleges of education and technology. Each of these units of the Imo State education system is described briefly below.

(a) <u>Nursery Education.</u>

This is the only form of formal education in the state which is not state-owned. It caters for the pre-primary education needs of children between the ages of three and five. Unfortunately there are no published data relating to such pre-primary schools apart from a few national guidelines on nursery education issued by the Federal Ministry

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5. Ifeanyi; Nwafor, "The Ibo Man: An Enigma" <u>Renaissance</u> (10th March 1973) p.13.

of Information in Lagos.[6] It was however estimated that by the end of

September, 1979,   there were about eleven nursery schools in Imo

State.[7]

(b) Primary Education.

Primary Education which begins at the age of six in Imo State

consists of six grades. It became free with the introduction of Universal

Primary Education by the Federal Military Government in September 1976.

Igbo is the language of instruction for the first three years of

primary education in the state. Although English is officially the

language of instruction for the upper grades, Igbo is nevertheless used

persistently by the teachers in instructing their pupils.

Seen as an avenue for secondary education of an academic type,

primary education in Imo state and all over Nigeria aims at the

inculcation of "permanent literacy and numeracy and the ability to

communicate effectively."[8] Subjects taught include the reading, writing

and speaking of Igbo and English; elementary science; mathematics;

civics; religious and moral education; local arts and crafts; games,

folk tales and music. Each teacher teaches all these to a given class.

At the end of the sixth grade, the successful pupils are awarded the

First School Leaving Certificate. In 1974 for example, 45,700 pupils

received such certificates.

The first primary school in what is now known as Imo State was

built in 1892 at Unwana in Afikpo L.G.A. while the second one was built

twelve years later at Umuapu in Ohaji. By 1957 when the former Eastern

Region attained a "self governing" status there were 1,522 primary schools

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6. See Federal Republic of Nigeria National Policy On Education (1977) p.6.

7. Government of Imo State, Nigeria, Handing Over Note From the
    Military Administration to the Civilian Administration (September
    1979) p.23.

8. op.cit., p.7.

in the areas comprising the present Imo State. At the creation of Imo

State by a government decree in February 1976 there were altogether 1,862

primary schools with a total pupil enrolment of 742,206 in the state.

Seven months later (September 1976) primary pupil enrolment in the state

rose by 27 percent to 942,989. That represented 73.36 percent of the 1976

projected population of 1.3 million for all the children aged six to

fourteen in the state. It was estimated that by October 1979, about

1,132,543 pupils will have been enrolled in Imo State primary schools, a

rise of about 20 percent over the 1976/77 enrolment. As can be seen in

Table 1 below, pupil enrolment in the state's primary schools between

1970 and 1977 rose by about 91.11 percent while the primary teacher

population rose by 71.09 percent during the same period.

Although Imo State accounted for about 6.5 percent of the country's

total population in 1976, its primary school enrolment for the same

period amounted to about 10.2 percent of the total national primary

school enrolment. In fact the state had the highest primary school

enrolment in 1977. Table II below shows how the state compared with

the other states in terms of the total national population and the

national primary school enrolment, 1976-1977/78.

Of the 24,892 primary school teachers in the state in 1977, only

18,558 (74.5 percent) were qualified to teach at all, while the rest

numbering 6334 (25 percent) were untrained (See Table III). This

revelation is disturbing bearing in mind as Pedersen says that the

possibilities of improving the quality of education are strongly

influenced by the competence of the human services that school systems

can employ.[9]

9. K.George Pedersen, The Itinerant Schoolmaster, A Socio-Economic
   Analysis of Teacher Turnover (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center,
   The University of Chicago, 1973) p.I.

TABLE   I

SUMMARY OF ENROLMENT AND TEACHERS IN
PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN IMO STATE: 1951-1976/77.

Period	No. of Schools	Enrolment	Teachers	Pupil/Teacher Ratio
1961	2,276	493,426	14,549	34
1962	2,252	481,647	16,044	30
1963	2,123	480,274	13,617	35
1964	2,094	432,844	11,417	38
1965	2,072	440,743	11,320	39
* 1966-69	-	-	-	-
1970	1,994	531,014	15,031	35
1971	1,957	559,109	15,831	36
1972	1,092	666,476	18,788	35
1973	1,077	666,010	17,748	37
1973/74	1,077	690,611	17,748	39
1974/75	1,102	689,653	18,354	38
1975/76	1,862	742,206	18,892	39
1976/77	1,910	942,989	24,892	38

* The civil war years; data not available.

Source: Imo State Government of Nigeria, Annual Digest of Statistics
        (2nd edition, 1977), p.20.

TABLE II

THE STATES' POPULATIONS WITH PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT, 1976-1978.

State	Population 1976	%	Primary Enrolment 1977/78.	%
Anambra	4,936,497	6.4	907,252	9.0
Bauchi	3,337,046	4.4	329,600	3.3
Bendel	3,377,767	4.4	743,370	7.4
Benue	3,331,173	4.3	686,900	6.8
Borno	4,114,180	5.4	360,100	3.6
Cross River	4,773,873	5.2	768,290	7.6
Gongola	3,575,823	4.7	340,300	3.4
Imo	5,040,863	6.6	1,034,790	10.2
Kaduna	5,625,094	7.3	636,000	6.3
Kano	7,926,206	10.3	565,380	5.6
Kwara	2,353,196	3.1	319,020	3.2
Lagos	2,172,419	2.8	404,000	4.0
Niger	1,639,506	2.1	179,860	1.8
Ogun	2,128,760	2.8	299,000	3.0
Ondo	3,746,608	4.9	490,000	4.8
Oyo	7,149,390	9.3	866,400	8.6
Plateau	2,781,663	3.6	463,500	4.6
Rivers	2,360,665	3.1	405,908	4.0
Sokoto	6,229,660	8.1	301,000	3.0
NIGERIA	76,600,389	100%	approx.10,104,670	100

Source: British Council, Education Profile, Nigeria (1979)

<u>TABLE III</u>

<u>TEACHERS IN IMO STATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS BY SEX AND CADRE, 1976/77.</u>

Cadre	Male	Female	Total
Headmaster/Headmistress Grade I	381	86	467
Headmaster/Headmistress Grade II	852	140	992
Headmaster/Headmistress Grade III	1,008	168	1,176
Grade I Teachers	2,057	554	2,611
Grade II Teachers	8,556	1,756	13,312
Untrained Teachers	3,562	2,772	6,334
Total	16,416	8,476	24,892

Source: Government of Imo State of Nigeria, <u>Annual Digest of Statistics</u>

(Statistics Division, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development,

2nd edition, 1977) p.16.

(c) <u>Secondary Education</u>

The form and content of secondary education in Imo State, as indeed

in the other states, are diversified. The state's secondary education

system comprises secondary grammar schools, secondary technical or trades

schools and secondary commercial schools, all of which provide one form or

the other of post-primary education. There is nothing like the English

Comprehensive School system in the state even though many of the schools

go by that name.

The oldest secondary school in Imo State was the Government College at

Umuahia which was established in 1929 while Aggrey Memorial College

Arochukwu was the next, built in 1932. By 1970 the number of secondary

schools in the state had risen to 125. Although the number fell to 96

in 1972 when some of them were either merged or phased out

completely, by 1976/77 the number of secondary schools in Imo State had

risen to 147 - an increase of 53.12 percent over the 1972 figure.[10]

Thirteen secondary technical schools were re-opened at the end of the

civil war in 1970. Six of those were shut down in 1972 and in 1979 there

were only nine secondary technical schools in the state.

By 1976/77 the pupil enrolment in Imo State secondary schools had risen

from the 1970 figure of 39,815 to 107,389, an increase of 169.7 percent;

while the secondary teacher population for the same period rose from

1,818 to 2,683 - an increase of just over 45 percent.[11]

There were 2,258 secondary school teachers in the state in 1975/76

of whom only 503 (ie. 22 percent) were graduate teachers. Ideally, only

university graduates and holders of the Nigerian Certificate in Education

(N.C.E.) are qualified to teach in the secondary schools, and these

together in 1975/76 numbered 916 or 40.56 percent of the entire secondary

school teaching force in the state.

Part of the rhetoric of the state's Educational Services Board has

been to deny the existence of teacher-shortage for as long as they

could recruit secondary school leavers, some of whom do not have good

G.C.E. 'O' level certificates, to teach in the secondary schools. There

were 495 such unqualified secondary teachers during the 1975/76 school

year (see Table IV).

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10. Imo State Government of Nigeria, _Annual Digest of Statistics_ (2nd
    edition, 1977) pp.21-25.

11. These figures are derived from the Imo State Government, _Annual
    Digest of Statistics_ (2nd edition, 1977) p.30.

TABLE IV

IMO STATE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BY SEX AND QUALIFICATION, 1975/76.

Qualification	Male	Female	Total	%
Graduate Teachers	450	53	503	22.27
N.C.E/Dip.Ed. Teachers	334	79	413	18.29
Grade I Teachers (ie C.E.E. A level plus Teachers Certificate)	79	3	82	3.63
Pivotal Teachers (ie G.C.E. O level plus Teachers Certificate)	390	158	548	23.91
* Grade II Teachers Certificate	77	23	100	4.42
G.C.E. A Level Certificate	212	11	223	9.87
* Others (ie below A level)	358	37	395	17.49

* These are not qualified to teach in the secondary schools.

Source: Government of Imo State of Nigeria, Annual Digest of Statistics

(2nd edition, 1977) p.32.

Children enrol in the state's secondary schools at the age of eleven, after having passed a qualifying entrance examination usually conducted by the state's Ministry of Education. Whereas secondary grammar/ commercial education lasts for five years (it will soon be six on the directives of the Federal Government) vocational or secondary technical education lasts for three years.

The grammar schools offer subjects similar to those in the English grammar schools such as English Language and Literature, French, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, History, Geography, Igbo Language, Religious Knowledge, Economics, Health Science, Agricultural Science and Politics. At the end of the five year period, the pupils sit for the

West African School Certificate Examination (WASC) which is equivalent
to the English G.C.E. 'O' Level examinations.

The secondary technical schools on the other hand prepare their
pupils for the City and Guilds Institute of London (CGIL) and the Royal
Society of Arts (RSA) intermediate examinations. Among their subjects
are typing and shorthand, book keeping, office practice, commerce, dress
making, basic cookery and bakery, metal work, woodwork, electrical wiring,
fitting and installations, mechanical drawing, English language and
general science. Generally the products of the technical schools take up
jobs with those industries and firms where they are presumably well paid
among other benefits. Only a few of them go into the public service.
For example in 1970 after the civil war, 114 teachers took up jobs in
the secondary technical schools with a pupil enrolment of 1,403. The
following year, 1971, teacher population in those schools altogether rose
by 68.42 percent to 192 for an increased pupil population of 2,250.
Those were the immediate post war years when the public/civil service
were the only viable employers of labour. Then in 1972 with an apparent
"recovery" of the industrial sector, the population of these teacher-
technicians fell to 181 (a decrease of 5.73 percent) even though the pupil
enrolment for the same period increased by 9.5 percent to 2,464. The
closing down of six of the secondary technical schools later in that year
may not have been unconnected with the acute teacher shortage which in
fact continued into 1973/74 school year. However   since 1975/76 the
situation seems to be improving. For example, the pupil enrolment in
these schools in 1975/76 of 3,509 rose by 13.6 percent to 3,985 in
1976/77 while the teacher population for the same period rose by 17
percent from 199 to 233.[12]

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12. ibid.

(d) <u>Post-Secondary Education</u>

The one-year and the two-year programmes of primary teacher education are the commonest form of post-secondary education in the state. There are however a number of schools which at least nominally offer 'A' level (sixth form) courses, although they hardly ever function effectively due to the non-availability of <u>qualified</u> sixth form teachers and equipment. Regrettably there were no available data on such institutions when this report was being compiled.

The teacher education at this level aims at producing trained teachers for the primary schools.

There were twenty-two such teacher training colleges with student enrolment of 7,692 in 1976/77 offering various programmes[13] for the award of the Grade II teachers certificate. Unfortunately, of the 304 "teacher-trainers" in those colleges by 1976/77, six were <u>untrained</u> while 26 were themselves merely holders of Grade II teachers certificate.

The curriculum in these teacher-training colleges comprises basic academic subjects such as English Language and Literature, Mathematics, Social Studies, Health and Physical Education, Religious and Moral Education, General Science, History, Geography and Igbo; Principles and Practice of Education, Crafts, Fine Arts, and Agricultural Science.

(e) <u>Higher Education</u>

The Federal Government of Nigeria defines higher education as:

> The post-secondary section of the national education
> system which is given in Universities, Polytechnics
> and Colleges of Technology, including such courses

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13. These are: (a) One-Year programme for the holders of G.C.E. 'O' level 5 papers or the West African School Certificate (WASC); (b) Two-Year programme for GCE/WASC attempted; (c) Three-Year Programme for those who had had about 3 or 4 years of secondary school education and (d) the Five-Year programme for primary school leavers. By the end of the 1979/80 school year the five-year programme will have been phased out completely.

> as are given by the Colleges of Education, the
> Advanced Teacher Training Colleges, Correspondence
> Colleges and such institutions as may be allied to
> them.[14]

There are accordingly two institutions providing higher education in Imo State namely, Alvan Ikoku College of Education (AICE) and the College of Technology both of which are situated at Owerri, the state capital.

The Alvan Ikoku College of Education (AICE) was established in 1963 as an advanced teachers' training college designed to 'produce' teachers of intermediate level.

With an initial intake of 150 students in 1963, the AICE had about 4,500 students in 1977/78 school year.[15] Formerly called the Advanced Teachers Training College, the AICE acquired its present name by the Edict No II of May 31, 1973 issued by the government of the then East Central State of Nigeria. Thus renamed after the late Alvan Ikoku (Founder of the second secondary school in the state and one-time president of the Nigerian Union of Teachers) the college was designated by the edict as "an institute for teaching, training and research and shall be a body corporate with perpetual succession". Early in 1979, the college was affiliated to the University of Nigeria Nsukka (UNN) in the neighbouring Anambra State "for purposes of moderation and closer production relationship."[16]

The objectives for which the Alvan Ikoku College of Education (AICE) was established include:

> (a) to hold forth to all classes and communities
> without distinction whatever an encouragement for
> pursuing a regular and liberal course of education;

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14. Federal Government of Nigeria, National Policy on Education (1977) p.14.

15. Imo State Ministry of Education and Information, Imo State Review, (1977) p.14.

16. Imo State of Nigeria, Handing Over Note From the Military Administration To the Civilian Administration (September 1979) p.23.

      (b) to serve as a centre for educational
           research especially as applied to local
           conditions;

      (c) to promote research and the advancement
           of science and learning; and

      (d) to organize, improve and extend education
           of a standard higher than the secondary
           school level.[17]

There were, as of 1978/79, 27 academic departments organized into six

Schools altogether offering 44 subjects in various programmes such as

the N.C.E.Secondary, N.C.E. Teacher Education, and N.C.E. Primary. The

student population for the same period was 2,883 apart from 1,300

students who enrolled in the Extra-Mural Unit for the G.C.E. 'O' and 'A'

levels and the Royal Society of Arts (R.S.A.) examinations. For the

same period too there were 209 tutors, 63 senior administrative and

technical officers and 760 junior members of staff.[18]

The college currently offers a three-year educational programme in

the arts, science and education, the successful completion of which

leads to the award of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (N.C.E.) to

the students. Ideally the N.C.E. qualifies its holders to teach in the

first three grades of the secondary schools as "qualified non-graduate

teachers," but in actual practice they teach up to the fifth forms and

some are even heads of departments in the secondary schools and the

primary teacher training colleges.

The College of Technology is the second and as of now the youngest

of the institutions providing higher education in the state. Established

in June 1977 to train the mid-level manpower for the state's industrial

and business sectors of the economy, the college offers a four-year

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17. "An Address by Professor S.N.Nwosu, Provost, Alvan Ikoku College of
Education Owerri On the Occasion of the College's 11th Convocation
Ceremony" (Dec.9, 1978) pp.5-8.

18. Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Information Bulletin, Vol.5, No.
11, (December 1979) p.6.

Fig. 3.   The structure of the Imo state of Nigeria schooling system, 1980.
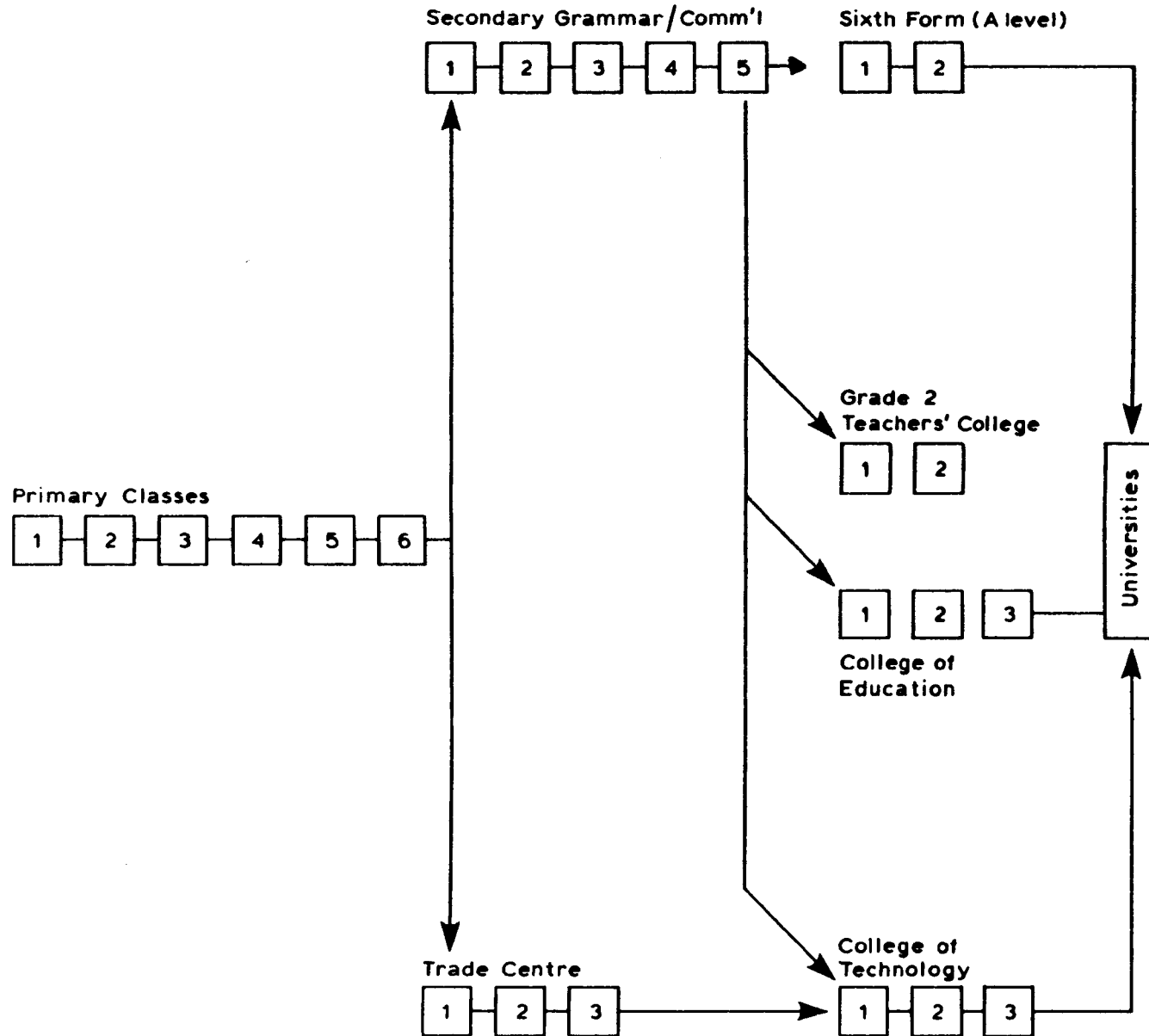
programme of professional studies in Banking and Insurance, Accountancy, Civil/Mechanical/Electrical Engineering, Architecture and Environmental Planning, Business Administration, Secretarial Studies, Agriculture and Fine Art. On the successful completion of their chosen programmes, the students are awarded the Nigeria National Diploma (N.N.D) - an equivalent of the British Higher National Diploma (See Fig.3 for an illustration of the structure of the State's Educational System).

(f) Educational Governance In the State.

The state government, through its Ministry of Education and Information, is currently the sole proprietor and the "provider" of formal education in the state. Charged with "inculcating in the minds of the citizenry generative enlightenment for creating social and economic development",[19] the ministry undertakes specifically to:

    (i) set standards at various levels of formal education;

    (ii) ensure compliance to standards;

    (iii) provide physical structures and facilities for formal learning;

    (iv) evaluate the quality of formal learning;

    (v) liaise with other bodies concerned with education control and delivery;

    (vi) manage post-primary and tertiary educational institutions;

    (vii) produce middle level manpower;

    (viii) place students into secondary schools;

    (ix) use the mass media to maximize the few available high quality teaching resources; and

    (x) maximize knowledge and the utilization of the culture of the people.[20]

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19. ibid, p.22.

20. ibid.

A number of institutions therefore fall within the portfolio of the ministry. They include the State Education Services Board; secondary education; adult education; teacher education; the Education Inspectorate; Standard, Research and Development centre; technical education; special education; the Scholarships Board; Students' Advisory Committee; Extra-Mural education; registration and examinations; textbooks development; and schools services and supplies.[21]

Between 1975/76 and 1978/79 the state's actual expenditure on education was ₦34.835 million (about £28 million), ₦24.3 million short of the planned allocation for the period.[22]

Most of the detailed administration of education in the state is delegated to two allied bodies: the Education Services Board (for the secondary schools) and the Local Education Authorities (for adult education centres and the primary schools).

Apart from the execution of some capital projects, policy formulation and the payment of teachers' salaries, the state Ministry of Education and Information awards a number of scholarships for undergraduate and post-graduate studies. In 1976/77, for example, it awarded 508 scholarships to its "deserving sons and daughters" in various disciplines, 19 of those being for studies in Education.[23] (See Fig. 4 for the Organogram of education management in the state).

21. ibid, p.M9.

22. ibid, annexure 2.4.6.

23. Government of Imo State of Nigeria, _Annual Digest of Statistics_ (1977) p.40.

Fig. 4. Patterns of authority in the Imo state of Nigeria school system, 1979/80.

(Permanent Secretary) State Ministry of Education

(The Chairman) Local Education Authorities

(The Chief Inspector) The Inspectorate

(The Chairman) Education Services Board

Teacher Training Colleges

(The Headmaster) Primary Schools

Secondary Schools

Board of Governors/PTA
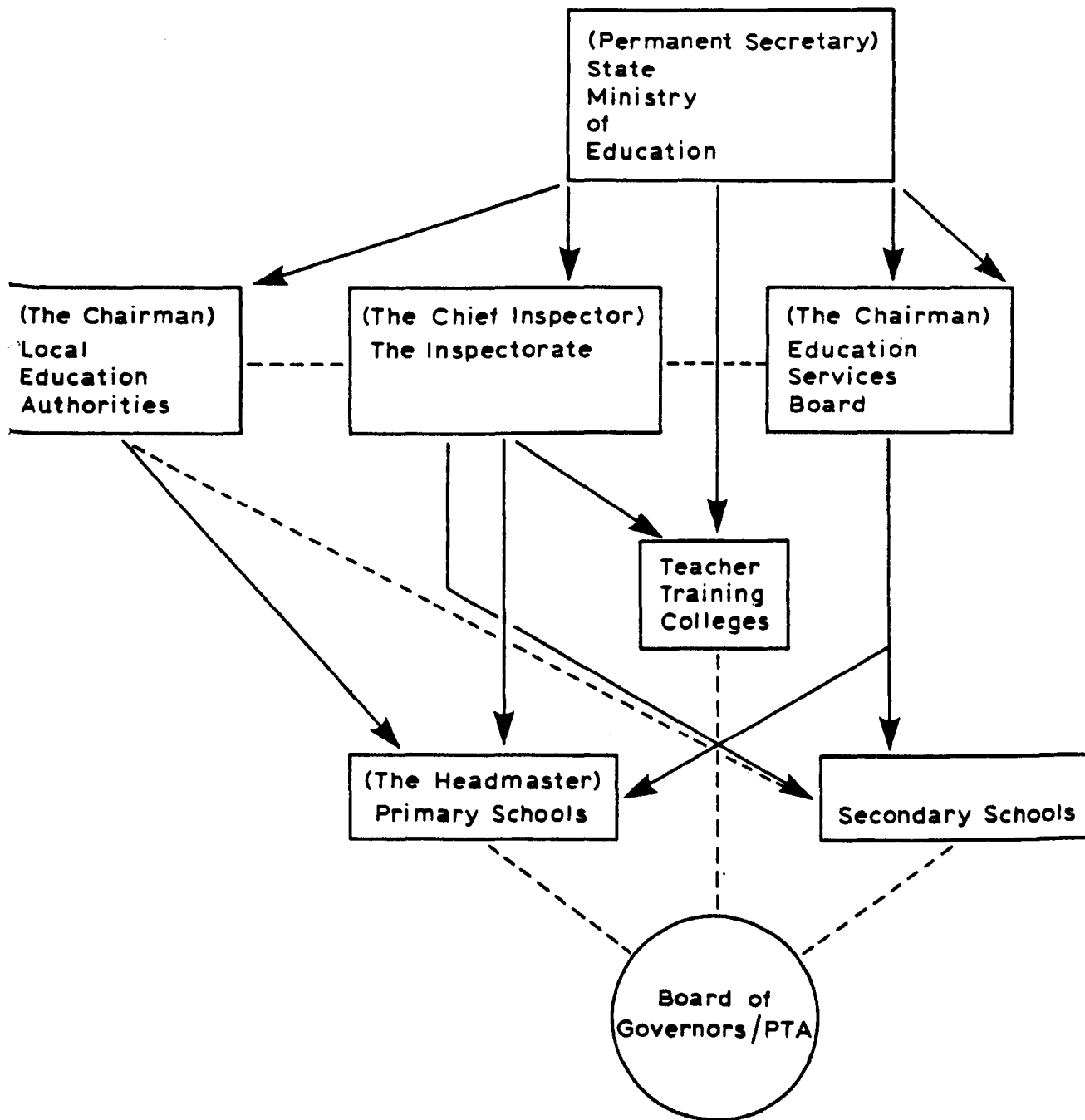
(Formal Authority Flow)

(Consultative Relationships)

CHAPTER TWO

THE PROBLEM

1. Teachers' Grievances and Turnover In Imo State, Nigeria.

The issue of teacher supply and demand has constituted nagging problems

in Nigeria as a whole for some decades now. An extensive enquiry into

this subject was made by Adesina and others between 1970 and 1972 under

the sponsorship of the Overseas Liaison Committee of the American Council

on Education and the British Overseas Development Administration.

According to the report of that study[1], teacher turnover rate in a

sample of fifteen schools in Lagos State was between 30 and 35 percent,

20 to 28 percent in ten sample schools in the then Mid-Western State

(now Bendel State) and approximately 10 percent in the former Western

State (now Ogun, Ondo and Oyo States). Worried that

> Ministries have had to watch both prospective
> and practising good teachers drained from
> the profession into the civil service or the
> private sector by salaries or promotion
> potential that were superior to those which
> teachers received,[2]

the report offered some suggestions which, it was hoped, could help to

attract and retain teachers in the Nigerian schools.

On the 25th of September, 1972 the Federal Military Government of

Nigeria appointed a Public Service Review Commission under the

chairmanship of Chief Jerome O. Udoji, a retired head of the civil

service in the former Eastern Region of Nigeria. The commission was

assigned the task of reviewing "the organization, structure and

management of the Nigerian public service including recruitment, career

and staff development, pensions and superannuations, as well as salary

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1. Report on the Supply of secondary Level Teachers In English speaking
    Africa (Overseas Liaison Committee of the American Council on
    Education) 1974.

2. ibid.

gradings."[3] The teaching service was one of the establishments covered

in the commission's terms of reference. With regard to the teaching service

the commission in its report of September 1974 recommended, among other

things, "a unified grading system and salary policy for the entire

teaching service ... and that principals and headmasters be graded in

accordance with the criteria outlined"[4] for the grading of similar posts

in the other arms of the public service.

In addition, the Public Service Review Commission was to "examine

the possibility of harmonizing remuneration in the public service with

those of comparable positions in the private sector."[5]

An important outcome of the commission's work was the harmonization

of the pay structure throughout the country's public services. Thus

apparently, the teachers were no longer discriminated against in terms of

salaries vis-a-vis the government civil servants. Yet, in spite of this

"Udoji salary Bonanza" to teachers in Nigeria, there seems to persist

still an acute shortage of qualified teachers all over Nigeria.

Obviously there is a large teacher turnover in Nigeria although its exact

dimension is as arguable as that of the elephant described by the blind

men.

Using the stability index[6] as a measure of labour turnover the

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3. Federal Ministry of Information, Lagos. Government Views On the Report of the Public Service Review Commission (December 1974) p.3.

4. ibid, p.26.

5. ibid, p.36.

6. Stability index expresses the number of employees with one year's service as a percentage of the numbers employed at the beginning of the year. This method was used by Allan Williams et al in their study, "Factors Associated With Labour Turnover Among Ancilliary Staff in Two London Hospitals" Journal of Occupational Psychology (1979) Vol. 52, pp. 1-16. The use of survival curves would have been a better measure but could not be used in view of the limited period of the current study.

present writer discovered a teacher turnover of approximately 46 percent in a sample of twelve secondary schools. That figure did not include those who had left the teaching service for further studies.

In spite of the crash programme for the training of teachers at all levels since 1969, pupil-teacher ratio continues to rise every year (See for example Table V below).

TABLE V.

SUMMARY OF ENROLMENT AND TEACHERS IN THE

SECONDARY SCHOOLS, IMO STATE, 1961-1976/77.

Year	No. of Schools	Pupil Enrolment	Teachers	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
1961	46	8,418	504	16.7
1962	74	11,528	690	16.7
1963	73	14,610	824	17.7
1964	92	17,770	1,000	17.7
1965	104	22,433	1,270	17.6
* 1966-69	-	-	-	-
1970	125	39,815	1,818	21.9
1971	126	36,961	1,745	21.1
1972	96	41,548	1,836	22.6
1973/74	114	62,053	1,690	36.7
1974/75	116	68,427	2,224	30.7
1975/76	127	81,996	2,258	33.6
1976/77	147	107,389	2,683	40.0

* The Nigerian civil war years; no data, as there was no schooling then in the state.

Source: Government of Imo State of Nigeria, _Annual Digest of Statistics_, 2nd edition. (1977).

As can be seen in the table above, the pupil - teacher ratio fell

between 1974 and 1976, presumably an indication of the teachers'

optimistic expectations from the Public Service Review Commission. In

1976/77 the situation worsened and may have continued up to the present.

If a rise in the pupil - teacher ratio is an indication of the

turnover rate among teachers, one begins to wonder why that should be

the case in a state which is generally regarded as having more than

enough educated manpower. The present writer visited well over twenty

schools in the state between December 1978 and February 1979. In over

seven of the schools visited, many classes, sometimes up to three in

each school, had no teachers in some subjects. In one of the secondary

schools visited, the headmaster was seen to be teaching up to twenty

periods a week even though he was not supposed to be teaching at all.

Such an apparent shortage of teachers in Imo State does not

necessarily mean a shortage of enough educated men and women in the

state, nor would it be attributed to poor salaries, given the

harmonization of pay structure in the entire Nigeria public service of

which teaching is one.

As Barbash says, in real work life every point along the need

hierarchy has an inescapable money component,[7] but that does not mean

that all that a worker needs to be happy and to stay on the job is

money alone. Were it to be so, teaching would be one of the most

satisfying and stable jobs in Nigeria. Of course, as Williams et al

have observed,[8] apart from the quest for comparative pay or general

economic factors, other broad causal areas from which decisions in

organizations originate have been identified such as organizational

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7. J.Barbash, Job Satisfaction Attitudes Surveys (Paris: OECD, 1976) p.19.

8. Allan Williams et al, "Factors Associated With Labour Turnover Among
    Ancilliary Staff In Two London Hospitals" Journal of Occupational
    Psychology (1979) Vol.52, p.I.

factors and individual factors. For example, even before the Udoji

Public Service Review Commission of 1972-74, several commissions had had

to be appointed to look into the teachers' conditions of service and

recommend ways of improving the teachers' lots. Prominent among the

commissions were those of Asabia (1965) and Adebo (1970). And between

1955 and 1965, the teachers' salaries had been up-graded five times. And

as Adesina remarks,

> The biggest windfall came in 1975 with the
> Udoji Commission which not only recommended
> equal treatment for teachers but proposed a
> national salary scale that increased the
> salaries of certain categories of teachers
> by over 100 percent ... Thus at least on
> paper Nigerian teachers are entitled to
> the same salaries and benefits as other
> people working in the Federal and State
> public service.[9]

(Table VI illustrates the astronomical rise in the teachers' salaries

over the years). The teachers' reception of the Udoji Commission's

recommendations was on the whole enthusiastic; yet ever since then

strikes and "work-to-rule" actions have continued to bedevil the entire

Nigerian teaching service, thus lending support to Williams, et al's

assertion above.

In spite of the fact that education students enjoy automatic

government scholarships in the Nigerian universities, not many

undergraduates opt for educational studies. In 1977/78 school year, for

example, only 12.7 percent of the undergraduates enrolled in Education

while the Arts and Science had 34.3 percent and 38.4 percent enrolment

respectively. Similarly whereas 1.2 percent of the higher degree students

studied Arts, 1.7 percent Science, only 0.7 percent were in Education.[10]

9. S.A.Adesina, Planning and Educational Administration In Nigeria, (Lagos: Educational Industries Nigeria Limited, 1977) p.159.

10. The British Council, Education Profile, Nigeria (1979) p.C3.
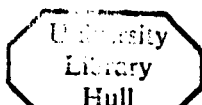
TABLE VI.

STARTING SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN NIGERIA (1974 AND 1975) IN NAIRA.

	1974	1975	% increase
Primary			
Grade I	830	1,908	129.8
Grade II[a]	644	1,584	145.9
Grade II[b]	584	1,440	146.6
Secondary			
Graduate (trained)	1,764	3,414	93.5
Graduate (untrained)	1,680	3,264	94.3
NCE	1,536	2,496	62.5
Vocational			
Salaries as NCE	1,536	2,496	62.5
Polytechnics			
Principal	6,100	9,996	63.9
Senior Lecturer	5,030	7,104	41.2
Lecturer Grade I	3,810	5,460	43.3
Lecturer Grade II	2,760	4,368	58.2
University			
Professors	6,660	9,996/11,268	51.4/70.7
Associate Professor	6,100	8,868	45.3
Senior Lecturer	5,030	7,764	54.3
Lecturer Grade I	3,810	6,444	69.1
Lecturer Grade II	2,760	5,460	97.8
Assistant Lecturer	2,140	4,368	104.2

Note: One Naira (N1) is half a former Nigerian Pound which was roughly
equal to a Pound Sterling. With recent currency fluctuations, the
Pound has fallen in value and a Naira is about £0.80. To translate
Pounds to Naira, divide by 10 and multiply by 8 e.g. N200 = £160 (as
in April 1980).

Source: S.A.Adesina, Planning and Educational Administration in Nigeria,
(Lagos: Educational Industries Nigeria Ltd., 1977) p.161.

Two explanations can be proffered: either there were limited places for students in Education, or the discipline did not offer enough attraction to the applicants.

Most disturbing was Professor Durojaiye's findings in a small scale survey he conducted in 1977. Final year students of the University of Lagos Faculty of Education were asked if they hoped to remain in the teaching "profession" by 1981. Only 9 percent of the Nigerian Certificate in Education students, 5 percent of the bachelor's degree students and 16 percent of the post-graduate students gave an "unqualified yes." That finding led Durojaiye to conclude painfully that "the image of the teaching profession is not attractive to those would-be secondary school teachers."[11] Such an obviously low commitment to teaching by the future teachers and the apparent high teacher turnover may be due to factors other than salaries.

A one time colleague of the present writer was very pleased when he was transferred from his school headship position (ie principal) to the state's Ministry of Education as inspector of schools even though that meant no change whatsoever in his salary grade

The present writer knows also of a good number of Imo state graduate teachers who preferred to teach in some neighbouring states in spite of there being no difference in salaries between the states.

According to the N.U.T., the teachers' plight is "essentially the story of a group that has been left standing still in a world of change."[12] The teachers' grievances seem to revolve around,

> Low pay, long hours without overtime,
> overwork, poor career prospects, lack of
> social status and series of empty promises
> (which) are the root of growing crisis and

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11. M.O.A. Durojaiye, _Investment In Man_ (University of Lagos Inaugural Lecture Series, 1978) p.28.

12. A.A.O. Ezenwa and S.K. Babalola, "N.U.T: This Is Our Case" _NUT Newsletter._ (April 1978) p.4.

discontent among Nigerian teachers in all
institutions of learning.[13]

At the wake of its "trade dispute" on August 7, 1978 the Imo State

wing of the N.U.T. made a representation to the state government and

demanded "the provision of infrastructure and facilities for effective

learning and teaching in our primary and post-primary schools",[14] payment

of leave allowance and house rent subsidy; teachers' participation in the

management of schools, and the avoidance of "injudicious transfers of

teachers."[15]

In October 1978 the Imo state wing of the N.U.T. expressed happiness

and satisfaction with the way their grievances had been handled. It is

reasonable therefore to expect harmony and greater job satisfaction among

the teachers after their "successful" negotiation with their employers.

But that does not seem to be so in view of the apparent exodus of

qualified teachers (mostly graduates) to other states' teaching service

and to the private sector of the economy generally. In the present

writer's local government area, six out of a total of nineteen graduate

teachers in four secondary schools were known to have left the state in

order to teach in the two neighbouring states of Bendel and Benue between

September and December 1978.

In an interview with a senior official of the State's Educational

Services Board on 10 December 1978 the present writer was told inter

alia,

> We shall soon discover that no one wants to
> teach here as most of our teachers continue
> to desert us for the so-called greener
> pastures. One day we may all have to take
> our children home and teach them ourselves.

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13. ibid.

14. S.A.Osuagwu and F. Wosu Ezi, "The Imo State Teachers' Case as
    Presented by the Nigeria Union of Teachers, Imo State Wing, this
    7th day of August 1978, Vol. I" (Owerri: N.U.T., 1978) p.I.

15. ibid.

> These teachers can never be satisfied in
> spite of our efforts to improve their
> conditions. Do most of their principals
> not earn more than most of us serving on
> the board?....[16]

In other words, that official thinks that the teachers in the state are

an insatiable lot. But a headmaster told the writer in another

interview:

> The biggest misfortune for any twentieth
> century Nigerian is to become a teacher.
> The teacher has no name; he has no status;
> his former pupils think he is a fool or a
> failure as soon as they leave him to
> become this or that. Most of those
> bossing me from the ministry were my
> pupils at one time or another. Forget
> about it all, only the teacher can save
> himself from this degradation.[17]

It might be reasonable to argue that neither the State Education

Services Board nor the N.U.T. is to be believed absolutely when it says

that the teachers are happy or dissatisfied. The ultimate and most

reliable "verdict" must come from the teacher himself, hence this study

which has to be seen as a sort of "action research" rather than as a

study to merely test some theories. That is not to say however that

this study was atheoretical because "data without theory is chaos."[18]

2. The Rationale For this Study.

John Newton who was at one time the president of the Trade Union

Congress (Britain) was reported to have said at a mass rally of the

union in 1969 that:

> Where work gives little or no satisfaction
> to the workers, where there is no freedom
> to exercise talent or skill, where men and
> women do not determine how they do their

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16. & 17. Materials in quotation but which are unidentified as to source
          like the above comes from personal interviews and letters in
          line with a commitment of non-attribution of interviewees and
          correspondents.

18. E.E.Lawler III, Motivation In Work Organizations (Monterey,
    California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1973) p.63.

work, they have during their working
lives, lost their identity as
individuals ....[19]

If it is true that dissatisfaction with one's work has debilitating

effects on the mind of the dissatisfied worker, would it not be

reasonable to try and ascertain the reasons for such feelings of

dissatisfaction among workers with a view to improving their work

situations? A dissatisfied worker is said to be a disgruntled worker

and he is easily alienated from his employing organization. Alienation,

says Lynda Taylor, manifests itself in many ways such as voluntary

absence from duty, bad time keeping and uncertified sickness. She further

argues that when workers go sick or turn up late for work, for most of

the time it is because they do not like their jobs, "because they are

made sick by their jobs."[20] It thus seems reasonable to argue that a

study to discover possible reasons for the feeling of alienation by

workers in any particular setting is a legitimate concern.

Maher and Piersol have quoted Willard Witz, the United States

Secretary of Labour in 1968, as advising, for example, that

We had better start trying to find out what
kinds of jobs satisfy people. We had better
get over the idea that the purpose of
employment is to satisfy the needs of an
economy and we had better develop the idea
that employment is to satisfy the desires
of individuals ....[21]

This is one of the reasons why the study reported here aimed at finding

out how satisfied or dissatisfied the teachers in Imo State of Nigeria

were with various aspects of their job.

19. Quoted in: Lynda King Taylor, Not For Bread Alone, pp.20-21.

20. ibid.

21. John R.Maher and Darrell T.Piersol, "The Motivation to Work:
     Outlook for the Future" in J.R.Maher (ed). New Perspectives in Job
     Enrichment, (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1971) p.I.

As long as people go to work so long will job satisfaction studies continue to be important, in view of the disruptive effects of workers' dissatisfaction or organizations. For example job dissatisfaction has been found to have negative effects on a person's life especially with regard to his physical and mental health.[22] According to Kalleberg, worker dissatisfaction also "affects the quality of organizational functioning in terms of increased quit rates, lower productivity and increased industrial (organizational) conflict."[23]

In addition this interest in job satisfaction is considered to be necessary because effective responses by employees to their job conditions have in recent times formed the bases for a lot of different organizational development strategies as well as forming an invaluable aspect of work and job design strategies.[24]

Some people may question the reasonableness of this concern for the job satisfaction of teachers whose rewards were supposed "to be in heaven", teachers who work in situations with "no clear distinction between the administrative, executive and labour forces" and whose world of work is "not, thank God, like the abrasive industrial world."[25] The present researcher, while not disputing that there are differences between the industrial world and that of education, thinks that the differences are in terms of degree rather than kind.[26] As Simmons

22. James O'Toole (ed) <u>Work and the Quality of Life</u> Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1974).

23. Arne Kalleberg, Work Values, Job Rewards and Job Satisfaction: A Theory of Work Experience. (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1975) p.171.

24. See, for example, David G.Bowers, "OD Techniques and their Results in 23 Organizations: the Michigan ICL study "<u>Journal of Applied Behavioural Science</u>. 2. (1973); Vol.9, pp.21-43.

25. R.T.Spooner "Delegation Finds Real Meaning Down the Line". <u>Supplement to Education</u> (June 20, 1975) pp. vii-ix.

26. The arguments in support of this assertion can be found in C.Bidwell, "The School as an Organization" in J.G.March (ed) <u>Handbook of Organizations</u> (Chicago: McNally, 1965).

rightly argues, "in the teaching profession where turnover [and attrition] is very common and effectiveness is often questioned [as in Nigeria] attitudes concerning the job are crucial."[27]

Education in Nigeria is aimed at, among other things,

> The inculcation of national consciousness
> and national unity;
>
> The inculcation of the right type of values
> and attitudes for the survival of the
> individual and the Nigerian society;
>
> The training of the mind in the understanding
> of the world around; and
>
> The acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities
> and competencies both mental and physical, as
> equipment for the individual to live in and
> contribute to the development of his society.[28]

These are lofty and worthwhile aims, the attainment of which depends considerably on a dedicated and inspired teaching force; and as Paul Woodring says, "the question facing the schools is how to attract more of the ablest men and women into the profession ... and how to retain them in the face of competition from other professions."[29]

If there are certain identifiable factors which could be said to account for teachers' job attitudes it is necessary for them to be identified and measured. Such an exercise can be of immense benefit in such societies as Nigeria where, as Adesina has observed, there is a persistent high rate of teacher turnover and attrition.[30] Such identification and analyses of factors affecting teachers' job attitudes

27. Robert M. Simmons, "The Measurement of Factors of Teacher Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Teaching." (PhD. Dissertation, The University of Tennessee, 1970) p.I.

28. Federal Ministry of Information, Lagos, Nigeria. National Policy On Education, 1977, p.5.

29. Paul Woodring, New Directions In Teacher Education (New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957) p.8.

30. S.A.Adesina, Planning and Educational Administration In Nigeria, (1977) p.56.

could be valuable to the appropriate authorities in designing teacher-education programmes because, as Robert Simmons says,

> If an administrator knows beforehand what
> is of most concern to his teachers, what
> is of most satisfaction, and what is of
> most dissatisfaction, then in-service or
> teacher training programs should become
> relevant to teaching and learning.[31]

It may be pertinent to point out at this juncture that a teacher's job attitudes can be affected also by a number of non-work-related factors such as health and family relationships which are unique to him. However as Goldthorpe and his colleague have argued, workers' lives cannot be sharply dichotomised into work and non-work. Self concepts and social aspirations formed inside work organizations can carry over into non-work activities and personal relationships.[32] Satisfaction at work may also lead to happiness outside work and _vice-versa_. According to Wiggins and Steade,

> One's future quality of life will depend
> on an acceptable total life-pattern that
> includes increased satisfaction in the
> job segment. In this scheme the development
> of people and their satisfaction in
> meaningful jobs will become a corporate
> social goal that parallels the proper
> utilization of other resources to meet
> society's needs.[33]

Such spill-over relationships between work and non-work have been identified also in Rousseau's study in which she found "experiences characterizing work positively related to non-work experiences."[34] In fact Orpen has affirmed that "the direction of causality from work to

31. Robert M.Siggons, op.cit.

32. John H. Goldthorpe, David Lockwood, Frank Bechhofer and Jennifer Platt, The Affluent Worker: Industrial Attitudes and Behaviour, (Cambridge University Press 1968) p.40.

33. R.L.Wiggins and R.D.Steade, "Job Satisfaction as a Social Concern" Academy of Management Review (1976) Vol.I, p.50.

34. Denise M.Roussea, "Relationship of Work to Nonwork" Journal of Applied Psychology (1978) Vol.63, No.4, p.513.

non-work satisfaction is stronger than in the opposite direction"[35]

thus repudiating London et al's earlier finding that "feelings from work

and leisure are in no way related."[36] Brayfield reconciles these

seemingly contradictory assertions in his suggestion that "when the job

is perceived as important in the life scheme ... general satisfaction

becomes a function, in part at least, of job satisfaction."[37]

Generally there seems to be a popular support in the literature of

occupational sociology for a spill-over in the work-non-work relationships

more than there is for a compensatory or negative relationship between work

and nonwork satisfaction. Whichever is the true case however, it is

advisable, according to Kalleberg, to

> explain as much of the variation in job satisfaction
> as can be attributed to work related factors ...
> based on the assumption that one can understand the
> true nature of this attitude most effectively by
> examining such characteristics ... since it is the
> factors that are associated with the work place
> that are most readily open to manipulation and
> change.[38]

The teacher is a fundamental and an indispensable agent in the

development of the youths' potentialities and abilities. He certainly

occupies a position of transcedental importance in the world and the

affairs of men and women. Any study that aims at finding means of

encouraging teachers to stay happily in their jobs should therefore be

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35. Christopher Orpen, "Work and Nonwork Satisfaction: A causal Correlational Analysis" Journal of Applied Psychology (1978) Vol. 63, No.4, p.530.

36. M.London, et al, "The contributions of Job and Leisure Satisfaction to Quality of Life" Journal of Applied Psychology (1977) Vol.62.

37. Arthur Brayfield et al "Inter-relationships Among Measures of Job Satisfaction and General Satisfaction." Journal of Applied Psychology (1951) Vol.35, p.205.

38. Arne L.Kalleberg, "Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction." American Sociological Review (1977) Vol.42, pp.140-141.

regarded as a useful exercise. Besides, such a study, as Dunham and Smith say, "should be able to contribute to the theory and application of motivation, attitudes, behaviours and preferences within organizations."[39] Because job dissatisfaction and turnover have potentially critical consequences both for the individual himself and the organization, this study was considered worthwhile.

An attempt was also made in this study to ascertain the degree of importance which the teachers in Imo State, Nigeria ascribed to various work-related values. The validity of the hypothesis that the work values held by individuals in any organization constitute an intervening variable between performance and job satisfaction is no longer a matter of conjecture. Several major research studies reflect the conclusion that "the effect of job performance on job satisfaction is a function of the degree to which performance entails or leads to the attainment of the individual's job values."[40] Korman made use of the notion of "self concept" in his own study, arguing that

> Individuals will tend to find most satisfying
> those job and task roles which are consistent
> with their self-cognitions. Thus, to the
> extent that an individual has a self-cognition
> of himself ... then to that extent he will
> find most satisfying those situations which
> are in balance with these self perceptions.[41]

The suggestion here therefore is that a teacher's job satisfaction is a function of the "fits" between the values which he seeks to fulfil through teaching and the rewards which teaching provides him. In fact Nancy Morse had earlier postulated that the rewards provided in a job

39. Randall B. Dunham and Frank J.Smith, Organizational Surveys (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foreman and Company 1979) p.155.

40. Edwin A.Locke, "Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Theoretical Analysis." Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance (1970) Vol.5, p.485.

41. A.K.Korman, "Task Success, Task Popularity and Self Esteem as Influences in Task Liking" Journal of Applied Psychology (1968) Vol. 52 p.485.

were not the only factors that influenced a person's job attitudes.
According to her, another factor had to be included in order to predict
job satisfaction more accurately and that factor was "the strength of an
individual's desires or his level of aspiration in a particular area."[42]
She then found that when "the environment provided little possibility for
need satisfaction, those with the strongest desires or highest aspirations
were the least happy."[43]

Work has meant many things to men throughout history. The evaluation
of a person's job satisfaction demands therefore not only a consideration
of the extent of the rewards that the job provides but also an
examination of the person's valuation of such rewards. As Goldthorpe
et al argue:

> The question of satisfaction from work cannot
> in the end be usefully considered except in
> relation to the more basic question of what we
> would term orientation towards work. Until one
> knows something of the way in which workers
> order their wants and expectations relative to
> their employment - until one knows what meaning
> work has for them - one is not in a position to
> understand what overall assessment of their job
> satisfaction may most appropriately be made in
> their case.[44]

Besides the need to ascertain the nature of the linkage between
teachers' job satisfaction and work-values, this aspect of the study
provides a base for examining the level of the teachers' professionalism."
Concern with the nature of "profession" and "professionalism" has been a
recurring theme in the literature of occupational sociology. The
generally reached conclusion in a typological approach which seeks to
identify major characteristics separating occupational groups from each

42. Nancy Morse, Satisfaction In the White-Collar Job (Ann Ahbor,
    Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1953) p.28.

43. ibid.

44. John H.Goldthorpe et al, cop.cit., p.36.

other is that these characteristics can be identified as expertise, commitment, responsibility, autonomy and corporateness.[45] These defining criteria however are essentially derived from an ideal type model which is heavily dependent on the identification of the professional as a sole practitioner remunerated by fees. Consequently, a number of major analytical and methodical problems arise when individual occupations are evaluated according to these agreed characteristics. Such problems are particularly noticeable when attention is paid to the role and the function of teachers as professionals.

For a long time now teachers in Imo state have been angry over the state government's, as well as the larger society's apparent failure to recognize and treat them with respect as they do to other professionals like the medical doctors, engineers and accountants. The average trained teacher says he is a professional although generally teaching has been categorized as a "semi profession", a "bureaucratic profession", a "marginal profession" or an "ambiguous profession."[46]

One of the attributes of a true profession is the extent to which that occupational group endorses the service ideal (a sort of altruism) instead of material gains. There appears to be increasing evidence on both the national and the international scale that militant teachers are prepared to postulate demands far removed from the altruistic self-image. However as Janowitz says, "to be discontented does not automatically mean a loss of professionalism; some of the discontent may

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45. These attributes have been discussed extensively by the various contributors in J.A.Jackson (ed.) Professions and Professionalization (C.U.P., 1978).

46. See for example; T.Leggatt, "Teaching as a profession" in J.A. Jackson (ed). Professions and Professionalization (Cambridge University Press, 1970). Blanche Geer, "Occupational Commitment and the Teaching Profession" The School Review (1966) pp.31-47, and M.Liberman, Education as a Profession (Prentice-Hall, 1956).

well be legitimate and require political solutions."[47]   Not long ago

Peregrine Worsthorne came up with a statement which in a way inclined to

Janowitz's opinion. According to Worsthorne,

> Now that most people no longer believe in
> getting their rewards in Heaven, they are
> that much more insistent about getting them
> here and now. They want Utopia in the
> present instead of being prepared to wait for
> it in the future ... The death of God, in
> short, has given a new urgency to life.
> Ideals must be encompassed on earth or not
> at all. Where there used to be christian
> patience and resignation, there is now a
> far sharper edge to human aspirations.[48]

The prevalence of such discontent and the manner of protests suggest

that the postulated self-image with its rhetoric of professionalism

merits further analysis and consideration. It has to be asked whether

this is a transistory phenomenon resulting from international economic

pressures, or whether we are indeed witnessing, as Lortie observes,[49] a

steady shift from the more passive consensual politics of earlier

decades to a more utilitarian, calculative perception in which greater

emphasis is placed on the efficacy of strikes and allied sanctions as a

means of attaining enhanced extrinsic reward. To look further therefore

at this self image, the present writer selected as an indication of

professional attitudes and preferences, the work-values held by the Imo

State teachers, hoping that such a study would help to place the states

teaching service in its true perspective as an occupatinal group.

Furthermore, the finding from the study could be of immense value to

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47. Morris Janowitz, "From Institutional to Occupational, The Need for
     Conceptual Continuity" Armed Forces and Society (1977) Vol. 4,
     No.I. p.52.

48. Peregrine Worsthorne, "When Politics Take God's place." Sunday
     Telegraph (August 12, 1979) p.16.

49. Dan C.Lortie, School Teacher: A Sociological Study (Chicago:
     The University of Chicago Press, 1957) p.12.

those who design teacher education programmes at least in the state.

3. Research Questions

Certain questions were of paramount importance in the researcher's mind right from the onset of this study. The questions, listed below, formed the major foci of the study.

(a) To what extent were teachers in the Imo State primary and secondary schools satisfied (or dissatisfied) with their job conditions?

(b) Which aspects of the teachers' jobs were most satisfying or dissatisfying?

(c) Did the teachers' perceptions of their job satisfaction differ according to their sex, age, educational qualifications, years of teaching experience?

(d) Were there differences in the perceived job satisfaction of urban and rural teachers?

(e) What work-values were valued most/least by the teachers?

(f) What relationships, if any, existed between the teachers' valuation of the various work-values and their personal characteristics?

(g) What relationships could be said to exist between the teachers' job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and their work-values?

As stated earlier, the course of this study was charted along those questions.

PART   TWO

LITERATURE   REVIEW

From some you learn directly by
restating systematically what the
man says on given points or as a
whole; some you accept or refute,
giving reasons and arguments;
others you use as a source of
suggestions for your own
elaborations and projects.

- C.Wright Mills "On Intellectual
  Craftsmanship" The Sociological
  Imagination (Penguin Books, 1959) p.223.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS.

1. The Concept of Job Satisfaction.

Ever since the pioneering efforts of Hoppock[1] and Houser[2], research and theory on the nature, causes and correlates of job satisfaction have mushroomed. By 1969, for example, it was estimated that the number of job satisfaction studies might well have exceeded four thousand.[3] This interest in the subject rests on the assumption that a satisfied worker is invariably an efficient and effective employee. The postulate of a positive relationship between employee motivation and subsequent morale and assumed happiness dates back to Frederick Taylor's "Scientific Management" theory which asserts that identity of interests between the employer and the employee gives rise to the workman getting what he wants most (high wages) and the employer what he too wants (a low labour cost).[4] In spite of the much publicised controversy over Taylor's thesis, of much more interest and significance in this study is his awareness of the need to evolve a person-organization fit[5] a notion considered to be the essence of job satisfaction studies.

Although there has been an enormous output of literature on job satisfaction written by industrial and occupational sociologists and psychologists, there is yet to emerge a universally acceptable definition

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1. J.Hoppock, Job Satisfaction (New York: Harper and Row, 1935).

2. J.D.Houser, What People Want From Business (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938).

3. M.M.Gruneberg, Job Satisfaction: A Reader (London: Unwin Brothers Ltd, 1976) p.x.

4. See M.L. Blum and J.C.Naylor, Industrial Psychology (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1968) p.575.

5. The notion of Person-Organization fit is very well discussed in Enid Mumford, Job Satisfaction (London: Longman, 1972) pp.210-213.

of job satisfaction. Yet it is becoming increasingly "a coherent body of research in industrial psychology, industrial sociology, organizational behaviour and what has come to be known as behavioural science in general."[6]

Whereas some writers equate job satisfaction with "employee attitude", others regard it as "industrial morale". For Blum and Naylor, "Job satisfaction is anything an author measures when he thinks he is measuring job satisfaction" - an indication of the difficulty of defining job satisfaction in precisely meaningful terms. This problem has been articulated by Katz and Maanen for whom,

> There is perhaps no area in the social sciences
> fraught with more ambiguity, conflicting opinion,
> or methodological nuance than that of work (job)
> satisfaction ... It is indeed a complex,
> cumbersome and many sided concept for which
> simple schemes do not exist.[7]

It is however far from being a waste of effort to try to define job satisfaction because, as Locke says, "if one wishes to measure some phenomenon accurately, one must first know what it is one wants to measure."[8] Therefore an attempt will be made to locate "job satisfaction" within a conceptual framework of analysis.

Satisfaction is a term used by psychologists to describe "the state of an animal with respect to a need when that need has been fulfilled."[9] Thus to be satisfied, according to Longman Modern English Dictionary, is to be happy or free from some desire or need by being supplied with what one desires, needs or wants. In other words satisfaction per se connotes happiness and a state of well being as an outcome of need-fulfilment. It

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6. J.Barbash, Job Satisfaction Attitudes Surveys (Paris, OECD: Industrial Relations Programme, 1976) p.8.

7. Ralph Katz and John Van Maanen, "The Loci of Work Satisfaction" in Peter Warr (ed), Personal Goals and Work Design (London: John Wiley and Sons, 1976) p. 173.

8. Edwin Locke, "What is Job Satisfaction?" Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance (1969), Vol.4, p.310.

9. Sheila Cameron, Job Satisfaction, The Concept and Its Measurement. (London: Work Research Unit, Dept. of Employment, 1973) p.1.

is <u>an internal subjective state, a psychological feeling of contentedness</u> which is best reported by those who are experiencing it. This idea of well-being can be extended to job satisfaction to mean the sum total of a person's feelings as to the extent to which his needs have been met in his job.

Vroom sees job satisfaction as "the positive orientation of an individual towards the work role which he is presently occupying,"[10] thus inclining to Locke's definition of job satisfaction as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values."[11]

Guion describes job satisfaction as "the extent to which the individual needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation."[12]

These definitions have one thing in common: a recognition of the fact that an individual's expression of job satisfaction is an emotional affective personal response as a result of his estimation of the degree to which some fact of job reality is congruent or incongruent with his values. In order therefore to understand or describe an individual's job satisfaction one needs to have a good understanding of that individual's total personality and value system because, according to Harri's theory of "Psycho-Economics" cited by Doll,

> ... man earning a livelihood is not an economic
> abstraction, nor a badge number, nor a static,
> nor a digit on a ledger, but a whole human
> personality.[13]

However as Cameron points out, none of these definitions incorporates

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10. V.H.Vroom, <u>Work and Motivation</u> (New York: Wiley and Sons, 1964) p.99.

11. Edwin Locke, op.cit.

12. R.Guion, "Industrial Morale 1: The Problem of Termination." <u>Personnel Psychology</u> (1958), Vol.11, pp.59-64.

13. Larry Doll, "A Multidimensional Study of Job Satisfaction and Performance" (Doctoral Dissertation, Washington University, 1973) p.2.

an "equity-type consideration." Briefly stated, equity theory asserts that "even if a man's job satisfies his needs, he will not express satisfaction with it if he perceives some comparable job as satisfying his needs better or with less effort required."[14]

Job satisfaction is not simply a matter of need fulfilment; although an individual's needs may be fulfilled, his feeling of satisfaction will depend very much on whether he thinks that he compares favourably with other people in similar jobs, positions or places. The notion of equity is therefore to be seen as an important element in the definition of job satisfaction. Cameron for example argues that for the concept of job satisfaction to be meaningful, it must incorporate various elements, such as

> (a) a feeling of positive affect (ie a good feeling)
>
> (b) produced by satisfaction of important needs,
>
> (c) in conjunction with a feeling that those needs could not have been better or more easily satisfied in a comparable job,
>
> (d) such perceptions being with respect to the job as a whole.[15]

It is interesting to note that Cameron's definition above not only embodies the "need for equity" consideration but also emphasizes a "total" approach to the study of job satisfaction. Zaleznik, Christenser and Roethlisberger think that such an approach is desirable because,

> The individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction is determined by his total situation at work and at home, in every aspect of his life. Disaffections in one aspect of life, say work, spill over and become disaffections in another ... the study of satisfaction should attempt to understand the individual as intensively as possible; to see

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14. Sheila Cameron, *Job Satisfaction, The Concept and Its Measurement* (London: Work Research Unit, 1973) p.I.

15. ibid.

his world as he sees it and to sense the meaning
of experience for him.[16]

Some people often use "job satisfaction" and "morale" interchangeably
and are unmindful of the existence of a subtle difference between the two.
Whereas for example job satisfaction may be ascribed to individuals,
morale is a group phenomenon depicting a "willingness to strive for the
goals of a particular group"[17]; "a condition of congruent motivation among
members of a group resulting in relatively high levels of energy
expenditure toward common goals."[18] Even when morale is defined in terms
of individual persons, it relates to the individual's motivation to
"pursue with others the common goal of the group of which he is a member."[19]
In spite of these subtle differences there is certainly some degree of
relatedness between morale and job satisfaction. Roach's factor analysis
of the morale components, for example, has yielded twelve factors among
which are "intrinsic job satisfaction" and "satisfaction with progress
and chances for progress."[20] That is to say that job satisfaction is a
component of employee-morale; it precedes high morale.[21]

The study reported here views job satisfaction as a unitary concept
representing, according to Zaleznik and his colleagues, a state of mind
in the individual which has no single referent;[22] "a combination of

16. A Zaleznik, C.R.Christensen and F.J.Roethlisberger, The Motivation,
    Productivity and Satisfaction of Workers: A Prediction Study (Boston:
    Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, 1958)
    pp. 256-257.

17. Morris S. Viteles, Motivation and Morale In Industry (New York: W.W.
    Norton and Company, Inc., 1953) p.12.

18. R.A.Katz, "Measurement of Morale" Personnel Psychology. (1958) Vol.11,
    p.83.

19. P.B.Applewhite, Organizational Behaviour (Prentice-Hall, 1965) p.23.

20. D.E.Roach, "Dimensions of Employee Morale." Personnel Psychology.
    (1958) Vol.11, pp.419-431.

21. Egon G.Guba, "Morale and Satisfaction: A study in Past-Future Time
    Perspective" Administrative Science Quarterly (1958) Vol.3; pp.195-209.

22. A. Zaleznik, et al, op.cit.

psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes

a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job.'"[23] Therefore

the conceptual framework which forms the basis of analysis in this study

is that which describes job satisfaction as,

> a function of the importance attached, by
> the workers, to the extent to which needs
> are generally met in the work situation
> relative to the way in which these workers have
> ordered their wants and expectations
> (orientation to work).[24]

In other words, it is argued in this study that teachers' perceptions of

their job situation will be directly related to the values which they

place on the various aspects of their job and its environment as

sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

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23. J.Hoppock, op.cit., p.47.

24. Kevin J.Russell, "Variations In Orientation to Work and Job
     Satisfaction" Sociology of Work and Occupations (1975), Vol.12,
     no.4, p.305.

2. <u>Need Satisfaction Theories</u>.

To understand better the nature of job satisfaction it might be
appropriate to look first at the nature of human needs because,
according to Kuhlen,

> Satisfaction with occupation should be a
> function of the discrepancy between personal
> needs and perceived potential of occupations
> for satisfying needs, particularly among
> those for whom occupation constitutes a
> major source of satisfaction ....[1]

There is no doubt that human behaviour is nearly always aimed at
achieving certain goals and needs. But as Lynda Taylor asks, "what are
these needs?"[2]

An attempt has been made to present below some of the many theories
of human needs especially with regard to man in an organization. However,
in view of the enormous number of studies which bear on need-satisfaction
theories, it has been almost impossible to present a comprehensive summary
and citations of everyone of them in this report.

Apart from a brief review of the need-satisfaction theories, an
attempt has also been made to summarise some of the essential elements of
the nature of the linkages between one's job satisfaction, job performance
and work values. This is necessary because of the feeling that one cannot
understand why a person is satisfied or dissatisfied with a particular
aspect of that person's job unless one has an insight into that person's
assessment of various related work values. Equally important is the
feeling that unless there is some connection between job satisfaction and
job performance, the whole exercise of job satisfaction studies will have
been put in vain. Thus a review of the various postulations on job
satisfaction - job performance relationships has also been included in

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1. Raymond G.Kuhlen, "Needs, Perceived Need Satisfaction Opportunities and
   Satisfaction with Occupation" in M.Gruneberg, <u>Job Satisfaction</u> p.3.

2. Lynda Taylor, <u>Notes on Job Enrichment and Motivation</u>. (London: Work
   Research Unit. Paper No.9). p.2.

this chapter.

McGregor thinks that man works because work is as natural as play or rest. He elaborates this assertion by postulating that to be alive is to be active and doing things and that work is a form of activity.[3]

Psychologists as well sociologists agree that work is indeed a form of activity and that like any other activity it is pursued in order to achieve certain goals. Those goals for which individuals strive are as complex as the individuals themselves. They are not as simple as Taylor assumes when he says that,

> the interests of the employer and the employee
> are the same and (that) this system makes it
> possible to give the workman what he wants most -
> high wages - and the employer what he wants -
> a low labour cost.[4]

Common sense would at least point to the fact that the complexity of human behaviour is hardly ever the result of a single motive. As Blum and Naylor have observed quite pertinently,

> the decision to strike, to quit the job, to
> ask for a salary rise, to talk back to the boss,
> or to argue with a coworker rarely, if ever,
> results from a single motive, regardless of
> the fact that the employee, when requested to
> explain his actions may give a single reason.
> Known or unknown to him at the time are the
> consequences of satisfying the various
> physiological needs and the social drives
> operating in the situation and in him.[5]

This reflects Mills's remark made nearly three decades ago. According to him, work may be a mere source of livelihood or the most significant part of one's inner life; work may be undertaken as an expiation or as an exuberant expression of self; as a bounden duty or as the development of

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3. This is fully discussed in D.M.McGregor, _The Human Side of Enterprise_ (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

4. Cited in M.L.Blum and J.C.Naylor, _Industrial Psychology_, p.575.

5. ibid, p.330.

of man's universal nature.[6]

(a) <u>Maslow's Theory of Needs Hierarchy</u>.

This theory is based on the assumption of a state of imbalance or disequilibrium in an individual which he or she seeks to restore to normality or to a state of homeostatis.

Human needs, according to Maslow, can be classified into five distinct hierarchical categories ranging from the lowest to the highest order needs: physiological; safety; love; esteem; and self-actualization.[7]

<u>The Physiological Needs</u> are those basic needs of the human organism which are controlled by chemical and neu ral conditions within the body. They include food, water, air, sleep and sex. According to Smith and Wakely these needs can be grouped into those which are "lacks" and lead to intakes (e.g. hunger and sex) and those which are "distensions" and lead to outputs (e.g. sex and excretion).[8] Maslow regards these physiological needs as the most urgent of all needs.

<u>Safety Needs</u> constitute the second group of Maslow's needs hierarchy; they are the needs of an individual for an environment that is free from threat to his or her needs. "The safety needs involve the avoidance of such physically harmful situations as excessive heat and cold, poisonous chemicals, accidents and pain."[9]

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6. C.Mills, <u>White Collar: The American Middle Classes</u> (New York: OUP, 1951) p.215. See also Max Weber, <u>The theory of Social and Economic Organization</u> (New York: OUP 1947) for a discussion on the "Protestant Ethic" - an injunction to hardwork as a calling in order to make the earth "the mirror of divine majesty".

7. A.H.Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation" <u>Psychological Review</u> (1943 Vol.50, pp.370-396.

8. Henry C.Smith and John H. Wakeley, <u>Psychology of Industrial Behaviour</u> (1972), p.41.

9. ibid.

Maslow argues that like physiological needs, safety needs

> may serve as the most exclusive organizers
> of behaviour, recruiting all the capacities
> of the organism in their service and we may
> then fairly describe the whole organism as a
> safety-keeping mechanism.[10]

Safety needs manifest themselves in various ways such as,

> the very common preference for familiar
> rather than unfamiliar things or for the
> known rather than the unknown ... (it) is
> seen as an active and dominant mobilizer
> of the organism's resources in emergencies
> e.g. war, disease, natural catastrophes,
> crime waves, societal disorganization,
> neurosis, brain injury and chronically bad
> situations.[11]

Love Needs rank third in Maslow's needs hierarchy. These relate to an individual's need for affection from other people: the need to be accepted by one's colleagues or peers. Love needs manifest themselves in the individual's hunger for friends, sweetheart, wife, children and a general longing for affectionate relationship with others.

Next in Maslow's order of needs come Esteem Needs which, according to Blum and Naylor, are "the need for self-respect, self-esteem and for the esteem of others."[12] Maslow sub-classifies esteem needs into those which relate to the desire for strength, achievement, adequacy and self confidence and those which relate to a desire for reputation or prestige. He then argues that

> satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads
> to feelings of self confidence, worth, strength,
> capability, and adequacy of being useful and
> necessary in the world. But thwarting of these
> needs produces feelings of inferiority, of
> weakness and of helplessness. These feelings
> in turn give rise to either basic discouragement
> or else compensatory or neurotic trends.[13]

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10. A.H.Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation" In V.H.Vroom and L.Edward Deci (eds). Management and Motivation. (Penguin Books,1970) p.30.

11. ibid.

12. Blum and Naylor, Industrial Psychology, p.331.

13. A.H.Maslow, cited in V.H.Vroom et al, op.cit, p.32.

The Need for Self-Actualization, the last and the highest in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, refers to an individual's search for self-fulfilment. It is "the desire to become more and more what one is capable of becoming."[14] In a job situation this need, it is argued, manifests itself in the desire to do work that is itself satisfying and rewarding; a desire or need to achieve one's full capacity for doing a thing. G.W.Allport calls it "creative becoming" or, in the words of Karen Horney, "the real self and its realization."[15] Self actualization is considered to be a "growth need" while the rest are regarded as "deficit needs" which must be satisfied before any "growth" can take place. Maslow argues that not everyone can function on the self-actualization level. For him self-actualizing persons are essentially motivated by the sheer enjoyment which they derive from using and developing their capacities. He makes the point that

> ... we must construct a profoundly different
> psychology for self-actualizing people, e.g.
> expression motivation or growth motivation
> rather than deficiency motivation. Perhaps it
> will be useful to make a distinction between
> living and preparing to live. Perhaps the
> concept of motivation should apply to non-self
> actualizers. Our subjects no longer strive in
> the ordinary sense, but rather develop more
> and more fully in their own style ... For them
> motivation is just character growth,
> character expression, maturation and
> development; in a word, self-actualization.[16]

There has been a growing tendency to regard Maslow's needs-hierarchy as a fixed quantum but Maslow himself has emphasized that "it is not nearly as rigid as we may have implied."[17] In fact there is ample

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14. ibid.

15. These are briefly summarized in a tabular form in Edward Lawler III, Motivation In Organizations (Brooks/Cole Publishers, 1973) p.25.

16. A.H.Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, Inc. 1970).

17. A number of exceptions to this hierarchical structuring of needs are discussed in V.H.Vroom and E.L.Deci (eds). Management and Motivation (Penguin Books, 1970) pp.35-41.

evidence of overlap among these allegedly discrete want-systems.[18] Even

so, as Wilcox argues, in point of fact man in the aggregate sense does

not behave on Maslow's schema.

> It is true that when man's belly is filled
> with bread new needs emerge - for cakes and
> ale. If it were otherwise there would be
> only cloth coats and no mink coats; Chevrolets
> but no Cadillacs; and no walnut baskets in
> offices, only utilitarian metal.[19]

In other words, and this is most reasonable, satiety is not necessarily

determined by innate biological drives as Maslow affirms but is mostly

affected by cultural norms and values.

Maslow's identification of various human needs is much more important

than his ordering them into a hierarchy which may or may not be adequate.

Much depends on an individual's other characteristics such as his

idiosyncratic talents and constitutional peculiarities.

Friedlander in his study, of the relative importance of job aspects

for 1468 government employees, has shown that Maslow's hierarchy of needs

theory cannot claim universal applicability. Self-actualization needs

were found to be more important to white collar workers while

interpersonal values were more important to blue-collar workers.[20]

It may be useful to present hereunder a summary of some of the

findings from a series of researches on Maslow's model by L.W.Porter

as reviewed by Blum and Naylor:

> 1. The vertical location of management
>   positions appears to be an important
>   variable in determining the extent to
>   which psychological needs are fulfilled;

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18. See B.Schneider and C.P.Alderfer, "Three Studies of Need Satisfaction in Organizations" Administrative Science Quarterly (1973) Vol.18 pp. 189-505.

19. Herbert G.Wilcox, "Hierarchy, Human Nature and the Participative Panacea" Public Administration Review (1969) Vol.29, pp.55-56.

20. F.Friedlander "Comparative Work Value System." Personnel Psychology (1965) Vol.18, pp.1-20.

2. The greatest differences in the
   frequency of need fulfilment
   deficiencies between bottom and
   middle management positions occur
   in the esteem, security and autonomy
   area. These needs are significantly
   more often satisfied in middle than
   in bottom management;

3. Higher order psychological needs are
   relatively the least satisfied needs
   in both bottom and middle management;

4. Self actualization and security are
   seen as more important areas of need
   satisfaction than the areas of social
   esteem and autonomy by individuals in
   both bottom and middle management
   positions;

5. The highest order need of self-
   actualization is the most critical
   area of those studied in terms of
   both perceived deficiency in
   fulfilment and perceived importance
   to the individual ....[21]

Porter's findings as reported above validate at least, among other

things, Maslow's thesis that self-actualization is the highest need and

one which is not easy to attain. In a recent work, Maslow describes

self-actualizing people as those who

> are gratified in all their basic needs (of
> belongingness, affection, respect and self
> esteem) ... they have a feeling of
> belongingness and rootedness, they are
> satisfied in their love needs, have friends
> and feel loved and love worthy, they have
> status and place in life and respect from
> other people, and they have a reasonable
> feeling of worth and self respect.[22]

It seems reasonable therefore to expect that those who are self-

actualized will experience greater satisfaction with their jobs than

those who are not. This self-actualized person is an approximation

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21. M.L.Blum and J.C.Naylor, op.cit, pp.332-336.

22. A.H.Maslow, The Further Reaches of Human Nature (Hammondsworth
     England: Penguin Books, 1971) p.289.

to the ideal personality who, "already suitably gratified in his basic needs may now according to Maslow, be motivated in other ways to be called "metamotivation. (See Appendix 3-A for Maslow's theory of metamotivation).

Thus for Maslow, man has an almost perfect human nature which is genetically programmed, so to say, for the ultimate attainment of the highest ideal. But again, as Wilcox argues, "the multitudes upon the face of this globe - the indulged and the deprived alike - are engaged in debasing competition and conflict for earthly goods, serving low level needs."[23] Examples abound on the pages of our dailies of highly placed and affluent officials allegedly corrupting their positions for meagre material gains.

In spite of the various criticisms of Maslow's theory such as that it is florid, idealistic and sometimes vague, its strength lies, as earlier mentioned, in its conceptualization of the complex nature of human needs or motivation. Besides, it has paved the way for a positive forward-looking posture in personnel management - a broad leap from and over the principles of scientific management. The theory is useful at least in appraising or determining the value of an incentive system relying on graduated increase in pay.

Applewhite explains it thus:

> Money will provide what is necessary to satisfy
> the more basic needs of hunger and safety from
> the elements, but after a point another form
> of environmental return is necessary.
> Interpersonal relationships provide a return
> that can satisfy the belongingness need - an
> increase in pay cannot, per se, satisfy this
> need. Hence no increase in pay will motivate
> the individual to work for psychological
> returns which are not forthcoming with monetary
> rewards.[24]

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23. Herbert G.Wilcox, "Hierarchy, Human Nature and the Participative Panacea." Public Administration Review (1969) Vol.29, pp.55-56.

24. Philip B.Applewhite, Organizational Behaviour (Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall, 1965) p.18.

The theory has in one way or another influenced a number of organizational theorists such as McGregor in his Theory X and Theory Y based on the assumption that human motives are arranged in a hierarchical order of prepotency.[25] Chris Argyris's work on the conflict between the individual and the organization may have been influenced, directly or indirectly, by Maslow's notion of Self-actualization.[26] Beer too used Maslow's concept in his investigation of the interrelationships among employees' needs, leadership and motivation;[27] Doll also adopted Maslow's concepts for his own study.[28] For thus provoking further thought and research at least, Maslow should be honoured for his initiative.

(b) The E.R.G. Theory.

The E.R.G. theory is Alderfer's formulation in reaction to Maslow's thesis of hierarchy of human needs.[29] Based on a three dimensional conceptualization of human needs of existence, relatedness and growth (E.R.G.) as the core needs which every individual strives to satisfy, the E.R.G. theory purports to invalidate Maslow's claim of a lower level need satisfaction as an antecedent for the rise of a higher-order need.

In place of Maslow's physiological and safety needs, EXISTENCE in Alderfer's terms relates to different types of material and bodily needs or wants. They include hunger, thirst, monetary rewards and the physical

25. D.McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

26. C.Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley and Sons. Inc. 1964).

27. M.Beer, Leadership, Employee Needs and Motivation (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1966).

28. Lary D.Doll, A Multidimensional Study of Job Satisfaction and Performance (Ph.D. Dissertation, Washington University, 1973).

29. C.P.Alderfer, "An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs." Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance (1969) Vol. 4, pp. 142-175.

environment of the place of work. According to Alderfer, "one of the basic characteristics of existence needs is that they can be shared among people in such a way that one person's gain is another's loss when resources are limited."[30] He illustrates this point by saying that,

> When a salary decision is made that provides
> one person or group of people with more pay,
> it eliminates the possibility of some other
> person or group getting extra money. This
> property of existence needs frequently
> means that a person's or group's
> satisfaction beyond a bare minimum depends
> upon the comparison of what he gets with
> what others get in the same situation.[31]

The next of Alderfer's three core needs is RELATEDNESS. Similar to Chris Argyris's notion of "authentic relationships",[32] relatedness needs refer to interpersonal relationships with "significant other people." These significant others include, according to Alderfer, one's family members, superiors, peers, friends, subordinates and of course one's enemies.

Satisfaction of relatedness needs rests on cooperation and mutual sharing of thoughts and feelings by people. This attribute distinguishes it from existence needs the satisfaction of which discountenances mutuality. "Acceptance, confirmation, understanding and influence are elements of relatedness process" and so is "the exchange or expression of anger and hostility a very important part of meaningful interpersonal relationships."[33] Thus the dissatisfaction of relatedness needs, in Alderfer's view, manifests itself not necessarily in anger or hostility but mainly in a "lack of connectedness." Relatedness needs would seem to parallel Maslow's love and esteem needs (See Fig. 5 below).

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30. ibid, p.145.

31. ibid, p.146.

32. C.Argyris, <u>Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness</u> (Homewood, Illinois: Irwin Dorsey, 1962).

33. C.P.Alderfer, op.cit., p.146.

FIG. 5.

Relationships Between Maslow's Need Hierarchy and ERG Needs.

Maslow Categories.	ERG Categories.
Physiological	Existence
Safety - material	
Safety - Interpersonal	Relatedness
Belongingness (social)	
Esteem - Interpersonal	
Esteem - self - confirmed	
Self - actualization	Growth.

Source   Benjamin Schneider and Clayton P. Alderfer, "Three Studies
of Measures of Need Satisfaction in Organisations"
Administrative Science Quarterly (1973) Vol.18, p.490.

GROWTH is the last, by no means the least, of Alderfer's three core-needs. Like Maslow's self-actualization needs, the "satisfaction of growth needs comes from a person engaging problems which call upon him to utilize his capacities fully and may include requiring him to develop additional capacities."[34] Alderfer then argues that all needs can be concurrently active. However, in spite of Alderfer's spirited denial of any implication of ordering or prepotency among his E.R.G. needs theory, his notion of the "concreteness" of these needs implies a subtle hierarchichal structuring of those needs. According to Alderfer, relatedness needs are less concrete than existence needs while growth needs are the most sublime, almost an abstraction. He states that "the continuum is from more to less varifiability and from less to more potential uncertainty for the person."[35] One may extend the logic by saying that the continuum is also one of from more to less attainability. So that although Alderfer insists on there being nothing about the definitions of the needs that implies an ordering among them; the fact that one set of needs is achieved more easily than another (or is more concrete than another) connotes a hierarchical structuring of some sort.

One important aspect of the E.R.G. theory is its rejection of Maslow's postulation that some "needs cease to play an active determining or organizing role as soon as they are gratified."[36] Alderfer presents a different point of view in his E.R.G. theory in which he claims that "one way in which a satisfied need can remain a motivator is if it is activated through serving as a substitute for some other need which itself is not

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34. ibid. p.147.

35. ibid. p.151.

36. A.H.Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation." Psychological Review (1943) Vol. 50, p.393.

being satisfied."[37]

What does an employee mean when he or she says "I am satisfied with my job."? A number of such theories which have been propounded to answer the question are briefly discussed below.

(c) The Fulfilment Theory.

Believing that "work is a special area of human behaviour" and that "whatever psychological mechanisms operate to make people 'satisfied' or 'dissatisfied' in general, also make them satisfied or dissatisfied in their work", Robert H.Schaffer has developed a "simple" conceptual approach to job satisfaction. Known as the fulfilment theory, it states that

> Overall job satisfaction will vary directly
> with the extent to which those needs of an
> individual which can be satisfied in a job
> are actually satisfied. The stronger the
> need, the more closely will job satisfaction
> depend on its fulfilment.[38]

In other words fulfilment theory is based on an assumption that the extent to which an individual feels satisfied or dissatisfied depends on the strength of his or her needs and desires and the degree to which he can visualise and make use of opportunities in the job situation for the satisfaction of those needs.

According to Sheila Cameron, fulfilment theory suggests that job satisfaction is determined by finding out how much of each valued outcome an individual is receiving, the total of which is weighted for the importance of each class of outcome to provide a measure of total job satisfaction.[39]

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37. C.P.Alderfer, op.cit, p.154. (This has led Alderfer to a number of propositions which have been tested against Maslow's theory of needs. For a full report on this issue, see Clayton P.Alderfer, op.cit, pp. 154-175).

38. R.H.Schaffer, "Job Satisfaction as Related to Need Satisfaction in Work." Psychological Monographs (1953) Vol.67 No.14), p.3.

39. Sheila Cameron, Job Satisfaction: The Concept and Its Measurement (London: Work Research Unit Mimeograph), (1953), p.5.

Schaffer's fulfilment theory recognises twelve categories of needs
(see Appendix 3-B). A questionnaire formulated to test (a) the strength of
each of the twelve need categories, (b) the degree to which each of the
needs was being satisfied in the individual's job and (c) the individual's
overall job satisfaction was used by Schaffer. The study sample consisted
of 72 employees (37 professional-managerial; 20 clerical sales; 8 skilled
and 6 semi-skilled) in four different organizations (an industrial
manufacturing plant, a department store, a government agency and a
vocational guidance agency) - a sample "obviously atypical of the total
working force", according to Schaffer himself. Schaffer's investigation
reveals that, as reported by self-ratings, creativity and challenge,
mastery and achievement and helping others (similar to Maslow's high-order
needs) are the strongest needs while independence, socio-economic status
and dependence are the weakest.

Schaffer's findings support Robert Ardrey's remark that

> To know who you are : to achieve
> identification in the eyes of your
> special partners; to sense a
> fulfilment of the uniqueness that
> in truth was once yours as a
> fertilized egg, I submit that is
> the ultimate motive ... The
> hungry - psyche has replaced the
> hungry belly.[40]

It is the view of the present writer that all of Maslow's, Herzberg's,
and Schaffer's theories are just subtle variations on the same theme.
Simmons succinctly summarizes this point of similarity by stating that,

> In a comparison of Maslow's theory
> and Schaffer's study with Herzberg's
> theory, it is apparent that common
> dimensions exist. Recognition,
> Achievement and Interpersonal
> relations cut across each other.

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40. Robert Ardrey, The Social Contract. (London: William Collins Sons &
    Co, 1970) p.91.

> The need to have one's self-
> expression dimension and the
> need to become everything that one
> is capable of becoming as contained
> in Maslow's self-actualization
> dimension both seem to complement
> the work - itself dimension of
> Herzberg's theory. This is
> especially true if the work-itself
> is considered as a source of a
> person's self-expression and self-
> actualization.[41]

Researchers who adopt the fulfilment theory approach in measuring people's job satisfaction do so by simply asking them to say or indicate how much of a given job - reward aspect they are getting. But as Locke has indicated elsewhere,[42] peoples' job satisfaction seems to be a function not only of how much they receive but also of how much they feel they should receive. This view invalidates the fulfilment theory approach to job satisfaction which does not seem to recognise individuals' differences in the way they feel about what rewards they should receive. Morse recognises this shortcoming of the fulfilment theory when he states:

> At first we thought that satisfaction
> would simply be a function of how much
> a person received from the situation or what we
> have called the amount of environmental return.
> It made sense to feel that those who were in
> more need - fulfilling environments would be
> more satisfied. But the amount of
> environmental return did not seem to be the
> only factor involved. Another factor
> obviously had to be included in order to
> predict satisfaction accurately. This
> variable was the strength of an individual's
> desires, or his level of aspiration in a
> particular area. If the environment provided
> little possibility for need satisfaction,
> those with the strongest desires, or highest
> aspirations, were the least happy.[43]

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41. Robert M.Simmons, "The Measurement of Factors of Teacher Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction In Teaching." (Ph.D.dissertation, The University of Tennessee, 1970) p.61.

42. E.A.Locke, "What is Job Satisfaction?" Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance. Vol.4, pp.309-336 (1969).

43. N.C.Morse, Satisfaction In the White-Collar Job (Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, Survey Research Centre, 1953) pp.27-28.

This idea that people can and do differ in their desires and wishes is the theme of the discrepancy theory.

(d) <u>The Discrepancy Theory.</u>

The discrepancy theory is based on the assumption that individual differences in values and need-strengths have much bearing on the degree to which a person experiences job satisfaction. It affirms that a person's job satisfaction is a function of the differences between the real outcomes which that person receives from the job and some "other outcome-level". Discrepancy theorists however tend to differ on their definitions of this "other outcome level".

For Katzell, for example, satisfaction is equal to 1 - (X-V)/V in which case, X represents the <u>actual amount</u> of the outcome while V equals the <u>desired amount.</u>[44] Unlike some other discrepancy theorists, Katzell conceptualizes satisfaction as the difference between the actual and the desired outcomes, divided by the desired amount of outcome. Following Katzell's formulae, getting more than the amount of outcome desired produces less satisfaction than getting just the desired amount. But as Lawler observes, Katzell has not offered any evidence for this assumption and one finds it difficult to support logically.[45]

Locke states a variant form of discrepancy theory. According to him, "job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering."[46]

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44. R.A.Katzell, "Personal Values, Job Satisfaction and Job Behaviour" in H.Borow (ed), <u>Man In a World at Work</u> (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964).

45. Edward E.Lawler, <u>Motivation in Work Organizations</u> (Monterey, California: Brooks /Cole Publishing Company, 1973) p.67.

46. E.A.Locke, "What is Job Satisfaction?" <u>Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance</u> (1969) p.316.

In Porter's own view, there are two important considerations in estimating a person's job satisfaction. Those are, an understanding of the person's ideal wishes and a self-rating of the actual real situation. Therefore to measure a person's job satisfaction Porter proposes two questions:-

(a) a "How much should there be?" type of question, and

(b) a "How much is there now,?" question.

A measure of job satisfaction is then derived from summing up the discrepancy between the two descriptions on each job facet. Also included in Porter's instrument is an "Importance" variable.

Porter's approach differs in a very subtle way from other approaches. For example it perceives job satisfaction as being influenced by how much a person feels he <u>should</u> receive rather than by the extent of his <u>wants</u>.[47] Although one may think that the two concepts are almost the same, Wanous and Lawler have indeed established the fact that people respond in different ways to the questions of how much they want and how much they should receive.[48]

One major weakness of the discrepancy theory in general seems to be its silence, so to say, concerning how people decide what their outcomes ought to be. Equity theory attempts an explanation.

(e) The Equity Theory.

According to Black's Law Dictionary,

> equity denotes the spirit and the habit of
> fairness, justness, and the right dealing
> which would regulate the intercourse of men
> with men, - the rule of doing to all others

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47. L.W.Porter, "Job Attitudes In Management:I: Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfilment as a Function of Job level" Journal of Applied Psychology (1962) Vol.46, pp.375-384.

48. J.P.Wanous and E.E.Lawler. "Measurement and Meaning of Job Satisfaction" Journal of Applied Psychology (1972) Vol.56, pp.95-105.

as we desire them to do to us; or as it is
expressed by Justinian, "to live honestly to
harm nobody, to render to everyman his due."[49]

The whole notion of equity theory is based on the foregoing definition.
Essentially a motivation theory, Equity theory asserts that the main way
in which a person evaluates his job is by comparing his own work
experiences with those of another person. Therefore according to equity
theorists, a person's feeling of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is
a product of one or two calculations: (a) a computation of the ratio
of the person's job inputs (such as educational qualifications, experience
and skill, age and effort) to the outcome he gets from the job (e.g. pay,
status and fringe benefits) and (b) an attempt to relate these to those
of a "comparison other." The person's job satisfaction/dissatisfaction is
said to depend on the favourableness or the unfavourableness of the result
of this comparison. In other words, the focus of equity theory is on the
fact that the outcomes of any process of exchange can be perceived as
just or unjust.

The theory of equity applies more specifically to pay-satisfaction.
It holds the view that a worker can be happy and satisfied with his pay
and other benefits only if he perceives that what he is getting is "fair"
or just in comparison with what someone else with similar backgrounds and
in a similar position is receiving. Thus according to Sheila Cameron,
equity theory postulates that "even if a man's job satisfies his needs, he
will not express satisfaction with it if he perceives some comparable job
as satisfying his needs better or with less effort required."[50] So the
greater the discrepancy between the ratios of input to output, the greater the

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49. Henry Campbell Black, <u>Black's Law Dictionary</u> (St.Paul, Minnesotta:
    West, 1957) p.634.

50. Sheila Cameron, <u>Job Satisfaction, The Concept and Its Measurement</u>: p.1.

inequity and its attendant job dissatisfaction. For example Lawler's model

views pay satisfaction as a function of both "perceived amount that should

be received" and "perceived amount of pay received."[51] According to

MacEachron,

> Pay satisfaction is predicted when
> the perceived amount that should be
> received equals the perceived
> amount of pay received. When pay
> outcomes are perceived as less than
> they should be, pay dissatisfaction
> results. When pay satisfaction
> exceeds what they should be,
> feelings of "inequity or discomfort"
> arise.[52]

In other words, according to the theory of equity, individuals usually

examine two ratios:

(i) the ratio of the person's perceived outcomes (Op) to his

perceived inputs (Ip); ie $\dfrac{Op}{Ip}$

(ii) the ratio of the person's perceptions of the "comparison other's"

outcomes (Oo) to the comparison other's inputs (Io); or $\dfrac{Oo}{Io}$

These two sets of ratios are then compared and the result may take one of

the following forms:

(a) $\dfrac{Op}{Ip} = \dfrac{Oo}{Io}$ (a state of perfect equity);

(b) $\dfrac{Op}{Ip} < \dfrac{Oo}{Io}$ (a state of inequity in which case that person perceives

that he is far worse than the "comparison other";

(c) $\dfrac{Op}{Ip} > \dfrac{Oo}{Io}$ (he perceives his own outcomes to be far higher than the

"comparison other".

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51. E.E.Lawler, (Pay and Organizational Effectiveness: A Psychological View
    (New York: McGraw Hill, 1971) p.215.

52. Ann Elizabeth MacEachron, "Job Level, Individual Differences and Job
    Satisfaction." (Doctoral Dissertation-Cornell University, 1975) p.91.

In terms of equity theory therefore, overfulfilment is as undesirable as underfulfilment although, as Lawler points out, dissatisfaction due to overfulfilment is less prevalent than that which is due to underfulfilment because it is relatively easy for an individual to magnify or exaggerate his perception of his inputs in order to justify to himself a higher reward level.[53]

The claims of equity theory have in fact been substantiated by researchers such as Klein and Maher, and Milkovich and Campbell whose studies[54] have shown that for a given level of pay, those employees who possess higher education or think that they achieve higher performance than others are the least satisfied.

Most researchers who employ the equity model in their studies tend to overlook the issue of ambiguity with regard to an individual's interpretation of inputs and outcomes. Take for example a hypothetical case of a teacher who is most often assigned the task of helping newly employed teachers to familiarise themselves with their new work-place: the school system. An observer might interpret this situation in a number of ways: he could see this either as high input (the teacher teaches as well as inducts others for no extra pay) or as a high outcome (he has higher status and a more interesting job). This ambiguity underlies any manager's predicament in his attempt to predict when inequity would be perceived by his subordinates.

No doubt, one of the strengths of equity theory is its inclusion of interpersonal processes or what Adams calls "social comparison."[55]

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53. E.E.Lawler, "Attitude Surveys and Job Performance" Personnel Administration (1967) Vol.30, pp.22-24.

54. S.M.Klein and J.R.Maher, "Educational Level and Satisfaction With Pay" Personnel Psychology (1966) Vol.19, p.195. G.T.Milkovich and K. Campbell, "A Study of Jaques' Norms of Equitable Payment" Industrial Relations (1972) Vol.2, pp.267-271.

55. J.S.Adams, "Inequity in Social Change" in L.Berkowitz (ed), Advances In Experimental Psychology (New York: Academic Press, 1965) pp.267-299.

It must however be understood that sometimes a worker could evaluate the outcomes he gets from his job as equitable or inequitable based on some "composite internal standards" which may not necessarily be tied to a group or a "comparison other." Weick calls this phenomenon, "equity in the social isolate." According to him,

> If internal standards are used in place of social standards, then a person should experience equity when his inputs are in alignment with his outcomes regardless of whether both are low or high. When inputs and outcomes are unequal, as in the case where a person works hard; yet is paid very little, tension would be expected, even if the person's comparison person had high inputs and low outcomes. The fact that someone shares his plight would not be sufficient for him to experience equity.[56]

Weick's observation above highlights the importance of one's value system as a moderator of one's job expectations. Another factor often neglected by equity theorists is the role of outside-work-behaviours or phenomena as other sources of feelings of equity or inequity with job outcomes. A man with a large family for example might feel unhappy with his job outcomes (e.g. salary) even when they are fairly comparable with what a "comparison other" with no family, for example, gets from his job situation. It thus seems an insoluble task to try and predict with reasonable accuracy when a worker is likely to perceive equity or inequity with regard to his job rewards (See Fig.6).

(f) Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.

Known also as the Motivation-Hygiene theory, the two factor theory is the result of an investigation into the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of engineers and accountants by Herzberg, Mausner and

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56. Karl E. Weick, "The Concept of Equity In the Perception of Pay." Administrative Science Quarterly (1966) Vol. 11, pp. 414-439.

Fig. 6.

A MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION BASED ON THE THEORY OF EQUITY.

Skill
Experience
Training
Effort
Age
Seniority
Education
Company loyalty
Past performance
Present
  performance

Level
Difficulty
Timespan
Amount of
responsibility

Perceived outcomes
of referent others

Actual outcomes
received

Perceived personal
job inputs

Perceived inputs
and outcomes of
referent others

Perceived job
characteristics

Perceived
amount that
should be
received a

Perceived
amount
received b

$a = b \rightarrow$ satisfaction
$a > b \rightarrow$ dissatisfaction
$a < b \rightarrow$ guilt, inequity,
            discomfort

Source: From Motivation In Work Organizations, by E.E.Lawler III. Copyright c 1973
       by Wadsworth, Inc. Reprinted by permission of the publishers, Brooks/Cole
       Publishing Company, Monterey, California.

Snyderman.[57] The central theme of this theory is that those factors which relate to one's job satisfaction are, in qualitative terms, different from those which are associated with job dissatisfaction.

In the survey conducted by Herzberg and his colleagues, five factors stand out as the determinants of job satisfaction, namely achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility and the work itself. These have been labelled "motivators" or "satisfiers."

On the other hand such other factors as organizational policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations and work conditions said to be related to job dissatisfaction, according to Herzberg, et al are apparently not so important as determinants of job satisfaction. These latter are thus known in Herzberg et al's terms as "dissatisfiers" or "hygiene factors." - a medical analogy in which although the absence of hygiene factors such as refuse bins may make people unhealthy, increasing their number beyond an "acceptable level" will not necessarily make them any healthier.

Hinrichs and Mischkind summarizing the core of Herzberg's theory state that,

> motivator factors account for variance in
> overall job satisfaction above a neutral
> hedonic level with little or no bearing
> on satisfaction below that level. Hygiene
> factors on the other hand account for
> variance in overall job satisfaction below
> a neutral hedonic level with little or no
> bearing on overall satisfaction above that
> point.[58]

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57. See F.Herzberg et al, Motivation To Work (New York: Wiley, 1959) for a full description of this investigation. Chapter 12 (pp.113-119) entitled "Motivation versus Hygiene" summarizes it all very briefly.

58. John R.Hinrichs and Louis A.Mischkind, "Empirical and Theoretical Limitations of the Two-Factor Hypotheses of Job Satisfaction". Journal of Applied Psychology (1967) vol.51, No.2, p.191.

In other words it is claimed that the "motivators" which are intrinsic, function mainly on the positive side of the overall job satisfaction scale whereas the "hygiene factors" which are "aspects of the work environment rather than of the work itself"[59] operate on the negative side. That is to say that the fulfilment of a need that is polar with respect to the dissatisfaction side of the continuum, for example, will not make any significant contribution to satisfaction and vice versa.

Herzberg's hygiene-motivator dichotomy parallels Maslow's distinction between low level "deficit" needs (physiological and safety needs) and higher level "growth" needs (esteem and self-actualization). Of particular interest too is the way he characterizes people as either "hygiene seekers" or "motivation seekers" (See Appendix 3-C).

The two-factor theory (M-H Theory) has for years provoked a great deal of critical debate which has not yet been resolved. Numerous studies have either upheld or questioned Herzberg's thesis.

Reviewing about forty studies, House and Wigdor conclude that the motivation - hygiene theory is an oversimplication of a very complex relationship between motivation, satisfaction and job performance.[60]

In fact, common sense would rather tend to support a view that job satisfaction is located on a single continuum, a linear relationship between satisfaction and dissatisfaction in which each directly affects the other so that as one increases the other decreases. Ott confirms this view in his study of 350 telephone operators in Columbus and Toledo, Ohio to whom he administered a 115-item questionnaire. Ott reports that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not necessarily independent of

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59. Peter Warr and Toby Wall, Work and Well Being (Penguin Books, 1978) pp. 36-37.

60. R.J.House and L.A.Wigdor, "Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory on Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of Evidence and a criticism." Personnel Psychology (1968) Vol.20.

each other.[61]

Using a paired comparison instrument to measure fifteen different work values such as security, achievement and prestige among eighty-eight subjects, Super finds no evidence for an intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy in work values.[62] Thus both Ott and Super as reported above support the view that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a unidimensional concept in which each is the obverse of the other.

Commenting upon Herzberg's dual factor theory, Vroom argues that people usually tend to put themselves in the best light when things are not going well; they will tend to blame their failure on the environment or other people[63] - a sort of defensive mechanism which yields the erroneous dichotomy between satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

So many criticisms of Herzberg's theory have emerged that it is hereby considered both time and space saving to refer the reader to Porter's brief but comprehensive summary of all relevant researches on the topic.[64]

Herzberg's theory should not be written off as unimportant. Its significance does not so much lie in the dichotomous dimensions it emphasizes, as in the fact that it clearly and readily lends itself to further empirical investigation. Notwithstanding the contradictions that might have been found in Herzberg's thesis, this does not have to mean that the M-H theory is not useful, for, according to Conant in his review of the history of physical sciences, contradictory facts are not enough reason for the abandomnent of a particular theory.[65] Call them by whatever name Herzberg's factors cannot be neglected by any personnel manager who wants to keep "alive" his organization and its members.

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61. Donald Clayton Ott, "The Generality of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation" (Ph.D. Dissertation, Ohio State University,Columbus,1965).

62. E.Super, "The Structure of Work Values In Relation to Status, Achievement, Interest and Achievement." Journal of Applied Psychology (1962) Vol. 46, pp.231-239.

63. Victor H.Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: Wiley, 1964).

64. L.W.Porter, "Personnel Management." Annual Review of Psychology (1966) Vol.17, p.411.

65. J.B.Conant, On Understanding Science (New Haven: Yale, 1947).

(g) <u>Summary of the Need-Satisfaction Theories</u>.

So far attempts have been made to discuss a number of need-satisfaction theories which are thought to be relevant to this study. The earliest assumption about employee motivation was that man was primarily an "economic man" essentially motivated by economic or material rewards. The early classical management theorists such as Taylor considered economic gains and security as the most crucial factors for enlarging workers' job satisfaction. This view was however rejected by writers in the human relations tradition like Elton Mayo and his colleagues who argued that man's need for belonging and his other social needs provided the basic motivation for individuals to work in any organization. This view of man as socially motivated in his organizational life soon gave way to a new emphasis on man's inherent need to use his capacities and skills in a mature and productive way."[66] Belonging to this school of thought are social psychologists such as Argyris, McGregor and Maslow who have developed the notion of "self-actualizing man," and whose central theme is that "the ultimate psychological contract between man and organization could be written as safety, social contract, self esteem, autonomy and self-actualization in exchange for individual effort."[67] A fourth assumption was that an employee, like any other person, is a "complex man" - that is, man as "a system of biological needs, psychological motives, values and perceptions."[68] It was in an attempt to explain these various assumptions that a number of theories (Maslow's theory of human needs, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory; the E.R.G. theory, fulfilment theory and the equity theory) have been formulated and occasionally tested in their relation to the issue of job satisfaction.

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66. E.H.Schein, <u>Organizational Psychology</u> (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965) p.56.

67. Paul Lawrence and Jay Lorsch, <u>Developing Organizations: Diagnosis and Action</u> (London: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969) p.56.

68. ibid, p.65.

Maslow's need-hierarchy theory as well as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory or Alderfer's E.R.G. theory emphasizes motivation as a function of human needs satisfaction. Equity theory on the other hand draws attention to the role of social comparisons in influencing satisfaction.

In spite of their various need/job satisfaction theories there seems to be a consensus among the theorists that satisfactory job attitudes are the function of a congruence between the needs of an individual and the job situation. In other words it is assumed that when the characteristics of a job are compatible with the needs of a worker, he will experience job satisfaction. Contrariwise, if a person is unhappy with his job, the assumption is that the job is perhaps not satisfying his needs. Fig 7 below hopefully explains the intricate pattern of relationships between the individual and the organization, through identifying the many variables that can influence the way in which a person evaluates his job rewards. Since job satisfaction is far from being a unidimensional phenomenon, to understand it the investigator at any time needs to examine not only the various job aspects and organizational environments but should also have an understanding of the individual's belief/value system.

Fig. 7   A schematic representation of contractual
relationships between an individual and the
organization.

SOCIETY

Common
needs
and
comple-
mentary
abilities

Work contract
formal
Quasi-contract
consensual
discretionary

Capacities
and comp-
etencies

Goal
system

Duties   Work
Re-   Satis-
wards   factions

Need
system

Belief-
value
system

Belief-
value
system

Respons-
ibility

Authenticity

Identi-
fication

Organizat-
ional space   Work space   Life space

SOCIETY
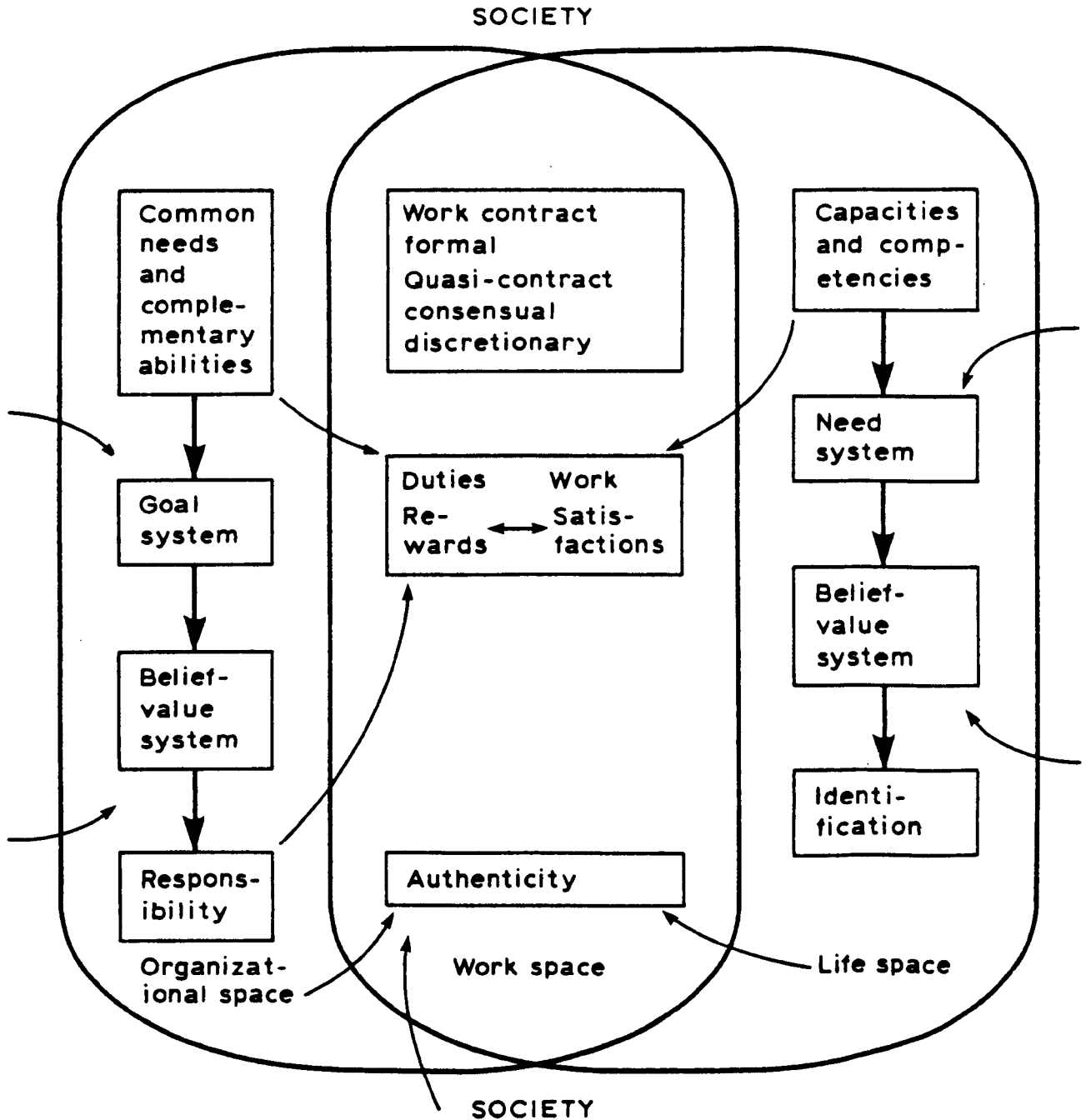
Source :   R.Oliver Gibson, "Toward a Conceptualization of Absence
Behavior of Personnel in Organizations." Administrative
Science Quarterly, (1966/67), vol. 11, p.119.

3. <u>The Nature of the Relationships Between Job Satisfaction and Performance</u>.

(a) <u>Why People Behave as they Do on Their Jobs: The Expectancy Theory</u>.

A theoretical formulation to explain how and why people behave as they do on their jobs is the Expectancy theory. It is founded on the belief that man as a rational being chooses at any given point in time from among a set of alternative plans of behaviour the one he expects will maximize the attractiveness of the sum of outcomes that would result.[1] It is an attempt to explain an individual's perception of the relationships between behaviour and its antecedents or consequences.

Two types of Expectancies have been formulated:-

(i) <u>Expectancy I</u>: This is interpreted to refer to a person's perception of the chances that a given level of effort will bring about good job performance (effort - performance expectancy).

(ii) <u>Expectancy II</u> (performance - consequences expectancy) refers to a person's perception of the probability that a certain level of job performance will lead to certain consequences.

"Perception" (the process by which individuals attach meaning to their experiences) is the <u>Key</u> word in any discussion of Expectancy theory. That is because although there indeed may be a perfect contingency relationship between performance and desired consequences, unless the person perceives this relationship it will not positively influence the person's motivation.

Perhaps the first known explicit theoretical formulation of job performance/expectancy theory may be attributed to Victor Vroom who in his book, <u>Work and Motivation,</u> hypothesizes that a person's job performance (P) is a function of the interaction between the force to perform (F) and motivation and ability (A). Borrowing from the realm of

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1. Sheila Cameron, <u>Job Satisfaction, The Concept and Its Measurement,</u> (London: Work Research Unit, 1973) p.7.

mathematics, this can be briefly expressed as: $P = f (F \times A)$.

However, Porter and Lawler have, in their book, <u>Managerial Attitudes and Performance</u>, propounded a variant form of job performance theory. According to them, performance (P) is the function of a three-way interaction between exerted effort (E), motivation and ability (A) and role perception (R). Simply expressed, $P = f (E \times A \times R)$.

There is in fact no substantial difference between these two formulations except perhaps in nomenclature.[2]

In a later book, Lawler summarizes the main issues of Expectancy theory. According to him,

> The strength of a tendency to act in a
> certain way depends on the strength of
> an expectancy that the act will be
> followed by a given consequence (or
> outcome) and on the value or
> attractiveness of that consequence
> (or outcome) to the actor.[3]

According to Sheila Cameron, there are some four basic assumptions upon which the theory rests. Namely, that

> (a) people do have preferences
> among the various outcomes that
> they see as possible;
>
> (b) people have expectancies about
> the likelihood that an action or
> effort on their part will lead to
> the behaviour or performance that
> they intend it to;
>
> (c) people have expectancies about
> the likelihood that certain
> outcomes will follow their
> behaviour; and
>
> (d) people do not behave at random.[4]

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2. These two formulations are discussed fully in Herbert G.Heneman III and Donald P.Schwab, "Evaluation of Research on Expectancy Theory Predictions of Employee Performance" <u>Psychological Bulletin</u> (1972), Vol.78, No.I,pp. 1-9.

3. E.E.Lawler, <u>Motivation In Work Organizations</u>, (California: Brooks/ Cole Publishing Company, 1973) p.45.

4. Sheila Cameron, <u>op.cit.</u>

Whereas all need satisfaction theories discussed earlier deal with the outcomes which an individual seeks, Expectancy theory aims at explaining what determines the behaviour that the person adopts in order to achieve those outcomes.

A crucial question which Expectancy theory is designed to answer, is what factors influence the choice of a particular line of action by a person. Ryan and Smith think that "an individual will not undertake a means activity unless he sees at least some chance of arriving at the goal. His perceived ability is therefore an important determiner of his choice."[5] The way he behaves in his job is a function of many factors such as,

(a) the attractiveness of the goal;

(b) the attractiveness of the means activity itself and of its surrounding conditions:

(c) the uniqueness of the means to the goal as perceived by the individual;

(d) the directness of relationship between the means and the end result, also as perceived or understood by the subject; and

(e) the individual's estimates of his ability to perform the means actively well enough to achieve the goal.[6]

Thus the sum total of the tenets of Expectancy theory is that people, whether in work organizations or in ordinary life situations, will tend to do a thing the more they think that such performances will lead to results which they want. It admits the possibility of individuals having varying goals or needs and of perceiving different connections between

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5. Thomas Arthur Ryan and Patricia Cain Smith, _Principles of Industrial Psychology_, (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1954) pp.387-388.

6. ibid.

their actions and achievements of these goals.[7]

As Cameron succinctly asserts, expectancy theory is "a useful way of thinking about what motivates people and therefore how jobs should be changed."[8] It facilitates meaningful evaluation of a person's job performance as it "clearly places greatest emphasis on the role of motivation or force to perform as a determinant of job performance."[9] Vroom for example suggests that the effects of performance on satisfaction depends upon the extent to which performance is relevant to, or congruent with, the individual's self concept.[10] Kornhauser has in fact confirmed this in a study of blue collar workers, the result of which showed a significant positive correlation between workers' perceptions of the degree to which their jobs enabled them to use their abilities and their "mental health."[11]

(b) Job Satisfaction and Job Performance.

> As Ben walked by smiling on the way to his office, Ben's boss remarked to a friend: 'Ben really enjoys his job and that's why he's the best damn worker I ever had. And that's reason enough for me to keep Ben happy." The friend replied: "No, you're wrong! Ben likes his job because he does it so well. If you want to make Ben happy, you ought to do whatever you can to help him further improve performance."[12]

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7. Gerald R.Salancik and Jeffrey Pfeffer, "An Examination of Need-Satisfaction Models of Job Attitudes." Administrative Science Quarterly. (1977) Vol.22, p.437.

8. Sheila Cameron, et al, Improving Satisfaction at Work by Job Redesign. p.10.

9. G.Heneman III and P.Schwab, op.cit. p.5.

10. V.Vroom, "Ego Involvement, Job Satisfaction and Job Performance" Personnel Psychology (1962) Vol.15, pp.159-177.

11. A.W.Kornhauser, Mental Health of the Industrial Worker: A Detroit Study. (New York, Wiley and Sons, 1965).

12. Charles N.Greene, "The Satisfaction - Performance Controversy." Business Horizons, (October 1972) p.31.

The above extract from Charles Green's article on Satisfaction and performance is a clear illustration of the inconclusive debate regarding the nature of the relationships between a person's job satisfaction and his job performance. There are two main propositions on the topic: while some argue that "satisfaction causes performance" a more recent point of view states that "performance causes satisfaction." But Kornhauser and Sharp, after a study in 1932,[13] came to a conclusion that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was a function of a third variable or even additional variables. These various propositions are reviewed briefly below.

(i) The "Satisfaction Causes Performance" Proposition.

The main assumption of this proposition or theory is that the extent of an employee's feeling of job satisfaction significantly affects his or her job performance. This is the basic assertion of the human relations movement whose emphasis especially after the Hawthorne Studies of Elton Mayo, Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson has been on the well-being of individuals in work organizations. According to Strauss, "early human relationists viewed the morale - productivity relationship quite simply: higher morale would lead to improved productivity"[14] a reflection of the popular belief that a happy worker is a productive worker. Interesting enough, however, is Roethlisberger's caveat that "the factors which make for efficiency in a business organization are not necessarily the same as those factors that make for happiness, collaboration, team work, morale or any other word which may be used to refer to cooperative situations."[15]

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13. A.A.Kornhauser, and A.W.Sharp, "Employee Suggestions from a Study in a Factory." Personnel Journal, (May 1932) Vol.X, pp.393-401.

14. George Strauss, "Human Relations - 1968 Style." Industrial Relations. (May 1968) Vol. VII, p.264.

15. Fritz J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941).

Such an observation by one of the earliest human relationists somehow
questions the whole claim of the human relations movement that management
can "increase productivity by satisfying the needs of employees."[16] The
claim that satisfaction leads to better performance has also been rejected
by Vroom's revelation (after reviewing twenty three studies on the topic)
of an insignificant correlation of 0.14 (ie satisfaction accounted for
less than 2 percent of the variation in performance).

Scott made a valid observation that:

> high morale is no longer considered
> a prerequisite of high productivity.
> But more than this, the nature of the
> relationship between morale and
> productivity is open to serious
> questioning. Is it direct? Is it
> inverse? Is it circular? Or is
> there any relationship at all between
> the two?, are they independent
> variables?[17]

A number of theories have been propounded to answer Scott's worry,
namely: the work adjustment theory of Dawis, England and Lofquist; March
and Simon's "motivation to produce" theory; and the "pressure to produce"
theory of Triandis;[18] but none of these seems to have come up with any
strong evidence to suggest that satisfaction causes performance.

(ii) "Performance Causes Satisfaction" Proposition.

This school of thought is best represented by Porter and Lawler who

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16. Victor H. Vroom, _Work and Motivation_, p. 181.

17. William G. Scott, _Human Relations In Management: A Behavioural
     Science Approach._ (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962) p.93.

18. These are summarised in : Donald P. Schwab and Larry L. Cummings,
     "Theories of Performance and Satisfaction: A Review" _Industrial
     Relations_ (1970) Vol. 9, pp.414-417.

argued in one of their works that:

> good performance may lead to rewards, which in
> turn lead to satisfaction; this formulation
> then would say that satisfaction rather than
> causing performance, as was previously
> assumed, is caused by it.[19]

Lawler and Porter's model (Performance ———→ Satisfactin) asserts that

"when performance leads to rewards which are seen by the individual as

equitable ... high satisfaction will result."[20] Rewards are thus seen as

constituting an important intervening variable between performance and

satisfaction (ie Performance   Rewards   Satisfaction). Performance in

the Lawler - Porter model is dependent on the amount of effort a person

puts into his job; while his effort is determined by his abilities,

traits and role perceptions. Performance or accomplishment brings about

rewards or fulfilment which if they are perceived to be equitable in

terms of the person's expectations will bring about a feeling of

satisfaction in that person.

Greene's study[21] supports Porter and Lawler's postulations that

differential performance determines rewards which in turn produce variation

in satisfaction. In other words, it is argued that:- an individual will

undertake an action as far as he thinks he can obtain a valued outcome;

such outcomes are valued to the extent that they satisfy his needs when he

compares them with what his counterparts get elsewhere; the individual will

tend to work hard if by working hard his needs are satisfied; and he will

experience satisfaction when he is aware that he has accomplished something.[22]

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19. E.E.Lawler and L.W.Porter, "The Effects of Performance On Job
    Satisfaction." Industrial Relations (1967) Vol. VII, p.23.

20. Cited in Schwab and Cummings, op.cit, p.418.

21. Charles N. Greene, "The Satisfaction - Performance Controversy",
    p.33. Business Horizons, (1972), p.33.

22. J.R.Hackman and E.E.Lawler III, "Employee Reactions to Job
    Characteristics" Journal of Applied Psychology (1971) Vol. 55, pp.
    259-286.

That is to say that,

$$P = f (E \times A \times R) \longrightarrow R_I = f (V \times E_2) \longrightarrow S \quad \text{in which}$$

P = performance; R_I = reward

f = function of;   v = value orientation

E = effort   and E_2 = equity

A = ability

R = role perception   S = satisfaction

Locke supports this Performance $\longrightarrow$ Satisfaction model by saying that "the effect of job performance on job satisfaction is a function of the degree to which performance entails or lead to the attainment of the individual's important job values:"[23] such values being either task related (e.g. task activity, task success and achievement) or non-task related such as pay raises, promotions, praise and recognition.[24]

On its face value, the performance-satisfaction model seems to be a more attractive argument. Unfortunately however this writer is not familiar with any teacher job satisfaction - job performance study (certainly not in Nigeria) nor is there any intention to investigate the relationship between them in this study. Measures of teacher performance or productivity are very difficult, mostly because of the extended period of the return on investment in Education and the problem in isolating the individual teacher's contribution towards children's education.

However Anderson in a study of the relationship of teacher morale to the educational achievement of students way back in 1953 found that high teacher morale was positively related to students' educational achievement.[25]

Although Anderson argued as a result of his finding that it was wrong

23. Edwin A. Locke, "Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Theoretical Analysis." Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance (1970), Vol. 5, p.485.

24. ibid, pp.486-487.

25. L.W. Anderson, "Teacher Morale and Student Achievement" Journal of Educational Research (1953) Vol. 46, pp.693-698.

to ignore the implications of teachers' attitudes towards their jobs, he

failed to explain whether the teachers' high morale was due to their

pupils' performances or vice versa. The same query can be applied to

Cooper's study in which he found a positive relationship (not causal) between

the job satisfaction of teachers and their teaching effectiveness.[26]

Like all debates concerning the precedence of the chicken or the egg, the

controversy regarding job performance and job satisfaction seems

interminable. But whether it is teacher job satisfaction that causes

"good" teaching performance or vice versa, a study of the nature and the

degree of job satisfaction will help considerably to explain teacher

effectiveness because (a) there is a clear inverse linkage between

satisfaction and turnover and (b) teacher turnover or attrition is most

likely to be directly related to poor pupil performance. According to

Adesina,

> There is a close relationship between
> stability in the teaching profession
> and the efficiency of the educational
> system. First, if experience on the
> part of the teacher contributes in
> general to increased efficiency in
> the classroom (and there can be little
> doubt that it does), a large turnover
> is certain to produce a poorer
> educational product than would result
> if the teaching staff remained
> relatively stable.[27]

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26. J.F.Cooper, "Job Satisfaction of Mississippi Hinds Junior College
    Teachers as Related to Teaching Effectiveness." (Doctoral
    Dissertation - Mississippi State University, 1974), Dissertation
    Abstracts International (1974) Vol. 34, pp. 4604A - 4605A.

27. S.A.Adesina, "Secondary Level Teachers: Supply and Demand In Nigeria:
    Lagos State" Report on the Supply of Secondary Level Teachers In
    English Speaking Africa, p.27.

4. <u>Values</u>.

(a) <u>The Concept of Values</u>.

Some studies have revealed a strong linkage between the way people
behave on their jobs and their personal values. England, Dhingra and
Agarwal have for example come to conclude that in the different countries
covered by their study (the U.S.A., Japan, India, Korea, Australia and
England) "personal values of managers are related to and/or influence the
way managers behave on the job."[1]

However psychologists are far from agreeing on the meaning of the
concept of value and its role in influencing human behaviour. B.F.Skinner
for example regards the role of values in changing a person's behaviour
as a non-issue. For him there does not seem to be any qualitative
difference between man and animal. He asserts "determinism" and
"behaviourism" as the major bases of human actions. "Behaviourism" focuses
on directly observable phenomena while "determinism" rules out choice or
voluntary selection of a line of action by individuals. So that, for
Skinner, a mental or intangible concept such as value is a "non-issue" if
it cannot be observed directly.[2]

In spite of what Skinner would want us believe - that man can only
react - a more commonly held view is that man can also act and that his
line of action is often contingent on his personal values. What then are
values?

According to Williams and Albert, "values" as a term refers to
"interests, pleasures, likes, preferences, duties, moral obligations,
desires, needs, aversions, and attractions and many other modalities of

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1. G.W.England, O.P.Dhingara and N.C.Agarwal, <u>The Manager and the Man: A
    Cross-Cultural Study of Personal Values</u>. (Kent, O.H.: Kent State
    University Press, 1974) p.8.

2. B.F.Skinner, <u>Beyond Freedom and Dignity</u>. (London: Cape, 1972) p.16.

selective orientation."[3] Values may be used in reference to a specific evaluation of any object or situation or the criteria and standards by which something is evaluated.[4] They are beliefs upon which men and women act by preference.[5] Jones and Gerard also acknowledge the importance of values as a powerful force as man chooses patterns of responses in any given situation. According to them,

> Any singular State or object for
> which the individual strives or
> approaches, extols, embraces,
> voluntarily consumes, incurs expense
> to acquire is a positive value ...
> Values animate the person, they move
> him around his environment because
> they define its attractive and
> repelling Sections[6].

Values are not necessarily expectations _per se_ nor are they needs. Expectations refer to a person's beliefs about future occurrences. They are distinct from values in that what is expected may not correspond to what occurs. Needs, on the other hand, are "the objective requirements of an organism's well being"; and although a value presupposes a subjective awareness at some level of the object or condition sought, a need does not.[7]

Values are not attitudes, although they are closely related. Whereas attitudes denote cognitive and affective orientations towards specific objects or situations, values are more central in a man's life. One's attitudes are generally believed to be contingent on one's value-system;

3. Robin Williams and Ethel Albert, International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. p.283.

4. Ibid.

5. G.W.Allport, Pattern and Growth In Personality. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961) p.18.

6. E.E.Jones and Gerard, Foundations of Social Psychology. p.17.

7. Arne Kalleberg, "Work Values, job Rewards and job Satisfaction: A Theory of Work Experience" (University of Wisconsin Ph.D.Dissertation, 1975) p.53.

that is, values determine attitudes and subsequent behaviours; they are a set of principles whereby conduct is directed and regulated."[8] While values are not norms or rules of behaviour, they nevertheless serve the important purpose of providing an individual with grounds for accepting or rejecting certain norms or set standards of behaviour. That is what Ronen means by saying that "individual values affect not only perception of _appropriate ends_ but also perception of the _appropriate means_ to those ends."[9]

Values as held by individuals have been classified in various ways by different writers like Rokeach and Allport. According to Rokeach, personal values may be either "instrumental" or "terminal". Instrumental values refer to "mode-of-conduct-values" such as ambition, broadmindedness, capability, cheerfulness, imagination and independence while "terminal" or "end-state" values refer to such things as comfort, family security, happiness, self-respect, economic security, freedom and true friendship.[10]

On the other hand Allport _et al_ recognise six "value orientations" namely: theoretical (e.g. truth); economic (e.g. usefulness); aesthetic (such as harmony); social (e.g. altruistic love); political (such as power); and religious (e.g. unity).[11] Useful as Allport _et al's_ classification may be in helping one to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of values, it is nevertheless very restricted in scope. Such values as pleasure and security are left out and as Reich and Adcock have observed, this classification represents "an idealized version of socially acceptable values."[12]

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8. Williams and Albert, op.cit, p.288.

9. Simcha Ronen, "Personal Values: A Basis For Work Motivational Set and Work Attitudes". Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1978), Vol.21, No.8, p.80.

10. M.Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values (New York: Free Press, 1967).

11. G.W.Allport, P.G.Vernon, and G.Linzey. Study of Values (Boston, Houghton-Mifflin, 1951) p.21.

12. Ben Reich and Christine Adcock, Values, Attitudes and Behaviour Change, (London: Methuen, 1976) p.21.

For Ronen, values fall into two broad categories: aggrandizement and self-realization. Whereas "aggrandizement values" refer to such value concepts as power, prestige and wealth, "self-realization values" embrace such things as aesthetics, humanitarianism, intellectualism and egalitarianism.[13]

Having thus reviewed very briefly the notion of human values generally, it will be proper to consider next the nature of work values, the discussion of which is more relevant to this study.

(b) Work Values.

The validity of the hypothesis that the work values held by individuals in an organization constitute an intervening variable between performance and job satisfaction is no longer a matter of conjecture or debate. Morse postulates that the extent and nature of job satisfaction experienced by a person on his or her job is a function not only of the "objective properties of that job" but also of that person's motives or goals.[14] In conformity with that view, Goldthorpe and his colleagues of the "social action" school of thought argue that the issue of job satisfaction cannot be meaningfully understood without a knowledge of the meanings which individuals give to their work.[15] Such a "social action frame of reference" which

> directs attention to the variety of meanings
> that individuals impute to their work, has
> great potential for advancing our knowledge
> of job satisfaction and the quality of work-
> experience of individuals in general.[16]

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13. Simcha Ronen, op.cit, pp.80-104.

14. Nancy C.Morse, Satisfactions In the White Collar Job.

15. Goldthorpe et al, The Affluent worker: Industrial Attitudes and Behaviour. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

16. Anne L.Kalleberg. "Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction" American Sociological Review (1977) Vol.42,pp.124-143. She traces the origin of the social action approach to Max Weber who, she claims, "rejected the assumption of any objective meaning attached to actions and wished to restrict the understanding and interpretation of meaning to the subjective intentions of the actor."

Some research studies reflect the conclusion that "the effect of job performance on job satisfaction is a function of the degree to which performance entails or leads to the attainment of the individual's important job values."[17] In view of the importance of these conclusions it is essential that we understand what those work values are.

Briefly, work values may be described as: the "conceptions of what is desirable which individuals hold with respect to their work activities";[18] judgements about work orientation[19]; an individual's awareness of what he or she seeks from the work situation,[20] or "a general attitude regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to his work role"[21]. Ronen, who regards work values as "the neglected ingredient of job motivation", defines them as "part of the motivational set with which the worker evaluates job rewards and develops an attitude toward his job."[22]

An employee's value system has been argued to be central to his motivational system; to his expectation of organizational rewards and ultimately to his job performance and satisfaction. They serve as reference points of behaviour on the job.

A general trend in work organizations has been to determine the extent of an employee's feeling of satisfaction that is related to the job. As Ronen observes, "job satisfaction is an evaluative aspect" and "difference in individuals" value-system will be reflected in the different job

17. See Edwin A. Locke, "Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Theoretical Analysis" Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance (1970) Vol.5, p.485.

18. Arne L.Kalleberg, "Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction" American Sociological Review. Vol.42 (1977), pp.124-143.

19. Melvin L.Kohn, Class and Conformity: A Study In Values (Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey, 1969).

20. Arne L.Kalleberg, op.cit.

21. Simcha Ronen, opcit. p.103.

22. ibid. p.101.

aspects from which they derive the main sources of job satisfaction."[23]

If we accept Ronen's assertion, then the study of people's work values

becomes crucial to an understanding of the alienative, calculative and

normative attitudes held by different employees within a single

organization or a given occupational speciality.

Work Value Dimensions.

Several work value dimensions have been identified by various

researchers. According to Super and Crites for example, work values fall

into the following groups or categories: scientific-theoretical; social-

welfare; literary, material; systematic; contact; and aesthetic;[24] whereas

for Rosenberg, ten occupational values can be identified, namely; use of

special abilities; a good deal of money; creativity; status/prestige;

working with people; secure future; independence; leadership, adventure

and altruism.[25] Gordon in a study he conducted in 1960 factor analysed

210 questionnaire items intended to measure ten hypothesized values.

The factor analysis yielded him the following work value dimensions:

support; recognition; independence; benevolence; and leadership.[26]

Similarly Super has, in a later work,[27] delineated fifteen categories of

work values: way of life, security, prestige, economic returns, surroundings,

associates, supervisory relations, variety, altruism, creativity,

23. ibid. p.81.

24. D.E.Super and J.O.Crites, Appraising Vocational Fitness (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1962).

25. M.Rosenberg, Occupations and Values (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957) p.128.

26. L.V.Gordon, Manual For survey of Interpersonal Values (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960).

27. D.E.Super, "The Structure of Work Values In Relation to Status, Achievement, Interests, and Adjustment" Journal of Applied Psychology, 1962, Vol.46, No.4, pp.231-239.

independence, intellectual stimulation, aesthetic, achievement and management. An examination of Super's fifteen categories of work values reveals a great deal of similarity between them and the Survey of Work Values (SWV) dimensions developed by Wollack, et al.[28] The 67 items of the SWV were factor analysed and as a result the following six factors were delineated: intrinsic values; organization-man ethic; upward striving; social status of job; conventional ethic; and attitude towards earnings. There does not seem to be much difference between these various typologies. The major difference is semantic. And as Katzell observes, citing Gizenberg, work values generally fall into three broad categories: values relating to the work itself; values relating to interpersonal relations; and values relating to external conditions and things obtained through work such as financial rewards.[29] Rosenberg on the other hand chooses to label these respectively as "self-expression-oriented value complex," "people-oriented value complex" and "extrinsic-reward-oriented value complex"[30].

The way in which work-values are classified is not as important as the role which they are said to play in directing an employee's perception of his job conditions as satisfying or dissatisfying. As Rosenberg says,

> Whatever the individual's particular hierarchy
> of values, whether he be chiefly concerned
> with making money, or using his talents, or
> having good interpersonal relations, or having
> freedom of adventure, he believes that he can
> satisfy it in some kind of work.[31]

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28. Stephen Wollack, James G.Goodale, Jan P.Wijting and Patricia Cain Smith, "Development of the Survey of Work Values." Journal of Applied Psychology (1971) Vol.55, No.4, pp.331-338. See in particular p.335 for the sample items and their factor loadings for the six factors.

29. R.A.Katzell, "Personal Values, Job Satisfaction and Job Behaviour," in Borow, Man In A World At Work (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964) p.347.

30. M.Rosenberg, op.cit. pp.11-13.

31. ibid. p.126.

As Rosenberg further argues, there seems to be a great deal of association between occupational choices and occupational values. Such relationships lead to one of two pehnomena -- the "malleability of wants" and the "malleability of reality." Whereas the "malleability of wants" refers to the tendency on the part of an individual to switch to an occupation in which he feels he can satisfy his values, the "malleability of reality" refers to his tendency to select occupational values which he feels his chosen job can satisfy.[32]

Work values differ from person to person and such variations in work values are said to be due to a number of variables such as socialization and other types of life experiences which have been in existence prior to the person's taking up the job, non-work social roles, and the work experiences themselves.[32] Later in the next chapter, there will be presented a number of studies on work-values as held by different people in various organizations.

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32. ibid, pp.124-125.

33. ibid, p.64.

CHAPTER FOUR

A REVIEW OF SOME PREVIOUS STUDIES.

1. <u>A Review of Some Teachers' Job Satisfaction Studies</u>.

Having reviewed in general terms various theories of human needs and job satisfaction, an attempt will be made now to review some of the studies that have been conducted in relation to teachers' job satisfaction.

The study of teacher job satisfaction, otherwise known as teacher-morale, dates back to the early 1930's, according to Blocker and Richardson.[1] Perhaps the first known systematic study in the area of teacher job satisfaction was the one conducted by Robert Hoppock.[2] Using 500 teachers as subjects for his investigation, Hoppock's aim was to acertain the distinguishing characteristics of high - and low morale - scoring teachers. According to his findings, job satisfaction of teachers was related to their good relationships with colleagues and superiors, evidence of emotional adjustment, and teaching in large cities with a population exceeding 10,000.

Hand's study[3] tackled the same problem as Hoppock's. Four hundred teachers participated in the study which was intended to ascertain if there were significant differences in attitudes between those teachers who were regarded as high morale teachers and those reported to possess low morale. The finding was that the two groups of teachers discriminated in the areas of intra-group feelings and supervisory relationships - a validation of Cartwright's and Zander's theory of Group Dynamics.[4]

1. Clyde E.Blocker and Richard C.Richardson, "Twenty Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review." <u>Journal of Educational Sociology</u>. (1962-63), Vol.36, p.201.

2. R.Hoppock, <u>Job Satisfaction</u> (New York: Harper and Row, 1935).

3. Harold C.Hand. "What Makes For High Teacher Morale?" <u>Educational Leadership</u> (Jan., 1948) Vol.5, pp.275-280.

4. D.S.Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds). <u>Group Dynamics: Research and Theory</u>. (New York: Harper and Row, 1976).

In his study of the job satisfaction of elementary school teachers in Indiana, U.S.A., Byrnes[5] found that the crucial areas affecting teacher job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were: school administration; physical environment of the school; and student/parent-teacher relationships. Surprisingly, salary and job tenure were not mentioned as important job satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors. In the view of the author, any one of those factors could bring about satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending on whether or not and to what extent it was present.

In 1956 Roth carried out a survey[6] to determine the sources of teacher job satisfaction. The subjects of the study were teachers in pre-determined "high morale" and "low morale" schools to whom was administered a 93-item questionnaire grouped into ten factor categories of: working conditions; security; status; community; teacher-principal relationships; faculty human relationships; administration; educational values; school board, and general reaction to district. The findings were that working conditions were a source of dissatisfaction in both high and low morale schools and that the two groups of schools discriminated in terms of all the other variables. What was not convincing was the assumption that <u>all</u> the teachers in "high morale" schools and "low morale" schools were necessarily high morale and low morale teachers respectively.

Strickland[7] in 1962 investigated the factors affecting teachers' morale in North Carolina. Administering a 75-item questionnaire and two open-ended questions to 2,055 teachers, Strickland found that the following in their order of importance were factors enhancing teacher

5. A.F.Byrnes, "A Study of Job Satisfaction of Teachers In Selected Schools of Indiana" (Ph.D. Dissertation, New York University 1951).

6. Lesther J.Roth, "A Technique for Determining the Sources of Teacher Job Satisfaction." (Ph.D. Dissertation, Stanford University, 1956).

7. B.F.Strickland, "A Study of Factors Affecting Teacher Morale in Selected Administrative Units of North Carolina." (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1962).

morale: cooperative and helpful colleagues; an understanding and
cooperative principal; appreciative and cooperative parents; enough and
adequate supplies and equipment; freedom in classroom teaching; respectful
pupils; adequate school plant; motivated pupils; helpful supervision; and
a well organized school system with well articulated school policies.
What was not clearly established was the nature of the relationships
between teacher morale and "motivated pupils"/"respectful pupils"; it is
hard to say which preceeds the other. However the finding seems to reject
Herzberg's dichotomization of "motivation" and "hygiene" factors.

In 1960 Rudd and Wiseman conducted a survey of the "current levels of
satisfaction and major sources of dissatisfaction in the profession" of
590 teachers who graduated from eleven constituent colleges and
departments of the University of Manchester School of Education.[8] Results
from that study showed that "the great majority of subjects including many
then out of teaching had experienced in the profession a high measure of
satisfaction."[9] That was good news; but one wonders if the same can be
true of today's teachers now seriously threatened with the loss of their
jobs. Nevertheless, some areas of dissatisfaction of the teachers were
identified, among which were: salary levels, poor human relations among
the staff, inadequate buildings and equipment, high teaching loads,
training inadequacies, large classes, personal inadequacies, lack of time
for some professional duties and the low status of the profession in
society. The researchers' observation that "the irritations reported by
the subjects made clear that feelings of dissatisfaction would not have
been banished by increased public expenditure on salaries, building or
reducing the size of classes"[10] is not convincing. Even so, no one ever

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8. W.G.A.Rudd and S.Wiseman. "Sources of Dissatisfaction Among a Group of
   Teachers," The British Journal of Educational Psychology (1962), Vol.
   xxxii, pp.275-291.

9. ibid, p.275.

10. ibid, p.291.

argues that dissatisfaction would ever be "banished"; one would rather wish to see the level of people's job dissatisfaction reduced as low as possible, whatever their professions or occupations. Of course, the argument that "much benefit could accrue at little, if any, expense through the improvement of human relations in schools"[11] is very much endorsed by this writer.

Having factor-analysed the Purdue Teacher Morale Inventory, Rempel and Bentley established eight domains as positively significant morale factors: personal satisfaction with teaching; teacher-teacher rapport; teacher-pupil rapport; teacher relations with the community; school facilities and equipment; teaching load; salary; and teacher status.[12] The authors however failed to realise that "personal satisfaction with teaching" is apparently a catch-all phrase which, in the view of this writer, encompasses all the other aspects.

Redefer's five years of intensive study revealed that teachers valued freedom to express themselves and to participate in the decision-making processes of their school systems more than salary adjustments.[13] And none of the factors: age, sex, marital status, experience or training was found to be directly related to teacher morale. In fact these findings have since been validated in a recent study by the present writer.[14]

Savage in 1967 sought to identify factors that could be associated with teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.[15] Based on Herzberg's two factor theory and using the interview method, the study revealed that

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11. ibid.

12. Averno Rempel and Ralph R.Bentley, "The Measurement of Teacher Morale: A Factor Analysis Approach." (Purdue University, Mimeograph 1963).

13. F.L.Redefer, "A Teacher Teaches Better." National Education Association Journal (April 1964) Vol.54, pp.8-10.

14. A.M.Ejiogu, "A Study of the Organizational Structure of the School System in Imo State of Nigeria and Its Dysfunctional Implications." (M.A.Dissertation - The University of Hull, 1978).

15. Ralph M.Savage, "A Study of Teacher Satisfaction and Attitude: Causes and Effects." (Ph.D.Dissertation, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama,1967).

achievement, recognition and interpersonal relations with students were the most significant factors affecting teacher satisfaction; and supervisory relations and "personal life" related significantly to job dissatisfaction (a sort of a spill-over relationship between work and non-work). Contrary to what Herzberg would have expected, salary emerged as a variable significantly affecting satisfaction. It was also discovered that the factors which related significantly to teacher satisfaction were not the same as those found to affect the job satisfaction of accountants and engineers.

An analysis of factors that affect the job satisfaction of public high school business teachers in Ohio was carried out by Lacy.[16] Data for the study were collected from 300 teachers who returned 242 usable questionnaires. The following were the findings of the study:

(a) Teachers in the study were well satisfied with their job.

(b) Teachers' disciplines of study or "specialisms" bore no relation to their job satisfaction.

(c) School catchment area was directly related to teacher job satisfaction.

(d) Fringe benefits were found to be important factors affecting job satisfaction.

(e) Neither teachers' sex, marital status, family size, nor school size had any significant relationships with their expressed job satisfaction (See again Redefer's findings above).

Bishop, using thirteen of Herzberg's type of factors, studied the factors associated with teachers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Iowa.

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16. Annell Lacy. "An Analysis of Factors that Affect Job Satisfaction of Public High School Business Teachers In Ohio." (Ph.D.Dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1968).

His findings were, among others, that

(a) the work itself, achievement and relations with

students were rated as the most important job

satisfaction factors by the teachers; while

(b) school policies and rules, recognition, quality

of supervision and salary were perceived by the

teachers as the least satisfying factors in their

job as teachers.[17]

It is interesting to note again that some of Herzberg's satisfiers (e.g.

the "recognition" factor used in Bishop's study) could be sources of

dissatisfaction.

In a study of the relationship between job satisfaction of teachers

and their personal characteristics, and using the Purdue Teacher

Opinionnaire as his instrument, Probe[18] found significant relationships

between teacher job satisfaction and the following variables: sex; age;

educational qualification; school size; length of teaching experience;

teaching position; teaching level and participation in professional

organizations. Some of these however contradict Lacy's and Redefer's

findings reported above - and this tends to point to the existence of an

intervening variable between teachers demographic variables and their

job aspects; (perhaps personal job values?).

Johnson and Weis in 1971 made a study of the relation of participation

in decision-making to the job satisfaction of 305 elementary school

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17. Thomas S.Bishop, "Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction and Job
Dissatisfaction Among Iowa Public School Teachers. (Ph.D.Dissertation,
University of Iowa, 1969).

18. Gerald B.Probe. "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Teacher
Job Satisfaction and Selected Personal Characteristics" (Ph.D.
Dissertation, University of Oregon, 1970).

principals in forty two districts of Illinois, U.S.A. Their study revealed

the existence of a significant and positive relationship between teachers'

participation in decision making and their job satisfaction.[19]

An investigation into the relationships between teacher job

satisfaction and school organizational climate in Hawaiian schools by

Horiuchi[20] found that:

    (a)   a significant positive correlation existed between

         the openness of school climate and teacher job

         satisfaction;

    (b)   rural elementary school teachers expressed

         greater satisfaction with the supervisory

         relationships aspects of their jobs than did their

         suburban counterpart;

    (c)   male teachers were less satisfied with pay

         aspects of their jobs than were their female

         colleagues.

The explanation for this was the males' perception that they were doing

more work than their female counterparts as a result of scarcity of

male teachers in the elementary school sector. This bears on the theory

of equity which was discussed earlier in Chapter three of this thesis.

According to Coverdale in his study of the determinants of teacher

morale in Australia, teacher morale is a group phenomenon, expressed by:

    (a)   tenacious persistence and energy in
         enduring and attempting to overcome
         difficulty of the school's objectives;
         and

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19. D.A.Johnson and J.J.Weiss, Middle Management Decision Making and Job
    Satisfaction (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and
    Publishers, Inc.,) 1971.

20. Herbert S.Horiuchi, "A Comparative Study of the Relationships of
    Organizational Climate to Job Satisfaction of Teachers in Selected
    Rural and Suburban Schools in Hawaii" (Ph.D.Dissertation, Utah State
    University, 1972).

     (b)   group cohesion and cooperative functioning
          of the teachers who comprise the staff of
          a school.[21]

Low teacher morale was on the other hand defined as comprising:

     (a)   a tendency to elevate personal interests
          above the purpose of the enterprise;

     (b)   failure to derive personal satisfaction
          from group achievement; and

     (c)   behaviour that is obstructive and non-
          contributry to the common purpose.[22]

Particularly concerned with job satisfaction, commitment and general morale within the Australian teaching profession", Coverdale administered to 165 teachers a six-part questionnaire designed to elicit teachers' main grievances about their job. The teachers were asked to rank on a four-point scale (highly important; important; of some importance; of little or no importance) thirty eight problems generally associated with teacher morale. Salary came twentieth in rank. In all, Coverdale found that conditions of service were related to teacher job satisfaction and dissatisfaction more than salary was. "Existing system of inspection"; "large class size and inadequate amenities and equipment"; and "intensification of demands on teacher and rigidity of curriculum" came out as very important factors negatively affecting teacher morale.

A comprehensive study of aspects of promotion and careers in teaching was done in 1971-3 by Hilsum and Start under the auspices of NFER.[23] 10,042 teachers from 881 schools were expected to participate in this study, but only 6,722 (67%) of them returned usable questionnaires - which among other things asked teachers to select from a list of possible sources

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21. G.M.Coverdale. "Some Determinants of Teacher Morale In Australia"
     Educational Research (1973-4) Vol.16, p.35.

22. ibid.

23. Sidney Hilsum and K.B.Start. Promotion and Careers In Teaching:
     Appendices A to G. (A British Library Supplementary Publication
     BO SUP 80011, Slough: NFER, 1974).

of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in teaching (a) five items they considered most satisfactory and (b) five items they considered most unsatisfactory. For the male teachers, the following items were considered satisfactory items in their order of importance: holidays; opportunity to practise own ideas; economic security; staff - pupil relationships; staffroom relationships; working hours; and time to pursue personal interests. The female teachers on the other hand described the following as satisfying factors in their order of importance: holidays; opportunity to practise own ideas; working hours; economic security; staff - pupil relationships; staffroom relationships and head - staff consultation. The men teachers (numbering 2,388) regarded the status of the teaching profession in society, class size, promotion prospects, school/classroom accommodation and the extent of non-professional work as sources of their dissatisfaction. The women (who numbered 3,402) on the other hand described the following as dissatisfiers in their rank order: class size, status of profession in society, school/classroom accommodation; inter-school consultation, promotion prospects, and the extent of non-professional work (See Appendix 4-A).

An interesting aspect of the findings in that extensive research is that both the intrinsic and the extrinsic job factors can be both satisfiers and dissatisfiers depending on the degree to which they are present or absent in a job situation. Herzberg would frown at this.

Belasco and Alutto studied the relationship between decisional participation and teacher satisfaction in Western New York State.[24] Their

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24. James A. Belasco and Joseph A.Alutto, "Decisional Participation and Teacher Satisfaction" In Houghton, V. et al (eds). Management In Education: The Management of Organizations and Individuals. (The Open University Press, 1975).

concern was to ascertain whether or not

(a) the state of decisional participation
(as indicated by decisional deprivation,
saturation or equilibrium) was systematically
associated with varying levels of teacher
satisfaction;

(b) levels of satisfaction were differentially
distributed throughout the teaching
profession; and

(c) varying levels of satisfaction were
associated with varying organizational
outcomes.[25]

Using pay, status, creativity and friendly relationships in the work place

as indices of job satisfaction, Belasco and Alutto found that the school

decisional climate was a major factor influencing teacher job satisfaction -

a view supported in the findings of an earlier study by the present

writer.[26]

With 484 teachers as subjects, Provence studied the relationship

between the supervisory styles of secondary school supervisors and the

levels of the teachers' job satisfaction.[27] Among other things, Provence

found that:

(a) the job satisfaction of teachers who perceived their supervisors

to be "high supportive" and "high contributory" was significantly higher

(= .05) than that of the teachers who thought their supervisors to be

"low supportive" and "low contributory;"

(b) there was no significant relationship between teachers' demographic

variables and job satisfaction; but

(c) significant relationships existed between teachers' job

satisfaction and individual subject areas.

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25. ibid, p.222.

26. A.M.Ejiogu, op.cit.

27. Andrew Joseph Provence, "The Relationship Between Secondary School
Supervisors and Teacher Job Satisfaction." (Ed.D. Dissertation, The
State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, 1978).

This third aspect of the finding is more applicable in a system where certain disciplines of study are accorded privileged treatment and consequent status. For example in Nigeria during the early 1960s, science graduate teachers were so scarce that the few available ones enjoyed many material benefits and high status. In fact a non-graduate science teacher was held in a much higher esteem than an arts graduate teacher. Graduate teachers in the humanities thus became demoralised and before long they became very scarce in schools; it then became the turn of the few available arts graduates to enjoy special treatment within their respective schools. Of course this situation cannot exist in the Nigerian primary school sector where every teacher is the "master" of all the subjects in the curriculum.

2. **An Overview of Some Teacher Turnover Studies.**

Turnover may take the form of lay-offs of the employees by the employer or voluntary resignations by the employees themselves. Of particular concern in this study is voluntary turnover such as when employees cease to work for an employer for reasons other than being "fired". According to Tuggle, excessive turnover constitutes a problem for the organization concerned in terms of the costs it involves such as: the costs of being without that employee and of shifting his work to other employees until he is replaced; the cost of recruiting a replacement; and the costs of training and assimilating that replacement into the working environment.[28] Thus, high labour turnover must be viewed as a costly, complex and interactive phenomenon which must be guarded against by employers.

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28. Francis D.Tuggle, "An Analysis of Employee Turnover" Behavioural Science (1978) Vol. 23, No.I, p.32.

Many researchers believe that turnover is inversely related to the job satisfaction of employees. Generally speaking there will be greater probability that a teacher who expresses satisfaction with his job will tend to remain on the job than a dissatisfied one. Vroom in fact lent support to this view when he said that measures of job satisfaction predict much better the employee turnover or the tendency to say on the job than they could predict the quality and the amount of his performance.[29] In other words there is a suggestion that employee job dissatisfaction is a central factor in employee-turnover.

Williams, Livy, Silverstone and Adams have identified three main factors thought to be responsible for people's decision to leave their jobs. Those were: the general economic factors such as alternative job opportunities and comparative pay, organizational factors such as overall job dissatisfaction, and personal factors like age, sex and length of service.[30] In Williams, et al's view, "generally, labour turnover increases in boom conditions (low unemployment) and decreases in recession (high unemployment.)"[31]

Although a considerable research has been done to examine the problems of labour turnover in industries and business organizations,[32] not much attention seems to have been given to systematic surveys and determination of its pathology in the educational sector, especially in Nigeria. However, a few of those already publicised are reviewed below.

29. Victor H.Vroom, Motivation In Management (New York: American Foundation for Management Research, 1965) p.35.

30. Allan Williams, et al, "Factors Associated With Labour Turnover Among Ancilliary Staff in Two London Hospitals." Journal of Occupational Psychology (1979) Vol.52, p.1.

31. ibid.

32. There is a considerable review of such studies by Lyman W.Porter and Richard M.Steers in their study, "Organizational, Work, and Personal Factors in Employee Turnover and Absenteeism" Psychological Bulletin, (1973) Vol.80 No.2, pp.151-176.

In a study of the factors influencing the withdrawal of teachers from the Ohio Public school system by Harris[33] it was found that the major causes of teacher turnover were, (in their order of significance) maternity, marriage and other family commitments; inadequate salaries; work over-load; impractical and conflicting educational theories and practices; inadequate community concerns; lack of support and respect for schools; discouraging future outlook for improvements; incompetent administrators; undisciplined and misbehaved pupils; uncooperative parents; inadequate classrooms; inadequate equipment and materials; low academic standards for pupil achievement; and an incompetent Board of Education. It could thus be argued that a teacher's decision to withdraw is a product of many factors. Whereas family responsibilities were given by the female teachers as the most significant factor contributing to their decisions to leave, the male teachers reported low salaries and insecurity as the most disturbing factors leading to teacher withdrawal.

In 1968 Lee began a two-year study of teacher turnover in Georgia.[34] Lee's major aims were to verify the rate of teacher turnover in the Cobb county of Georgia, to identify factors that influence teachers' decisions to withdraw, and to ascertain whether or not there were characteristics peculiar to the teachers in the turnover group. An analysis of the responses from 1013 teachers who had withdrawn from the county schools in Cobb revealed that apart from economic factors and family obligations, dissatisfaction with interpersonal relationships, leadership behaviour and the school Board's unawareness of teachers' problems contributed very much to a high rate of teacher turnover.

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33. Wilbur S.Harris, "Factors Influencing the Withdrawal of Teachers from the Ohio Public School System." (Ph.D. Dissertation, Colorado State College, 1963).

34. Robert E.Lee, "A Two-Year Study of Teacher Turnover in the Public Elementary and Secondary Schools of Arizona for 1968-69." (Ph.D. Dissertation; Arizona State University, 1970).

Jackson's study in 1970 was aimed at determining the rate of teacher turnover in the Minneapolis public schools.[35] Four hundred and thirty two teachers (207 of whom continued beyond three years and 225 who withdrew their services after three years or less) participated in this study. A Chi square analysis of the data which were obtained indicated that at the .05 level of confidence, the variables of age, sex, teaching experience and family size were significantly related to the turnover of teachers. Unfortunately Jackson's study did not say much on the relationship between organizational factors and the rate of teachers' turnover.

Garrison in 1971 investigated correlates of teacher turnover in Indian Affairs schools.[36] Of the 518 teachers who were expected to participate in this study, 356 returned usable questionnaires from which the following evidences were inferred:-

(a) There was a significant difference in age between those who remained and those who left their teaching jobs. Those under thirty years of age withdrew at a higher rate (20.4%) than those who were more than thirty years of age (11.5%).

(b) The rate of female teacher turnover was greater (24.7%) than that of the males which stood at 12.4 percent.

(c) There was a significant difference between those who withdrew from their jobs and those who stayed on in respect of their perception of the adequacy and accuracy of the pre-employment information which they received.

(d) Marital status, ethnic origin, years of teaching experience, employment of spouse, supervision and living conditions were not significantly related to teacher turnover. One important aspect in that

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35. Thomas L.Jackson, "Factors Related to Secondary Teacher Turnover in the Minneapolis Public School System 1965-67" (Ph.D.Dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1970).

36. Irvin R.Garrison, "Factors which Relate to Teacher Turnover in Bureau Indian Affairs Schools." (Ph.D.Dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1971).

study was its highlighting the need for comprehensive pre-employment information being given to the teachers before they are employed.

During the 1972/73 school year the Department of Education and Science (England and Wales) "conducted, with the indispensable help of local education authorities and heads and teachers, a sample survey of the turnover of full time teachers in maintained primary and secondary schools."[37] About 5,400 teachers responded to the questionnaire which was designed for this study. The following were found to be the main reasons for leaving in the order of their frequency of mention by teachers: promotion and career advancement; marriage or the decision to be with one's spouse; dissatisfaction with teaching or school; pregnancy; a desire to widen experience; a move to another area; personal reasons; end of temporary post; to travel; housing difficulties; redundancy/reorganization; travelling difficulties; to pursue own education; to work outside teaching; salary; to seek more responsibility; and giving up work permanently/temporarily.

A quick glance at Appendix 4-B shows that men were more likely than women to be seeking for promotion and to be dissatisfied with their salaries; whereas women were more likely than men to leave because of marriage or the desire to remain in the same place with a spouse. The part played by promotion as major factor in teachers' turnover is understandable in the light of the raising of school leaving age (ROSLA) which, while compelling the schools to take on extra number of pupils, created new posts with resultant promotion opportunities especially in the 1973/74 school year. It is interesting to note that salary ranked sixteenth out of the twenty one reasons which the teachers gave for leaving.

In his article on the development of Western Education in the City

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37. Department of Education and Science (London), Reports on Education, No.79. (May 1974).

of Lagos, Nigeria, Adesina described the high turnover rate as a peculiar problem of the teaching personnel in Lagos.[38] Referring to an earlier research of his, Adesina asserted that the average period of teaching service in Lagos schools was 2.27 years and that the length of service decreased consistently with the standard of the teachers' qualifications: the higher the qualification the less the length of service. In that investigation, Adesina found that the high turnover rate among Lagos teachers which stood at 34.4 percent in 1968 could be attributed to the fact that Lagos teachers "teach incredibly large classes, encounter serious transportation hazards and operate with inadequate and sometimes non-functioning teaching aids."[39]

Perhaps the most recent known study of the turnover of teachers in Nigeria was that of S.H.Koguna carried out in Kano State in 1978. The main concern of Koguna's study[40] was to discover the main causes of teacher turnover among Grade Two teachers in the primary schools of Kano State, who had been trained at the expense of the state government. One of the revelations from this study, by no means surprising to the present writer was the fact that neither the Kano State Ministry of Education nor the Local Education Authorities in the state kept records of teacher turnover! Of the characteristics of the turnover group, (560 teachers and headmasters who had served during the period of 1970-1976 but were no longer in the service) it was discovered that in most cases they were: less than twenty six years of age, male, married, had fewer than three dependants and had

38. S.A.Adesina, "The Development of Western Education. In A.B.Aderibigge (ed). Lagos: The Development of an African City. (Longman Nigeria, 1975).

39. ibid, p.133.

40. S.H.Koguna, "The Causes of Teacher Turnover Among Grade II Teachers In the Primary Schools of Kano State of Nigeria." (Ph.D.Dissertation, Ohio University, 1978).

less than three years of teaching experience. Among the factors which contributed to the withdrawal of their services, the following were identified:- inadequate concern or support for teachers by the administration; low prestige of teachers in the community; inadequate teaching materials and supplies; failure of the community to respect and accept the teachers as professionals; inadequate salary; undemocratic administrative and supervisory practices; irregular promotion practices; inadequate or unsatisfactory school buildings; inadequate provision by the administration for teacher participation in establishing criteria for evaluation; inadequate living and housing conditions; limited fringe benefits and the desire to leave for higher education.

Most of the turnover factors were avoidable since, as Koguna observed, they were mostly the result of actions or of neglect by the State Ministry of Education and/or Local Education Authorities.

3. <u>Previous Studies On Peoples' Work-Values</u>.

In a study of work values and chosen careers among certain groups of British workers, Carruthers used Super's Work Values Inventory (WVI) and found <u>inter alia</u>:

(a) Aesthetic values ranked lowest for all groups of subjects who were studied;

(b) Intellectual stimulation, way of life, achievement and variety were frequently ranked high;

(c) Economic returns were ranked high by teachers;

(d) Businessmen ranked economic returns first and altruism twelfth;

(e) All the groups of women ranked altruism higher than economic returns but only three of the ten groups of men did.[41]

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41. T.E.Carruthers, "Work Values and Chosen Careers" <u>Occupational Psychology</u> (1968) Vol.42, pp.111-117.

In 1968, Milton Blood administered a series of questionnaires to 448

airmen in the United States Air Force in an attempt to establish the

nature of the relationships between work values and job satisfaction.[42]

Among the instruments that were used in this study were the "Job

Description Index", the two faces scales[43] and an eight-item scale designed

to measure a person's amount of agreement with the Protestant Ethic. The

Protestant Ethic instrument used for assessing the subjects work values

contained eight items, four of which were pro-protestant-ethic" and the

other four, "non-protestant ethic." Correlations were computed between

the job/life satisfaction variables with the "protestant ethic dimensions.

The result showed positive but low-significant relationships between them.

This result led   Blood to conclude that since the direction of the

relationship was obvious in spite of the low correlations (most of them

at the .05 level of significance) "the more a person agrees with the

ideals of the Protestant Ethic, the more he will be satisfied in his work

and with life in general."[44] It is however consoling that the author

himself recognised the weaknesses in his instrumentation namely, the

non-inclusion of an anti-protestant ethic dimension and the vagueness of

the meaning of the non-protestant ethic dimension itself.

Shapiro in a similar study suggested that black workers were more

likely to value the extrinsic job rewards of high income and job security,

and less likely to value the intrinsic job rewards of feelings of

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42. Milton R.Blood, "Work Values and Job Satisfaction." Journal of
     Applied Psychology (1969) Vol. 53, pp.456-459.

43. See P.C.Smith et al, Measurement of Satisfaction in Work and
     Retirement (New York: Rand McNally, 1969); and T.Kunin, The
     Construction of a New Type of Attitude Measure Personnel Journal
     (1955) 8 : 65 - 77 for the descriptions of the "Job Description Index"
     and "Two Faces Scales" respectively.

44. Milton R.Blood, op.cit, p.457.

accomplishment than the white workers.[45]

The comparisons and contrasts in these two studies are very important, for they reflect the influence of socialization and other types of life experiences which exist prior to the individual's entry into the labour force and which shape one's view of the importance of the various dimensions of work.

At the same time Fogelman et al from a study of Britain's Sixteen Year Olds have concluded that for young people the most important aspects of a job were that it should have variety and a good salary.[46] The high ranking of extrinsic reward (economic returns) is not only to be found therefore among blacks qua blacks. The importance of this variable may extend across cultures, and in a recent British study, Brown et al concluded that the average British undergraduate seeks a job which pays well, demands creativity and originality, will be adventurous and will make use of his or her special abilities and talents.[47]

This finding relates closely to a U.S. based study of students, college teachers and business executive which found that the higher one was educated the more likely was one's desire for: association with interesting people; opportunities for self advancement and self development; opportunities for self expression and creativity; an occupation that offers challenge and an opportunity to do worthwhile constructive work.[48] As summarised by Ondrach,[49] the study further revealed that: business executives rated financial rewards and status higher than college

45. E.Gary Shapiro, "Racial Differences In the Value of Job Rewards"
    Social Forces (1977) Vol.56, No.I, pp.21-29.

46. K.Fogelman (ed.) Britain's Sixteen Year Olds (National Child
    Development Study, 1976).

47. Geoffrey Brown et al. Undergraduate Attitudes to Employment: Report On
    the First Years Work (University of Lancaster, October 1978).

48. F.P.Kilpatrick et al. The Image of the Federal Service.

49. D.A.Ondrack. "Emerging Occupational Values: A Review and some Findings."
    Academy of Management Journal (1973) Vol. 16, No.3, p.427.

tutors and cared less about social goals in their jobs; college teachers placed a higher premium on self-determination, personal freedom, opportunity for self-development, self-expression and creativity in their work or occupational values.

In a study of 365 college graduates who were entering industry between 1966 and 1970, Manhardt found that the subjects listed the following occupational values in their order of importance: a feeling of accomplishment; development of knowledge and skills; intellectual stimulation; recognition for good performance; advancement; creativity; economic returns; congenial associates; and respect from other people.[50]

Using the Occupational Value Scale earlier developed by Kilpatrick et al[51] to study occupational values of first year MBA students in Michigan and Toronto Universities, Ondrack discovered that,

> contemporary students are no longer interested
> in conventional careers working their way
> through the administrative hierarchy of an
> organization ... They reject authoritarian
> supervision and instead have a strong
> preference for a consultative-participative
> relationship with their supervisor. They
> reject closely defined jobs and prefer work
> situations which allow a strong sense of
> independence, individual responsibility,
> achievement and recognition. Finally they
> prefer to work with co-workers with skill
> and competence equal to theirs in a cooperative
> team relationship or as a group of colleagues
> rather than in an interpersonal competitive
> relationship.[52]

As Ondrack himself recognised, this as an idealistic group of occupational values which is very much related to the whole notion of professionalism.

Only recently, Harries - Jenkins and the present writer carried out a

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50. P.J.Manhardt. "Job Orientation of Male and Female College Graduates in Business" Personnel Psychology (1972) Vol. 25, p.363.

51. F.P.Kilpatrick et al, op.cit.

52. D.A.Ondrack, op.cit. pp.430-431.

study[53] whose aims were to (a) ascertain the type of valuation two groups of teacher-trainees in England and Nigeria placed on various work-values and then relate the findings to the whole notion of teachers' professionalism; and to (b) determine the variations if any, of their valuation of the work-values on the bases of the respondents' sex, age and country of domicile. A total of 183 final-year education students in Hull University, England and the University of Lagos, Nigeria, participated in the study. Education students were deliberately selected as a sample on the noted premise that anticipatory attitudes towards jobs were most likely to be confirmed by the subsequent work experience of professionals. The selection of education students also reflects the hypothesis that the attitudes of professional aspirants are considerably affected during their professional education and training by a well developed sense of anticipatory socialization. However it was noted that the latter may be less evident among education students than other groups of would-be professionals. Geer for example argues[54] that it is probable that most education students do graduate without values likely to commit them to a lifelong teaching career. The deliberate selection of the sample was thus designed to identify a group of possibly marginal professionals whose work-values were more complex than those conventionally attributed to professionals per se.

The Work Values Inventory (WVI)[55] for obtaining date about the patterning for different individuals of values that pertain to work situations and their commitments was used in that study, whose findings could be summarized briefly thus: (a) economic returns received the highest

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53. G.Harries - Jenkins and Aloy M.Ejiogu, "Marginal Professionalism? - A Study of Teachers' Work-Values" (an unpublished mimeograph - The University of Hull, Department of Adult Education, 1979).

54. Blanche Geer, "Occupational Commitment and the Teaching Profession", The School Review (Spring 1966), p.31.

55. For details, see D.E.Super, et al, Vocational Development: A Framework for Research (Teachers College, Columbia, 1957).

valuation by the total sample - a fact not conducive to professionalism;
and (b) there were variations on the work-values held by various groups of
the sample, thus pointing to the influence of various socialization and
non-work roles on the amount of value an individual attaches to a given
work variable. For example the women in the sample placed higher valuation
on surroundings, way of life, aesthetics and altruism aspects of work values
than the men did, thus suggesting that to many women teachers, at least,
the traditional self image of teaching contains much to commend it. Also
significant was the finding that the younger aspirants in contrast with
the older ones tended to prefer the postulated characteristics of the ideal-
type self-image. Those younger student-teachers concomitantly placed a
lower value on such features as "management" or "leadership" and economic
returns, preferring to stress the importance of intellectual stimulation,
creativity, prestige, variety and group relationships. The implications
of such findings could be very serious in terms of the design of education
and training programmes, for it can be inferred that the initial
preference shown for teaching as an occupation is shaped by an initial
vocational commitment which is subsequently lost. However, given the
limited sample involved in that study by Harries - Jenkins and the present
writer it may not be advisable to generalise from the findings as yet.
This calls for a more elaborate study that could involve teachers who are
already in the field.

Instead of looking at individuals' occupational values _per se_ or
relating their work-values to their personal characteristics, some studies
have focused attention on the relationship between values and occupational
choice of individuals. For example in 1960 Schwarzweller studied the
values and the occupational choices made by 241 girls and 199 boys in the
senior classes of eight county high schools in rural Kentucky. Using
twelve value variables (achievement, material comfort, security, hardwork,
mental work, creativity, working with people, service to society,

individualism, familism, external conformity and friendship)[56] as the
instrument, Schwarzweller's study[57] focused on (a) the value orientations
associated with status and situs dimensions of occupational choice, (b) the
sociocultural correlates of occupational values and (c) the empirical
interrelationships among these values orientations. According to that
study:

(a) Values on creative work, working with people, and service to
society were found to be positively related to the status of the occupations
chosen by the boys in the sample;

(b) There was a negative relationship between the girls' occupational
choice and values on material comfort, security, hardwork and familism.
However the girls' valuations of mental work, work with people and service
to society were found to be positively related to their occupational
choice;

(c) The three values of individualism, friendship and achievement did
not exhibit any statistically significant association with occupational
choice for both boys and girls;

(d) Generally the work value orientations of boys from the two regions
(rural and urban) covered by the sample revealed a "strikingly similar
pattern," although high values on achievement, and creativity were more
frequent among the urban (Bluegrass) boys than among their rural (Mountain)
counterparts. Similarly the girls in the mountain high schools placed
higher valuation on material comfort   compared to the Bluegrass
girls who valued hardwork more than did their mountain counterparts.

The lack of sharp difference between the rural and the urban groups

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56. Harry K. Schwarzweller, "Values and Occupational Choice" Social
    Forces (1960/61), Vol.39, pp.126-135.

57. Compare these with D.E.Super, et al's WVI in their work, "The
    Structure of Work Values In Relation to Status, Achievement, Interests
    and Adjustment." Journal of Applied Psychology, (1962) Vol.46, No.4,
    pp.231-239.

of the sample in Schwarzweller's study is a further confirmation of

Loomis's and Beegle's arguments that the attitudes of rural people "are

oriented toward the middle classes who operate the contractual "Gesellschaft-

like" and bureaucratic structures of society[58]. In general, Schwarzweller's

study revealed two things, namely, that value orientations influence

occupational choice and that occupational value orientations are learned

in the socialization process.

In fact a similar study was conducted by Rosenberg.[59] Among the issues

Rosenberg looked into was the distribution of value-complexes among

occupations. The study involved 3,905 employees in eighteen occupational

groups including teaching. Three value-complexes were identified, namely,

"self-expression oriented value complex", "extrinsic-reward oriented value

complex" "people-oriented value complex." Using the weighted average score,

teaching was ranked as follows: eighth on the "self-expression" dimension,

third on the "people" dimension and second to last with social work on the

"extrinsic-reward" oriented value complex. The study, among other things,

confirmed the traditional self-image of the teacher as a dedicated

professional committed to the welfare of the client, a self-image whose

validity is now seriously questioned.

Kalleberg's own study[60] was carried out in order "to understand the

variation in the work experiences of individuals in terms of the factors

that determine the fits individuals are able to obtain between their work

values and the rewards their jobs provide."[61] Kalleberg identified six

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58. Charles P.Loomis and J.Allen Beegle, _Rural Social Systems_ (Prentice-
    Hall, Inc., 1950) p.33, cited in Harry K.Schwarzweller, _op.cit_, p.131.

59. Morris Rosenberg, _Occupations and Values_ (Glencoe, Illinois: The
    Free Press, 1957), pp.11-13.

60. Arne L.Kalleberg, "Work Values, Job Rewards,and Job Satisfaction: A
    Theory of Work Experience." (Ph.D. Dissertation - The University of
    Wisconsin, Madison, 1975).

61. _ibid_, p.1.

major dimensions of work values (resource adequacy, intrinsic, convenience, financial, relations with co-workers, and career dimensions)[62] and these formed part of his instrument for the investigation. The relevant aspects of his findings could be summarized as follows:-

(a) that the whites in his sample valued the intrinsic, co-workers and resource-adequacy value dimension more than the nonwhites;

(b) that educational attainment had strong negative effects on the sample's valuations of convenience, financial rewards, relations with co-workers and resource adequacy;

(c) that the longer a worker had been an incumbent of a particular job the more he valued such characteristics as financial rewards; and

(d) that valuation in work values was first affected by socialization experiences within the family.[63] The differences between whites and nonwhites could be a reflection of prior socialization experiences, a suggestion already confirmed by Harries - Jenkins and the present writer in their own little study discussed above. Of much significance are Kalleberg's conclusions that (a) the extent to which individuals obtain job rewards that fulfil their values could be properly regarded as a function of the degree of control which they exercise over their employment conditions and that (b) the "fits" individuals obtain between their work values and the rewards which their jobs provide could be seen as determining their degree of job satisfaction.

4. Summary.

Attempts have been made in this part of the thesis to review some researchers' efforts to identify those factors in the teaching environment

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62. ibid, p.59.

63. ibid, pp.65-72.

which affect teachers' job satisfaction and turnover. Also looked at were

some studies on the work-values held by various workers, among them

teachers.

From this review the following factors or variables could be said to

have featured most frequently in recent teacher job satisfaction and

turnover studies:-

(a) personal and demographic variables such as sex, age, marital

status, number of years of experience, type and location of school; and

(b) the dependent variables related to the work situation such as

growth and achievement, advancement, central administrative policies,

pay and fringe benefits, status and prestige (recognition), interpersonal

relations, the job itself, job security, parents and pupils and the total

organizational environment.

The results of the studies that have been reviewed so far are

inconclusive with regard to the nature of the relationships between teacher

job satisfaction and biographical data. However the demographic variables

most often found to be significantly related to teachers' job satisfaction

were age, sex, and length of teaching experience in the school system.

Although there are variations in the reported findings on the factors

affecting teacher job satisfaction and turnover there is a consensus that

both satisfaction and tenure are affected by a combination of variables

both intrinsic and extrinsic to the job, as can be seen in Figure 7.

Interpersonal relationship tops the list of satisfaction factors mentioned

by some of the researchers followed by the quality of supervision, work

conditions, the work itself, achievement, and salary. Job dissatisfaction

is not the only cause of turnover. March and Simon[64] have well elaborated

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64. James G.March and Herbert A.Simon, Organizations (New York: Wiley
     and Sons, 1958) pp.93-106.

upon this point by arguing that employee turnover is affected by other factors than job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. According to them, perceived ease of movement from the organization, which is in turn related to such other factors as the supply-demand situation in the labour market, alternative jobs known to the worker and personal variables (e.g. age, sex and social status) is the most important factor affecting turnover in an organization - a view later confirmed by Williams et al.[65]

There has not been much work on teachers' work values. The few ones available suggest the existence of a strong relationship between a person's work values and his perception of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction; the more an individual values a particular aspect of his work the less likely he will be satisfied in them. However they were inconclusive on the type of relationships between the various work values and the subjects' biographical data. Such variations in an individual's work values have been attributed to a number of factors including socialization and other types of life experience which had occurred before one took up a particular job, "nonwork social roles which impose constraints and contingencies on the types of meanings that individuals can seek from their work activity"[66] and particular work experiences themselves (See Fig.8).

65. A.Williams, B.Livy, Rosaline Silvertone and Paul Adams, "Factors Associated With Labour Turnover Among Ancillary Staff in Two London Hospitals." Journal of Occupational Psychology, Vol.52(1) March 1979.

66. Arne L.Kalleberg, op.cit, p.64.

Fig. 8. A diagramatic summary of the previous research findings on the relationships among Job conditions, Work values, Job satisfaction and Turnover.
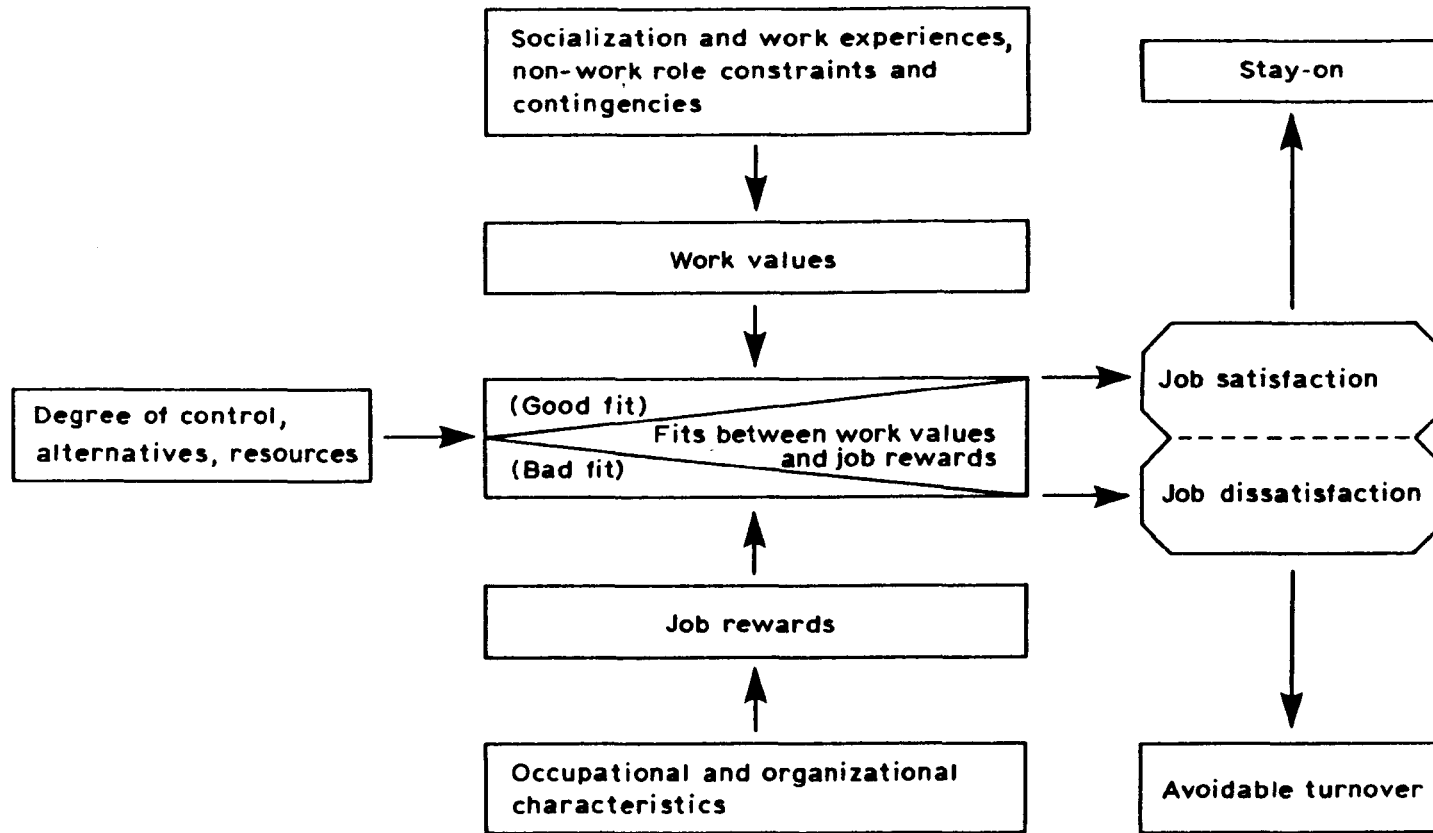
Adapted from : Arne L. Kalleberg, "Work values, Job rewards and Job satisfaction : A Theory of Work Experience." (PhD. Dissertations, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1975), p.26.

PART   THREE

THE   INVESTIGATION

CHAPTER FIVE

THE TEACHERS SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (TSQ)
DEVELOPMENT AND PRE - TEST PROCEDURES

1. Preamble

As Dawis and Weitzel have rightly observed, the assessment of employee altitudes such as is undertaken in job satisfaction studies is like taking the collective pulse of an organization.[1] Since attitudes involve both the cognitive and the affective processes the method of their identification and assessment becomes by definition personal and indirect.

There are two major approaches to the study of attitudes, namely: the drawing of inferences from the person's behaviour, and self-report techniques. The inferences-from-behaviour approach involves the researcher in a continuous observation of the subjects over a long period of time. This approach creates a great many practical problems associated with such factors as employee mobility, the distance between the researcher and the subjects, time, and money. Self-reporting techniques would thus seem to be the most convenient approach in attitude surveys such as teachers' job satisfaction studies. That is not to say of course that the self-rating technique has no obvious disadvantages or problems. For example, a self-rating technique tends to be liable to distortion; it could be prone to such errors as leniency, severity, or the 'halo' effect. But it saves much time on the part of the researcher, at least. Furthermore, self-rating measures have the additional advantage of making the subjects' replies as non-threatening as possible. And assuming that man is a responsible being who can be trusted, then the hope that he will be able to give a useful and relatively objective assessment of his

1. R.V.Dawis and W.F.Weitzel, The Measurement of Employee Attitudes (University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Centre,) p.1.

attitudes and feelings in an organizational survey is not illogical.

The instruments used in some of the earlier studies of teachers' job satisfaction in Nigeria were unfortunately inaccessible to the present writer.[2] Moreover, it was considered appropriate to construct a new instrument for other reasons.

The phrasing of the items in most of the published job satisfaction questionnaires is often not quite appropriate for the present study. For example, whereas education in Nigeria is essentially bureaucratized or centralized functionally, Britain and North America (the "birth place" of most of the known job satisfaction questionnaires) operate relatively decentralized school systems. Even within Nigeria itself, there exist subtle differences between the states in educational matters. For example, in some states the School Boards are virtual monopsonists - they are the sole and autonomous "buyers" of teachers' services, while in some others, the school boards still compete with the voluntary agencies, or the two at least complement each other in the recruitment and selection of teachers. And one might expect that these various systems will have different implications for teacher morale, motivation and so on.

That is not to assert however that the items included in the job satisfaction questionnaire for this study were entirely new ones. As a matter of fact, most of the items have been appropriated from other measures of teachers' job satisfaction elsewhere and then adapted to suit the needs of the present study.

Another important matter was the consideration of the form which the proposed questionnaire would take. In designing the format of the job satisfaction questionnaire, two options were open to the present writer.

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2. One of the authors asked her alma mater not to microfilm her dissertation for inter-library loan purposes, while the other refused to make his thesis available unless the present writer would pay him a certain amount of money in Pounds Sterling (and not in the Local Currency)!

The first was to adopt the general factor or facet-free approach using an instrument such as the "Bullock Job Satisfaction Scale"[3]. Such an approach would require the subject to sum up mentally his whole job situation and balance out all the aspects of his feelings of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It would require him for example to indicate the strength of his agreement with such general statements as:-

(a) "My job is like a hobby to me", and

(b) "I find real enjoyment in my work."[4]

The researcher might also ask the subject to respond to a question such as: "All in all how satisfied would you say you are with your job?"[5]

Although some writers might argue that a job cannot be evaluated in such a facet-free manner, Brayfield and Rothe have asserted that one such scale used by them had a split-half reliability coefficient of 0.87 and that it correlated 0.92 with Hoppock's satisfaction blank.

However, in spite of the avowed statistical reliability of the facet-free method of measuring people's job attitudes, the present writer endorses Portigal's objection that it "does not produce particularly interesting statistics from the standpoint of planning and evaluation in specific policy and programme areas."[6] The use of such a "wholesale" measurement of job satisfaction makes it impossible to determine in any specific way which

3. See Robert P.Bullock, Social Factors Related to Job Satisfaction (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1952).

4. See: A.H.Brayfield and H.F.Rothe, "An Index of Job Satisfaction". Journal of Applied Psychology (1951) vol.35, pp.307-311.

5. R.P.Quinn, S.Seashore, et al, Survey of Working Conditions (U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Document No.2916-0001, 1971).

6. A.H.Portigal, Towards the Measurement of Work Satisfaction (Paris: O.E.C.D, 1976) p.16.

policy changes may have produced which result. This is even more the case

if it is a question of an action research which is "tailor-fitted" and

adopts a "triple audit" approach.[7] To offset these obvious disadvantages

it was decided that the job satisfaction questionnaire for this study should

be designed in line with the specific factor approach. As Weiss et al

say,

> Two individuals may express the same amount of
> general satisfaction with their work but for
> entirely different reasons ... It is therefore
> likely that people find different satisfactions
> in work, and to understand these differences it
> is useful to measure satisfaction with the
> specific aspects of work and work environment.[8]

The specific - factor approach asserts that "specific situationally

dependent components account for most of the important content of employee

attitudes, focusing on the unique rather than the general."[9] Besides

Herzberg's study, the specific factor approach has been used widely under

various names such as Smith et al's "Job Descriptive Index"[10], the

"Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire" or "The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire."

A similar approach was used in the present study because, according to

Mills,

> Every known dimension of work must be taken
> into account to understand the meaning of work
> and the sources of its gratifications. Any
> one of them may become the foremost aspect of the
> job and in various combinations each is usually
> in the consciousness of the employee.[11]

2. Choosing the Teachers' Satisfaction Questionnaire Items.

Between December 10, 1978 and 20th February 1979 a total of thirty-six

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7. The "triple audit" is a dynamic multiple assessment process involving three phases. For details see, D.Yoder et al, Triple Audit in Industrial Relations (University of Minnesota: Industrial Relations Centre, 1951).

8. David J.Weiss, R.Dawis, et al, Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (University of Minnesota, 1967) p.vi.

9. R.Dawis and W.Weitzel, The Measurement of Employee Attitudes. (University of Minnesota, no date) p.2.

10. P.C.Smith I.M.Kendall and C.L.Hulin. The Measurement of Satisfaction In Work and Retirement (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969).

11. C.Wright Mills, White Collar: The American Middle Classes (New York: O.U.P. 1951) pp.233-234.

men and women (32 primary and secondary school heads and 4 N.U.T. officials) were asked in interviews with the present writer whether they thought their teachers were happy and satisfied with their jobs. _All_ of them gave answers which suggested that the teachers, of whatever categories, were "very much dissatisfied." Each of the interviewees was then requested to say or write down what aspects of the teaching job he or she thought the teachers were unhappy about.

They were asked to bear in mind what they had heard their teachers complaining about most of the time. Table VII below is a summary of their responses. Although these views should not be accepted without question, they must be allowed some importance since every responsible school head may be expected to have a relatively reliable insight into his teachers' attitudes and feelings.

Those opinions were further corroborated with other evidences such as the report of the "Principals' Conference On Discipline and Motivation In Nigerian Schools" held at Lagos University in July, 1977. According to the report, the principals identified the following, in descending order of perceived importance, as the major sources of dissatisfaction and frustration for the Nigerian school teachers:-

(a) low pay;

(b) lack of opportunity for intellectual growth or stimulation;

(c) lack of necessary equipment with which to do the job;

(d) students not interested in learning;

(e) large classes;

(f) very small classrooms and debilitating environment:

(g) poor quality of rural life;

(h) too many duties, other than actual teaching;

(i) uncooperative colleagues;

(j) too much worry by overzealous parents; and

TABLE VII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHING JOB FACETS DISSATISFYING TO THE TEACHERS IN IMO STATE, NIGERIA AS PERCEIVED BY A SAMPLE OF SCHOOL HEADS AND N.U.T. OFFICIALS IN THE STATE (N=36)

Dissatisfying Job Facets.	No. of Mention
1. Low professional status	36
2. Constant public blame	36
3. Lack of parental concern and appreciation	36
4. Inadequate fringe benefits	36
5. Overcrowding (High teacher-pupil ration)	33
6. "Arrogant attitudes" of school board officials	33
7. Poor promotion prospects, especially for the primary school teachers	33
8. Lack of "meaningful" in-service training programmes	32
9. Poor school - plant, equipment and stationery	30
10. Too much clerical work (filling forms ... etc)	30
11. Apparent powerlessness of school heads	28
12. Inadequate annual leave and holiday arrangements	20
13. The Banning of teachers from active participation in politics.	20
14. Heavy teaching load	20
15. Unsatisfactory Salary structure	12
16. High handedness of the headmaster/headmistress	11

(k) frequent and uncalled - for interferences by the School Boards and the Ministries of Education.[12]

This researcher noted with interest the discrepancy in the weightings that were ascribed to the various teaching job aspects as dissatisfiers by the conference of principals and by the school heads and the N.U.T. officials who were interviewed as reported earlier in this thesis. Such a discrepancy in fact justified the need to carry out an intensive systematic study of the teachers' job satisfaction, using a self-report technique.

Bearing in mind the job satisfaction scales which have been used in earlier studies and reviewed in chapter two, and also taking into account the conference of principals' report and the opinions of the thirty six educationalists who had been interviewed (see Table VII) the following scales of teacher job satisfaction (defined in Chapter Six) were chosen for this study:-

(a) Growth and Advancement;

(b) Central Administrative Policies;

(c) Pay;

(d) Fringe Benefits;

(e) Recognition;

(f) Teacher - School Head Relations;

(g) Teacher - Inspector Relations:

(h) The Curriculum and related Instructional services;

(i) Work Load;

(j) School Neighbhourhood;

(k) Teacher- Teacher Relations;

(l) Teacher - Pupil Rapport;

(m) Job Security;

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12. National Policy Development Centre (Think Tank) Report on Principals' Conference On Discripline and Motivation In Schools (Lagos, Federal Ministry of Information, 1977) pp. 26-27.

(n) Teacher - Parent (Community) Relations: and

(o) An Overall Job Satisfaction index.

Fifty-eight questionnaire items were then devised to reflect the above indices or scales of teacher job satisfaction. The fifteen indices above could in fact be said to resemble Ronan's list of job satisfaction scales which he obtained after factor analysing a good number of job satisfaction questionnaire items.[13] The 58 items and their groupings were later subjected to the scrutiny of eleven educationalists (professors and lecturers in Educational Management, Occupational Sociology and Personnel Psychology). These men and women were requested to assess the clarity, the meaningfulness and the relevance of every item in terms of its grouping and of the object of this study (see Appendix 5.A). Each of those eleven experts scored the items as requested (see Appendix 5-B). In a way this activity established the face validity as Selltiz suggests.[14]

As there was an a priori decision to reject any item which scored a mean of 2 and below in this test, items 6, 10, 12, 15, 19, 23, 24, 28, 34, 38, 42, 47, 54, 55 and 57 (Appendix 5.B) were not included in the final questionnaire. Although 43 items were adjudged to be relevant to this study, some of them which merely duplicated others were also left out. This pruning exercise left forty-one items in the end. Finally some of the earlier factor-analytic studies of teachers' job satisfaction were consulted to ensure that the job facets already selected for the present study were as comprehensive as possible[15].

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13. W.W.Ronan, "Individual and Situational Variables Relating to Job Satisfaction." Journal of Applied Psychology, (1970) vol. 54, No.1, pp.1-31.

14. Claire Selltiz, S.Wrightsman and S.W.Cook, Research Methods In Social Relations (New York: Halt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976) p.165.

15. See for example the factors in: Franklin Joseph Quitugua, "An Investigation of Factors Which Affect Teacher Satisfaction and Tenure in the Guam Public Schools" (Ph.D.dissertation, University of Oregon 1975) p.60.

3. <u>The Wording and the Layout of the Teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire</u>

The theories of equity and discrepancy discussed in the literature review (Chapter Three) are generally recognised as the two strongest theoretical explanations of job satisfactin. Both theories, it has been argued earlier in this thesis, emphasize the importance of an employee's perceived outcomes in relation to a second perception - what the outcomes should be - bearing in mind other peoples' inputs and outcomes. Lawler recommends therefore that "in studying people's feelings about their jobs, it seems logical to focus on what employees feel they should receive from their jobs."[16] In Lawler's model of the determinants of job satisfaction, satisfaction occurs when a person's perception of the amount that should be received is matched by the perceived amount which is in fact received; while dissatisfaction occurs when the perceived amount that should be received is less than the perceived amount received (see Fig.6 in Chapter Three). It was this thinking that determined the actual wording of the teachers' job satisfaction questionnaire especially with regard to pay and fringe-benefit items.

The facet-specific method of measuring employees' attitudes may or may not include an <u>importance dimension</u>. Porter and Lawler favour its inclusion, arguing that the importance dimension could be useful in explaining the relationships between job satisfaction and performance[17] - a view supported by Dawis and Weitzel for whom "it would seem that the importance of attitudinal aspects is one assumption that cannot be taken for granted."[18] Accordingly therefore the job satisfaction questionnaire designed for this study had to include a work-value importance dimension.

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16. Edward E.Lawler, <u>Motivation In Work Organization</u> (Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1973) pp. 72-74.

17. R.V.Dawis, and W.F.Weitzel, <u>op.cit</u>: p.5.

18. <u>ibid</u>.

(This is fully described in Chapter Six of this thesis).

A 5-point rating format of the Likert type was adopted in spite of its susceptibility to response-set. However if it is carefully designed, the problem of response-set could be averted, which would not be the case with a ranking format or a pair-comparison format, both of which have the obvious disadvantage of having a limited range of allowable content on the questionnaire. Another related issue to be decided upon was whether the rating scale should be two-sided with a neutral point in the middle or one-sided with the neutral point at one end. Dawis and Weitzel recommend the one-sided five point scale which, as they say, tends to favour the requirements of "respondent acceptability" (fewer points on the scale) and information maximization.

In the light of all the arguments examined thus far, the teacher job satisfaction questionnaire for this study (a) was so worded as to reflect the need for equity consideration by every respondent, make scale content more homogeneous, and maximize readability; (b) comprised two sections - the respondents' demographic variables and job satisfaction indices; (c) adopted a one-sided five point rating scale in preference to both the ranking format and the pair - comparison format; (d) adopted a facet - specific (multidimensional) approach while including at the same time a general or "global" dimension for purposes of statistical comparisons.

Having drafted the questionnaire, a "saturation technique" was applied in order to find out if all the possible areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in teaching in the state had been exhausted. The technique involved the present researcher in personal interviews with twenty teachers in the state, selected at random; those were asked if they could think of any satisfying or dissatisfying job aspects which had not yet been represented in the draft questionnaire. With a few amendments suggested by this group of teachers, for instance the removal of those items that

were unnecessarily duplicated, the teachers' satisfaction questionnaire (TSQ) was printed (see Appendix 5.C Part 1 and 2) and could be pre-tested.

4. **Pilot Study: A Pre-Test of the TSQ.**

The purpose of the pilot study was to ascertain both the reliability and the validity of the TSQ as well as to judge which items would have to be eliminated as producing ambiguous responses. Another reason for the pre-testing of the questionnaire was to assess the feasibility of the proposed methods of investigation.

The pilot study took place in the first two weeks of March 1979 during which period the present writer administered the questionnaire to 60 teachers in four schools which had earlier been selected randomly using the fish-bowl (lucky dip) technique from a list of primary and post-primary institutions in the state[19]. The four schools were chosen as follows: one urban primary, one rural primary, one urban secondary and one rural secondary. As there was no way of pre-determining which teachers would be involved, the representativeness of the pilot sample depended on chance. On the return of the questionnaire, the composition of the sample was revealed as follows:-

    (a)   i   male ... 33

         ii female ... 27

    (b)   i   under 30 years of age 28

         ii 31-40 years of age 18

        iii above 40 years of age 14

    (c)   i   single 32

         ii married 28

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19. This list is contained in the **Directory of Primary and Post-Primary Institutions in Imo State, 1975-1976** (Owerri: Ministry of Education and Information, Planning and Research Division, 1977).

(d)   i   graduates/diploma 11

        ii others 49

(e)   i   primary teaching 35

        ii secondary teaching 25

(f)   i   below 5 yrs. experience 24

        ii six-ten yrs. experience 19

      iii above ten yrs. experience 17

(g)   i   rural 39

        ii urban 21

(h)   i   willing to continue teaching in the state 18

        ii intending to resign at the earliest opportunity.. 42

Two other cells within the marital status variable ("widowed" and "divorced") were not represented in the sample although this researcher knew quite well one of the respondents who was a divorcee and had not yet re-married.

At the end of the exercise in each school, the teachers were asked to leave their completed questionnaires in a large envelope provided in the staff common room. Then the researcher went round, thanked them personally and asked if they had any comments to make. As a result of such "talk-through" sessions at which the teachers were given the opportunity to verbalize their interpretations of the questionnaire it was discovered that the tags "widow" and "divorcee" were highly "insulting" to any affected Ibo man or woman, the argument being that the Ibo society regards a divorcee as a social misfit while the label widow(er) is an unfortunate reminder of one's misfortune. Accordingly those two groups were left out of the questionnaire during the main study. Another revelation was that the questionnaire was too long to be completed on the spot. The suggestion was that for a more reliable response, the subjects ought to be allowed to take the questionnaire package home where they could fill it in at their leisure and out of pressure from school work.

More than sixty teachers had been expected to participate in this pilot - study. Little did this writer realise that most of the schools, with a pupil population of over five hundred, had fewer than ten teachers. However sixty was encouraging, bearing in mind that some similar studies had had to pre-test similar instruments with fewer sample teachers.[20]

Three main computations of the data were carried out in order to establish the instrument's validity and reliability. Those were: a calculation of the mean score and the standard deviation of each scale; the difference-of-means tests (for validity) and correlational analyses (for reliability).

The mean score for each of the job satisfaction scales as perceived by the subjects of the pilot test is shown below:

Job Satisfaction Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation
Teacher - Teacher Relations	3.5426	0.3734
Teacher - School Head Relations	3.3032	0.7031
Job - Security	3.0851	0.8296
Fringe Benefits	3.0319	0.5357
Teacher - Parents Relations	2.3617	0.2490
Pay	2.2128	0.9426
School Neighbourhood	1.8511	0.9190
Central Administrative Policies	1.6454	0.5446
Curriculum and Instructional Services ...	1.5936	0.1480
Work Load	1.5123	0.3268
Teacher - Pupils Relations	1.3617	0.6052
Growth and Achievement	1.3252	0.1969
Teacher - Inspector Relations	1.3191	0.5153
Recognition and Status	1.0468	0.0856
Career Satisfaction	1.8314	0.3490

A comparison between this result and the one in Table VII suggests by

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20. See for example, Franklin Joseph Quitugua, op.cit., p.55.

the
their identicality an appreciable level of/validity of the TSQ. Although

one should not generalise from this finding in view of the small sample size

involved, it would appear that Herzberg's thesis of a dichotomy between

"hygiene" and "motivation" factors was being challenged.

Those subjects who indicated their willingness to stay within the state's

teaching service expressed greater overall satisfaction with their jobs

(mean = 2.9423) than those who said they would withdraw their services at

the first available opportunity (mean = 2.2619). The difference between the

two mean scores, using a two-tail probability t-test (t-value = 3.25) was

statistically significant at the 0.002 level. That was in line with earlier

research findings establishing strong relationships between turnover and job

satisfaction[21]. The female group of the sample expressed a higher overall

job satisfaction (mean = 3.3095) than the male group (mean = 2.0962)

showing a t-value of 8.27 which was statistically significant at better

than the 0.001 level. The urban group of the sample expressed greater

feeling of satisfaction with the school neighbourhood (mean = 2.7647) than

the rural group (mean = 1.333); this yielded a t-value of 14.11 and was

significant at better than the 0.001 level of statistical significance.

Also, as expected, the graduate teachers expressed better relationships

with the school inspector with whom they were equals, at least educationally,

than the primary teachers had with him. The difference between the two

groups' respective mean of 1.6667 and 1.2000 yielded a t-value of 2.92

which proved statistically significant at the 0.005 level. These findings

suggest a construct validity of the TSQ (ie. its ability to discriminate

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21. Vroom has argued that measures of job satisfaction were more reliable in
    predicting employee turnover than they were in predicting the quality
    and the amount of his job performance. See V.H.Vroom Motivation In
    Management (New York: American Foundation for Management Research, 1965)
    p.35; L.W.Porter and R.M.Steers also argue for an inverse relationship
    between job satisfaction and turnover. See also their work,
    "Organizational, Work and Personal Factors in Employee Turnover and
    Absenteeism" Psychological Bulletin (1973) vol.80, pp. 151-176.

among various groups of teachers). Its content and face validity have been demonstrated earlier in this chapter.

The TSQ items were later split into two parts, odd and even, in preference to the split-half technique because, among other reasons, the procedure would eliminate the possible biasing effects of such factors as fatigue or loss of interest which might affect the response patterns towards the tail end of the questionnaire. A comparison of the odd and the even groups of scores yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.7293 which was corrected to 0.84 using the Spearman - Brown Prophecy Formula[22].

Since the initial allocation of the items on the questionnaire to various scales was not based on any empirical data, a multiple correlation was computed for each scale of items in order to ascertain the validity of such groupings. In almost all the cases, the result showed high positive relationships among the items comprising each scale (see Table VIII).

An attempt was also made to relate the TSQ to some well-established job satisfaction questionnaires. Thus on the 18th and the 19th of June 1979, the TSQ and the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), which had 20 representative items,[23] were administered respectively to fifteen Nigerian teachers reading advanced courses in Hull University. The subjects, all of whom volunteered to participate, were asked to cast their minds back to their teaching service years in Nigeria and, on the

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22. Named after the two men who developed it independent of each other, this formula utilizes the actual reliability which had been found for the two halves (odd + even) of the test in order to prophesy what the reliability of the total questionnaire would be, through the formula:
$\frac{2 \times r^2}{1 + r^2}$ where r^2 is the reliability coefficient between the two halves of the questionnaire. See, Robert L.Thorndike and Elizabeth P. Hagen, Measurement and Evaluation In Psychology and Education, 4th ed. (New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1977) p.91.

23. D.J.Weiss, R.V., Dawis: G.W.England and L.H.Lofquist, Manual For the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. (University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Centre, Work Adjustment Project, 1967) p.111.

TABLE VIII

THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG EACH GROUP OF THE TSQ SCALE ITEMS
(The Pilot-test Phase)

Scale	Lowest Correlation Coefficient	Highest Correlation Coefficient	Lowest level of Significance
1. Pay (2 items)	0.9083	0.9083	0.001
2. Fringe Benefits (2)	0.3976	0.3976	0.021
3. Teacher - School Head Relations (3 items)	0.6581	0.7296	0.001
4. Central Administrative Policies (3 items)	0.6213	0.8055	0.001
5. Teacher-Parents Relations (2 items)	0.6231	0.6231	0.001
6. School Neighbourhood (3 items)	0.7474	0.9080	0.001
7. Teacher - Teacher Relations (2 items)	0.8775	0.8775	0.001
8. The Curriculum and Instructional Services (4 items)	0.2976	0.7287	0.021
9. Work load (3 items)	0.6581	0.7293	0.001
10. Job Security (2 items)	0.7652	0.7652	0.010
11. Recognition and Status (4 items)	0.6223	0.6825	0.001
12. Teacher - Pupil Relations (2 items)	0.6456	0.6456	0.001
13. Growth and Advancement (5 items)	0.3728	0.7185	0.010
14. Teacher-Inspector Relations (2 items)	0.4882	0.4882	0.001
15. Career Satisfaction (2 items)	0.9194	0.9194	0.0001

basis of their reflections, complete the questionnaire. With this group the TSQ yielded an odd-even reliability of 0.68 while the short form of the MSQ produced an odd-even reliability coefficient of 0.71. Thorndike and Hagen[24] think that the square root of the product of two such reliabilities can give a rough idea of the validity of the new test. On this basis, a coefficient of equivalence of 0.69 could be claimed for the TSQ.

It has to be emphasized of course that the small samples used in these reliability and validity exercises impose some limitations on the extent to which one can rely on the TSQ with absolute confidence. In a way, this study can be viewed as the initial major investigation of the construct validity of the questionnaire.

24. R.L.Thorndike and Elizabeth P.Hagen, Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education, 4th ed. (New York: Wiley, 1977) p.88.

CHAPTER SIX

THE METHOD OF THE MAIN INVESTIGATION

1. The Sample

Before a decision was made with regard to the number of teachers who would be invited to participate in this study, several issues were taken into account: the characteristics of the population from which the sample would be drawn; the type of data sought; the data-gathering processes envisaged; and the statistical analyses planned. For example, the more subgroups there are within a population, the larger the sample size needs to be. That too bears a direct relationship to the statistical analyses to be used. According to Fox, the statistical dividing line between large and small samples is a sample size of thirty. Fox argues that "with two such samples the curve of the t-distribution and of the normal curve are so close as to be the same for purposes of hypothesis testing."[1] Another statistic which interacts with sample size is the chi-square test. Again according to Fox,

> ... it [chi square] cannot properly be used
> when the expected frequencies drop below 5
> in more than 20 percent of the cells. The
> researcher planning to use chi square must
> think ahead to the nature of the variables
> for which he intends to use it and consider
> the number of cells for each variable and the
> probable distribution of his respondents
> among these cells so that he has more than
> enough in the sample to make chi square
> appropriate.[2]

The highest number of cells within the independent and personal variables of the teacher satisfaction questionnaire (TSQ) was eighteen and in accordance with Fox's recommendations, the sample had to be such that the number in each cell would be well above five. A thousand teachers

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1. David J.Fox, The Research Process in Education (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969) p.347. Also inclined towards this view are Walter R.Borg and Meredith D.Gall in their Educational Research: An Introduction, 3rd edition, (Longman, 1976) pp.194-195.

2. ibid, p.347-348.

randomly selected was therefore considered a fairly large sample for this study.[3] There were altogether about 21,000 primary and secondary teachers in Imo State[4] when this study was undertaken. And Krejcie and Morgan recommend 379 as an appropriate sample size from a population of about 20,000 to 30,000[5].

Bearing in mind also that "sample size is far less important than sample representativeness" or that "no data are sounder than the representativeness of the sample from which they were obtained no matter how large the sample"[6], a stratified sampling technique was adopted as a precision-increasing technique. It was not possible to select predetermined numbers of individual teachers according to sex, age, or grade levels since there was no list from which to locate individuals within these categories. Consequently the population was stratified along two easily identifiable variables - grade of school (primary and secondary) and geographical location (rural and urban). On the assumption that an average school would have about ten teachers (as observed during the pilot study) the expected 1,000 teachers would be located within 100 primary and secondary schools. Although the ratio of primary schools (1,910) to secondary schools (147) at the time was about 12:1, it was decided to select them in the ratio of 3:1. That meant selecting 75 primary schools and 25 secondary schools.

School location was another criterion in choosing the sample schools.

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3. An earlier similar study in another state in Nigeria, "The Relationship Between Selected Teacher Variables and Teacher Job Satisfaction in Western Nigeria Secondary Schools" (a New York University Ph.D. dissertation by Stella Adenihun Olatunji, 1971), used only 146 samples. See Dissertation Abstracts International (1972) vol.32, No. 1, p.6059A.

4. Government of Imo State, Bulletin of Education Statistics, 1978.

5. See R.V.Krejcie and D.W.Morgan, "Determining Sample Size for Research Activities" Educational and Psychological Measurement (1970), vol. 30, pp. 607-610 for a table on determining sample size from a given population size.

6. David Fox, op.cit, pp.346-351.

As Kast and Rosenzweig say,

> Organizations are subsystems of a broader
> suprasystem- the environment. They have
> identifiable but permeable boundaries which
> separate them from their environment. They
> receive inputs across these boundaries,
> transform them and return inputs. As society
> becomes more and more complex and dynamic,
> organizations tend to devote increasing
> attention to environmental forces.[7]

Not only do schools transform inputs received from their environments,

they themselves are also most often "transformed" by the environment.

Hulin holds this view and in his study of the effects of community

characteristics on job satisfaction he argues,

> It is no longer enough to consider
> community and situational variables as
> moderator variables. The direct effect of
> these variables on satisfaction must be
> considered[8].

At the beginning of this investigation in 1978, Imo State secondary

and primary schools were composed as follows: 53 urban and 93 rural

secondary schools, and 1228 rural and 682 urban primary schools. That

represented roughly a ratio of 1 urban school to 2 rural schools. Once

again it was arbitrarily decided to select the sample schools in a ratio of

1 urban school to $1\frac{1}{2}$ rural schools in order to ensure a representative

sample of every cell within each major group. Thus, chosen as sample

schools were 10 urban secondary schools, 30 urban primary schools, 15 rural

secondary schools and 45 rural primary schools (see Table IX below).

TABLE IX

THE COMPOSITION OF THE INVITED SAMPLE SCHOOLS.

Location	Primary	Secondary	Total
1. Rural	45	15	60
2. Urban	30	10	40
Total	75	25	100

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7. F.E.Kast and J.E.Rosenzweig, Organization and Management: A Systems Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974) p.130.

8. Charles C.Hulin, "Effects of Community Characteristics As Measures of Job Satisfaction", Journal of Applied Psychology(1966) Vol.50, No.2 p.191.

Individual sample schools were selected from a list[9], using the lucky

dip technique, and every teacher in the selected schools was expected to

participate in this study by completing the questionnaire and taking part in

the "talk through" interviews that would follow.

2. Research Instruments.

In an attitude survey using the self-report technique such as this study,

two main approaches are usually open to the researcher: he could either

administer a pen-and-paper questionnaire to the subjects, or he could

interview them personally. Both options are fraught with some disadvantages.

For example, although the questionnaire method guarantees the subjects'

anonymity which is very desirable in sensitive and personal questions as

well as yielding much more data than the interview method within a given

time span, it nevertheless has a number of disadvantages. It is often

rigid and inflexible. Often the subject gives a response which he

perceives to be socially acceptable (ie a "social desirability" tendency),

a respondent influenced by the "acquiescence tendency" might agree or

disagree with all or most questions. There is also the probability of

"extremity biases" emerging, with the subjects using or avoiding extremes

in answering the questions. The interview method, on the other hand is

recommended for its flexibility and for its suitability for deeper probing

of issues involved in the study. It nevertheless has many disadvantages

such as biased responses that could result from the interviewer's personal

characteristics (e.g. his facial expressions), his frame of reference and

the type of leading questions he adopts. The ideal approach would

therefore be that which incorporates both the pen-and-paper questionnaire

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9. The list was derived from: Imo State of Nigeria, <u>Directory of Primary</u>
   <u>and Post-Primary Institutions In Imo State, 1976-77</u>. (Ministry of
   Education and Planning, Planning and Research Division, Owerri).

method and the interview method. As Dunham and Smith observe,

> The unique strengths and weaknesses of both interviews
> and questionnaires suggest that a combination of the
> two techniques provides the most effective
> organizational survey program. Thus, selective
> preliminary interviewing can be helpful for identifying
> critical issues to include in a comprehensive
> questionnaire. In addition, follow-up interviews
> can be useful for probing deeper into critical areas
> assessed by the questionnaire[10].

Accordingly this study utilized both the interview and the questionnaire

methods of investigation.

(a) <u>The Teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire (TSQ)</u>.

The teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire (TSQ) which was newly

designed for this study, had two parts to it. The first part elicited

information regarding the respondents' personal characteristics such as

sex, age, marital status, educational qualifications, years of teaching

experience, school grade and school geographical location. Also included

in this section were questions which sought to measure the respondents'

'commitment' to teaching within the state school system. The second part

of the TSQ comprised forty-one questions which were meant to ascertain the

respondents' perceptions of satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction with the

various aspects of their jobs as teachers. (The TSQ development procedure

has already been discussed fully in Chapter Five of this thesis).

The forty-one TSQ items reflected a number of job satisfaction scales

as defined and elaborated below:-

(i) <u>Pay</u>. This scale assessed the teachers' perceptions of the

adequacy of their basic salary structure, salary incremental rate and the

administration of the pay system. The emphasis was on the adequacy of the

overall pay system as it affected teachers in the state. Lawler, for

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10. Randal B.Dunham and Frank J.Smith, <u>Organizational Surveys, An
    Internal Assessment of Organizational Health</u> (Glenview, Illinois:
    Scott, Foresman and Company, 1979). pp.14-15.

example, regards a rational pay structure in any organization as one of the important determinants of any employee's job satisfaction and motivation. Equity and merit, argues Lawler, are the major components of that rationality[11]. The Science Research Associates of Chicago are of the same opinion as Lawler. According to them, "it is not the amount paid that creates the most acute problems: morale really suffers when employees think that in comparison with others they are underpaid."[12] (See the TSQ item nos. 6 and 11 Appendix 5-C).

(ii) Fringe Benefits. This scale relates to those items (TSQ item. nos. 28 and 35 - Appendix 5 -C) measuring the teachers' satisfaction with the amount of incentives they receive and the administration of such other extrinsic motivators as holidays, vehicle basic allowance, travelling mileage allowance, house rent subsidy, duty-out-of-station allowance, annual leave bonus and the provision of medical care for teachers and their families. These were also considered to be important factors when any group of workers assess their job satisfaction.

(iii) Central Administrative Policies (TSQ item nos. 24, 26, 34). This scale assessed the teachers' perceived satisfaction with the content and the methods of the formulation and implementation of educational policies and regulations by the state's Ministry of Education, the State Educational Services Board and the Local Education Authorities.

(iv) Growth and Advancement (TSQ item nos. 8, 9, 21, 22 and 30). This scale measured a teacher's perceptions and assessment of the opportunities which he had to "grow" and to "excel" in his job, and his perceived satisfaction with the promotion system as it had affected him. "Growth" as it was conceived in this study related to Maslow's "self-

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11. E.E.Lawler III, Motivation In Work Organizations (Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1973) p.69.

12. Science Research Associates, Inc., Administration and Interpretation of the SRA Attitude Survey. (Chicago, Illinois, 1974) p.18.

actualization" need - a person's need for self-fulfilment, the desire to become everything one was capable of becoming, a feeling that one was doing one's best. "Advancement", on the other hand involved "a change of assignment from a job of a lower level to one of a higher level within the organization"[13], such a new position providing the incumbent with an increase in pay and status.

(v) <u>Recognition and Status (TSQ items 2, 5, 12 and 18)</u>.
This index measured the teacher's perceived satisfaction with the respect and appreciation which he gets from "important others" in the school and the community. Recognition and status are broad conceptions which, according to Penn, refer to the "notion of esteem, honor, reputation, eminence, renown, admiration and acclamation ... the granting of deference in social interaction ... an attribution of worthiness."[14]

(vi) <u>Teacher-School Head Relations</u>. This category of items (TSQ item nos. 10, 13, 37) measured the teacher's appraisal of his school headmaster or headmistress as a work group leader. According to Bentley and Rempel, the scale refers to "the teacher's feelings about the principal - his professional competency, his interest in the teachers and their work, his ability to communicate, and his skill in human relations".[15]

(vii) <u>The Curriculum and Instructional Services</u>. This scale which comprised items 1, 16, 29 and 32 on the TSQ (Appendix 5.C) assessed the teacher's perceived satisfaction with the curriculum and instructional programmes and materials, especially with regard to their flexibility, their relevance to the needs of the students and their availablity in adequate quantity and good quality.

13. Herbert J.Chruden and Arthur W.Sherman Jr. <u>Personnel Management</u>. (West Chicago, Illinois: South Western Publishing Company, 1976) p.345.

14. Roger Penn, "Occupational Prestige Hierarchies: A Greater Empirical Invariant?" <u>Social Forces</u> (1975) vol. 54, no.2, p.353.

15. R.R.Bentley and A.M.Rempel, <u>Manual For the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire</u> (West Lafayette, Indiana: University Book Store, 1970) p.4.

(viii) <u>Work Load</u> The index of Work Load sought to measure the teacher's perceived satisfaction with the pupil-teacher ratio in his class(es) and the amount of work output which he is required to perform, including record keeping and other forms of clerical work and community demands on his time. It covers the teacher's work pace, work load, hours of work and physical and mental job pressures. (TSQ item nos. 3, 19 and 36).

(ix) <u>Teacher - Teacher Relations. (TSQ item nos. 20 and 25)</u>. This scale measured a teacher's assessment of the friendliness and cooperation of other teachers in the school. The scale was considered important because, as the Science Research Associates of Chicago say, "assistance offered to fellow workers, an absence of interpersonal friction and friendliness reveal cooperative attitudes. A friendly organization is an important asset."[16]

(x) <u>The Teacher-Parent (Community) Relations scale (TSQ items 15 and 23)</u> was designed to measure the teacher's perceived satisfaction with the respect for teachers, and willingness to support the school and its activities, shown by parents and the larger community.

(xi) <u>School Neighbourhood and Working Conditions (TSQ items 7, 14 and 33)</u>. Within this scale, the teachers' judgements of their working conditions and of the Ministry of Education's/Education Services Board's interest in their physical comfort and safety as well as the adequacy of the entire school plant were probed. The Science Research Associates Inc. thinks that,

> Employees usually respond with directness to
> the problem of working conditions. Sometimes
> employees regard poor working conditions as
> evidence of management's lack of concern for
> them.[17]

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16. Science Research Associates, Inc., <u>op.cit</u>., p.19.

17. <u>ibid</u>, p.18.

(xii) <u>Teacher-Inspector Relations (TSQ item 31 and 41)</u>. The index
of teacher-inspector relations probed the extent of a teacher's perceived
satisfaction with the type of professional and personal relationships which
exist between him and the school inspector in his school district or Local
Education Authority.

(xiii) <u>Teacher-Pupil Relations (TSQ items 27 and 39)</u>. This scale
measured the teacher's assessment of, and perceived satisfaction with the
way he and his pupils (students) relate to each other.

(xiv) <u>Job Security (TSQ item 17 and 40)</u>. This scale was designed to
assess the teacher's assessment and the degree of his perceived satisfaction
with the security which teaching in the state's school system provides.
Security in this context relates to security from arbitrary discharge and
layoff, and recognition for length of service. Security is one of the
important attributes which people seek from their jobs. As Chruden and
Sherman have observed, it is "concerned in a large measure with the
possible loss of income as a result of layoffs, disability or retirement as
well as with the loss of being needed and worthwhile."[18]

(xv) <u>Career Satisfaction (TSQ items 4 and 38)</u>. The career satisfaction
scale measured the teacher's mental summation of his entire job situation,
the process of which involved his balancing out <u>all</u> the aspects of his
feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It relates to the teacher's
"overall affective reaction to the set of work and work environment factors;
it is a function of all of the facets of satisfaction."[19]

As can be seen from Appendix 5-C, the different job satisfaction
questionnaire items were located randomly over the pages in order to break
up any response-set or predisposition on the part of the respondents. The
face sheet introduction to the Teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire (TSQ) laid
due emphasis on the importance of this research and the anonymity of

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18. H.J.Chruden and A.W.Sherman, <u>op.cit.</u>, p.512.

19. R.B.Dunham and F.J.Smith, <u>op.cit.</u>, p.8.

responses.

Satisfaction was measured on a 5-point rating scale ranging from "very dissatisfied" through "neutral" to "very satisfied".

The psychometric properties of the TSQ have been discussed in Chapter Five. A pilot-test of the instrument showed that it possessed an odd-even reliability of 0.84 (Spearman-Born formula), a coefficient of equivalence of 0.69 (using Thorndike and Hagen's suggestion[20]) and ample evidence of face, content and construct validity.

(b) The Work Values Inventory (W.V.I.).

The second instrument administered to the subjects of this study was the Work Values Inventory (W.V.I.) which Super had developed from Ginzberg et al's earlier classification of work values. For Ginzberg and his associates,[21] work values could be classified into three domains: extrinsic values (money and prestige); concomitants of work values (social and environmental); and intrinsic values (such as pleasure in the achievement of specific goals). Super[22] worked on Ginzberg et al's study and evolved a further differentiation of those work values into fifteen categories, namely:- way of life; security; prestige; economic returns; surroundings or physical environment; relationship with associates; supervisory relationships; altruism; creativity; independence; intellectual stimulation; aesthetics; achievement;   management (the will to organize and direct the activities of others) and variety.

An abridged version of the Form 1[23] of the Work Values Inventory was

20. Thorndike and Hagen, op.cit.

21. E.Ginzburg, S.Ginzburg and S.Axelrad, Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951).

22. D.E.Super, "The Structure of Work Values in Relation to Status, Achievement, Interests and Adjustment". Journal of Applied Psychology (1962) vol.46, No.4, pp.231-239.

23. See, T.E.Carruthers, "Work Values and Chosen Careers: Note on a Trial of an American Work Values Inventory with British Subjects". Occupational Psychology (1968) Vol.42, p.112.

the one used in this study for obtaining data about the patterning for different individual teachers of values that pertain to their work situations and their concomitants (See Part 3 of Appendix 5-C).

The Work Values Inventory has been used in a number of studies during which its validity and reliability have been well established. For example, in Normile's study of American subjects[24] the inventory discriminated among the following professional groups: psychiatrists, teachers, priests, lawyers, accountants and engineers. In Carruthers's use of the WVI with British subjects, it was found that the inventory discriminated between men and women, teachers, accountants, businessmen and occupational therapists[25].

Only recently the supervisor of this research and the present writer used the same instrument in a comparative study of British and Nigerian teachers in training[26]. Besides discriminating significantly among the various groups of the subjects, the WVI yielded an odd-even reliability coefficient of 0.72. These evidences of the WVI's reliability and validity were considered enough to warrant its use in this study.

Each of the fifteen work values listed above were to be rated by the subjects on a 5-point rating scale ranging from "very unimportant" to "very important".

One reason for reducing the WVI items to fifteen (one for each work value category), instead of the original 105 paired comparisons as advocated by Super was to ensure "respondent acceptability". The TSQ already had forty-one items and care had to be taken to ensure that the entire questionnaire did not become too long and consequently boring.

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24. R.H.Normile, "Differentiation Among Known Occupational Groups By Means of the Work Values Inventory" (Ph.D.Dissertation, Washington University, 1967).

25. T.E.Carruthers, op.cit., pp.111-117.

26. G.Harries-Jenkins and A.M.Ejiogu, "Marginal Professionalism: A Study of Teachers' Work Values" Newcastle and Durham Research Review (May 1980).

(c) <u>Organizational Commitment Scales (Appendix 5-C; items X08, X09, 42 and 43)</u>.

In the absence of a proper record of teachers' resignations in the state, a study of the sample teachers' organizational commitment was conceived as an alternative but indirect method of determining the turnover rates of teachers in Imo State. In fact Koch and Steers say that commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than satisfaction.[27] The notion of organizational commitment refers to a person's affective reactions to the characteristics of his employing organization.

> It is concerned with feelings of attachment to the goals and values of the organization, one's role in relation to this, and attachment to the organization for its own sake rather than for its strictly instrumental value.[28]

Buchan in a recent study[29] distinguishes three main components of organizational commitment: identification (pride in the organization); loyalty (a sense of belongingness manifesting as a wish to stay); and involvement ("psychological absorption in the activities of one's role"[30]). The organizational commitment scale items used in this study (Appendix 5-C item nos. X09, X09, 42 and 43) reflect the first two of Buchan's components.

(d) <u>Teachers' Work Values and Job Attitudes Interview Outline</u>.

The Teachers Work Values and Job Attitudes Interview Outline which was used in this study was modelled upon Lortie's "The Five Towns Interview

27. J.L.Koch and R.M.Steers, <u>Job Attachment, Satisfaction and Turnover Among Public Employees</u>. (University of Oregon, 1976).

28. J.Cook and Toby Wall, "Network Attitude Measures of Trust, Organizational Commitment and Personal Need Non-Fulfilment". <u>Journal of Occupational Psychology</u> (1980) Vol.53, p.40.

29. B.Buchanan, "Building Organizational Commitment: The Socialization of Managers in Work Organizations." <u>Administrative Science Quarterly</u> (1974) Vol.19, pp.533-546.

30. J.Cook and Toby Wall, <u>op.cit</u>.

Outline."[31] The interview in the present study combined both the structured

approach and the non-directive approach. Only the structured or the

directive aspect could be printed (See Appendic 6-A).

There were two parts to the structured interview outline: a standard

introduction, and the interview questions themselves which touched on such

areas as teaching "attractors and facilitators", the curriculum and

interpersonal relations (see Appendix 6-A).

The purpose of the interviews was to corroborate the evidences

already obtained from the completed questionnaires. Thus the interviews

took the form of "talk-through" sessions at which the researcher and a sample

of the subjects discussed some of the crucial issues affecting teachers and

teaching in the state. This was considered a necessary exercise because,

as Lortie says, "Without a clear picture of school reality, efforts at

rationalization can dissolve into faddism..."[32]

(e.) The Administration of the Research Instruments.

(i) The Questionnaire. The questionnaire package which comprised the

TSQ and the WVI was administered to a sample of primary and secondary

schools teachers in Imo State, Nigeria between May and December 1979.

The original plan to have the researcher administer the questionnaires

personally was not carried out owing to the inability of the researcher's

original sponsors to fund such a trip. The alternative of mailing the

questionnaire to schools was not attractive. In order therefore to avoid

the threat of serious attrition usually associated with mailed

questionnaires, a balance was struck between personal administration and

mailing. That involved the employment of four resident research assistants

to whom bundles of the questionnaire were sent for them to administer in the

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31. Dan C.Lortie, School Teacher: A Sociological Study (The University of
    Chicago Press, 1975) pp.248-259.

32. ibid, p.viii.

previously selected primary and secondary schools. And to create a

healthy psychological climate, each of the four research assistants was

sent a prepared model address (merely as a guide) which they were to make

before the sample teachers would begin to fill the questionnaire. The

address was so worded as to convince the teachers of the seriousness of the

survey (see Appendix 6-C). Such a conviction, it was hoped, could motivate

them to use care and thought in answering the questions. Coupled with the

face sheet introduction to the questionnaire package (Appendix 5-C) such

an address could help to lessen the aversion which many Nigerian teachers

show towards "academic researches" often regarded as an irrelevant

"esoteric pursuit of high-powered and specially trained intellectuals"[33]

or simply as the ladder through which researchers climb to greatness at

the expense of the respondents.[34]

It must be pointed out that the four research assistants were

professionals themselves. Three of them were research students of Education

while the fourth was a retired college principal. The use of such

professionals is, according to Dunham and Smith, the best procedure to

follow because instances of errors and problems will be kept to a minimum

by the observance of established techniques of survey and test

administration.[35]

Each of the sample teachers was given a copy of the questionnaire which

he/she took home, filled, sealed, and then returned to a labelled paper

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33. P.O.Okunrotifa, "Curriculum Development Through Action Research" Teacher Education in New Countries (O.U.P. 1971) Vol.2, No.2, p.154.

34. The present writer has had to abandon at one time a research he was conducting in one state in Nigeria because of the hostility and the reluctance of the majority of the teachers to participate in researches being conducted by "those promotion-seeking university people." See K.E.Ozumba "Some Methodological Problems In Data Collection" West African Journal of Education (June 1974) VolXVIII, No.2, pp.143-151.

35. R.B.Dunham and F.J.Smith, op.cit, p.84.

box in the staff room. Such returned questionnaires were then collected by the particular research assistant the next day. As soon as each research assistant collected the completed questionnaires from a school, he mailed them at once to the present writer in Hull. On the whole, the research assistants reported maximum cooperation from the teachers in the sample schools and affirmed their observance of the rules of questionnaire administration procedures.

(ii) The Interview. The interviews were handled between February and March, 1980 by the present writer himself who had been awarded a travel grant by the University of Hull. (See Appendix 6-AI). The interview involved twelve randomly selected schools with whose teachers (a sample of 62) the writer discussed some of the crucial issues as reflected in the data already yielded by the completed questionnaire.

Before the interviews began in each school, the present writer met the school head to whom he handed a letter of introduction and gratitude for previous cooperation written by the research supervisor (Appendix 6-B).

Although there was a prepared interview outline on hand, there was no attempt to follow it rigidly. The outline (Appendix 6-A) was a mere guide, the interviewing being primarily employee-centred. The present writer's main interest was to find out as much as possible about how the teachers felt and what they thought about the various aspects of their jobs. Thus for the most of the time the writer was an attentive listener, occasionally probing deeper into certain issues that were raised by the interviewees.

Each interview began with an introduction (see Appendix 6-A) the purpose of which was to put the interviewee at ease by telling him or her the object of the interview, that what he or she was going to say was important and that whatever he or she said would be kept strictly anonymous. Also the interviewee was promised freedom of access to the interviewer's notes at the end of the interview.

As soon as the introduction was over, the teacher-interviewee was asked if he or she had any questions to ask or any issues to raise. After that the interviewer took the lead following the outline as closely as possible but allowing for occasional diversions from the scheduled interview outline.

One of the reasons for which this study was undertaken was to find out how the organizational effectiveness of Imo State schools could be improved. Accordingly therefore due emphasis was placed during the interview on exploring further the teachers' suggestions for the improvement of the various facets of their jobs. Such deeper probing of the teachers' suggestions for improvement was necessary because management's actions can be more effective if they are congruous with the teachers' expectations. Besides, as Dunham and Smith say,

> Asking employees for possible solutions also
> acts as a triggering device because it often
> gets employees to think of other aspects of
> problems that may not have been mentioned. In
> addition, it forces employees to confront the
> problems that managers face when they attempt
> to take corrective action. This realization
> may improve the relationship between managers
> and employees and can help bring about desired
> changes.[36]

Of course there was no commitment from the present writer that the interviewees' suggestions were going to be implemented but assurances were given that their anonymous opinions would certainly be reported to their employers by means of this thesis. At the end of each interview, the interviewee was given a chance (if he or she wished) to see the researcher's notes on the proceedings to confirm the promise of anonymity.

36. Randall B. Dunham and Frank J.Smith, Organizational Surveys, An
    Internal Assessment of Organizational Health. p.151.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATE PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

The job of the researcher is to lay before
the policy maker the unbiased facts on
which his judgements and decisions about
future policy may be based.[1]

1. Statistical Procedures.

The choice of the statistical tests which were applied in this study

was influenced by two major factors, namely: the type of research questions

posited; and the type of the data obtained from the research instruments

completed by the subjects. Basically, the research questions (see chapter

two) fell into two broad categories, namely: descriptive questions and

associative questions. Descriptive questions, as Dyer says, aim at

"identifying the characteristics of an individual, a group, several

subgroups, a phenomenon, a system or an object."[2] Associative questions

on the other hand "focus on the pattern or the degree of association or

covariation between two or more variables."[3] These (descriptive and

associative questions) respectively permitted the use of two major

statistical types, descriptive and inferential statistics.

For the descriptive questions, frequency distribution of the subjects'

responses on every item were computed in order to describe the total

sample as well as the various sample groups. That involved the calculation

of the percentages of the subjects at various levels of perception, as well

1. Timothy A.Booth, "Research and Policy Making in Local Authority Social Services." Public Administration (Summer 1979) Vol.57, p.179.

2. J.R.Dyer, "The Distinctions Among Descriptive, Association and Causal Questions." Understanding and Evaluating Educational Research (Reading, Mass: Addison, Wesley Publishing Company, 1979) p.141.

3. ibid.

as the arithmetic means, and the standard deviations of their scores. The choice of which types of inferential statistics were to be used depended on the nature of the data to which the test was being applied. For example, for discrete or nominal data[4] such as those relating to the variables of sex, age, experience and marital status of the subjects, the chi-square test was applied. According to Blalock, chi-square tests are applied in the social sciences to such issues as "the contingency problems in which two nominal scale variables have been classified."[5] As Blalock says further, the chi-square test is "a very general test that can be used whenever we wish to evaluate whether or not the frequencies which have been empirically obtained differ significantly from those which would be expected under a certain set of theoretical assumptions."[6]

In order to determine the nature of association among the various job satisfaction and work value scales, correlation matrices were computed on the continuous ordinal data which were derived from these variables. The use of such a correlational technique helped not only to ascertain whether or not there were any relationships among the variables or sets of data, but also to find out the direction and the magnitude of such relationships.

T-Tests or "difference-between-means" tests were also used to investigate the extent of the differences, if any, between pairs of sample groups on the various job satisfaction and work value scales. That is, whenever one of the two sets of variables was discrete and the other continuous, a t-test was used. However a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed whenever there was the need to examine the equality

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4. See for example, ibid, pp. 53-57 for a distinction between ordinal, nominal and interval data.

5. H.M.Blalock Jr., Social Statistics (McGraw-Hill Kogakusha Limited, International Student Edition 1979) p. 279.

6. ibid.

(or otherwise) of means from more than two subgroups or status variables.

Sophisticated statistical measures were avoided as much as possible. The concern of the present writer was to present the data in such a way as to make them meaningful and optimally comprehensible to the focal audience of this study (teachers and school administrators in Imo State) many of whom, like the present writer, may not be quite numerate. As Davis and Salasin have observed in their elaborate review of the utilization of evaluation researches, "a portion of the apparent demoralization among veteran evaluators may be attributed to the slow process of utilization of evaluation results."[7] An important question arising from that observation is what causes such slow processes of research utilization. Although Carter thinks that the acceptance of a research report is dependent on the self-interests of the audience,[8] some other factors may also influence the audience's acceptance and utilization of a research report. One such factor is the way the research report is communicated to the audience. In a recent study by Brown, _et al_,[9] for example, "jargon loaded" reports were perceived to be more technical and more difficult to comprehend by the readers (teachers and administrators) than the "jargon-free" reports", suggesting that "the style of an evaluation report does affect audience perceptions of the evaluation."[10]

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7. J.R.Davis and S.E.Salasin, "The Utilization of Evaluation" in E.L. Struening and M.Guttentag (eds). Handbook on Education Research (Beverley Hill: Sage, 1975) p.625.

8. R.K.Carter, "Client Reactions to Negative Findings and Latent Conservative Function of Evaluation Studies." American Sociologist (1971), Vol. 6, pp. 118-124.

9. R.D.Brown, L.A.Braskamp and Dianna L.Newman, "Evaluator Credibility as a Function of Report Style - Do Jargon and Data Make a Difference?" Evaluation Quarterly (May 1978) Vol. 2, No. 2, pp.331-341.

10. ibid, p.339.

Also important in this discussion is Naomi McIntosh's observation:

> Very often it [statistical information] is presented
> in ways which are not easily comprehensible to non-
> numerate decision makers. The use of elaborate
> statistical tests may be designed to impress fellow
> academics. It is likely to be a barrier to the
> majority of the decision makers.[11]

It was decided therefore to analyse and present the research data of this

study in such forms (frequency tables, charts, mean scores, standard

deviations simple t-tests and analysis of variance) as would give the

average reader anchor points for interpretation and understanding.

2. The Data-Producing Sample.

A total of 1015 copies of the questionnaire package were distributed

to the teachers in the randomly selected primary and secondary schools in

the state. Eight hundred and fifteen (80·29%) of them returned their

completed questionnaires. Unfortunately, eighteen of these were not

properly filled out (too many items were not answered). That left 797

usable questionnaires or 78·52 percent of the "accepting sample." The

composition of the 797 data producing sample is shown in Table X below

while Appendix 7-A shows a further breakdown of the sample.

11. Naomi E.McIntosh, "Barriers to Implementing Research In Higher
    Education". Studies In Higher Education (1979), Vol. 4, No.I,
    p.81.

TABLE X

THE COMPOSITION OF THE DATA-PRODUCING SAMPLE (N = 797).

Group	Number	Percentage
1. SEX:		
(a) Male	432	54·2
(b) Female	365	45·8
2. AGE:		
(a) Below 30 yrs.	312	39·1
(b) 30-40 yrs.	281	35·3
(c) Above 40 yrs.	204	25·6
3. MARITAL STATUS:		
(a) Single	451	56·6
(b) Married	346	43·4
4. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION:		
(a) Graduates/Diploma holders	172	21·6
(b) Others.	625	78·4
5. SCHOOL GRADE:		
(a) Primary	456	57·2
(b) Secondary	341	42·8
6. TEACHING EXPERIENCE:		
(a) Below 5 yrs.	358	44·9
(b) 5 - 10 yrs.	298	37·4
(c) Above 10 yrs.	141	17·7
7. LOCATION OF SCHOOL:		
(a) Rural	496	62·2
(b) Urban	301	37·8

TABLE XI

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF THE "GOODNESS OF FIT" OF THE DATA-PRODUCING SAMPLE.

Sample Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Sex		45.461* (0.001)	2,550 (0.279)	11.091 (0.001)	3.856 (0.049)	2.1002 (0.349)	2.919 (0.087)
2. Age			152.222 (0.001)	37.0906 (0.001)	44.821 (0.001)	112.666 (0.001)	0.895 (0.639)
3. Marital Status				19.936 (0.001)	26.339 (0.001)	96.596 (0.001)	4.490 (0.105)
4. Educational Qualification					278.590 (0.001)	28.397 (0.001)	0.203 (0.651)
5. Level of School Teaching						127.432 (0.001)	6.844 (0.008)
6. Years of Teaching Experience							4.328 (0.114)
7. Status of the School Neighbourhood							

* Chi Square Values.

⊤ Levels of Statistical Significance are in parenthesis.

Chi-square "goodness of fit tests" to determine the significance of
similarity between the sample and the population characteristics were
computed on the variables of sex, age, marital status, educational
qualification, grade of school, school location and teaching experience.

Statistically significant chi-square values (p $=$ 0·001) were achieved on
most of the variables so that it could be argued that the sample was fairly
representative of the population from which it was selected (see Table XI).

3. Hypotheses.

A review of some of the previous studies of workers' job satisfaction
reveals that many antecedent conditions have been found to affect the
level of a person's perceived job satisfaction. Various researchers have
investigated, for example, the role of job level to satisfaction[12], the
effects of a superior's leadership style on the subordinates' perceived
satisfaction;[13] the age of a person as it affects his job satisfaction;[14]
the relationship of value importance to satisfaction;[15] the contribution of
a worker's level of pay to his perceived job satisfaction;[16] sex differences
in people's job satisfaction,[17] and environmental influences on job
satisfaction.[18]

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12. C.L.Hulin, "A Linear Model of Job Satisfaction" (Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1963).

13. V.Vroom and F.C.Mann, "Leader Authoritarianism and Employee Attitudes" Personnel Psychology (1960) Vol. 13, pp.125-140.

14. J.D.Wright and R.F.Hamilton, "Work Satisfaction and Age: Some Evidence for the Job Change Hypothesis". Social Forces (June 1978) Vol.56, No.4, pp.1140-1158.

15. W.H.Mobley and E.A.Locke, "The Relationship of Value Importance to Satisfaction." Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1970) Vol.5, pp.463-483.

16. C.L.Hulin, op.cit.

17. C.L.Hulin and Patricia Cain Smith, "Sex Differences In Job Satisfaction" Journal of Applied Psychology. (1964) Vol.48, No.2, pp.88-92.

18. J.W.Seybolt, "Work Satisfaction as a Function of the Person-Environment Interaction" Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1976), Vol. 17, pp.66-75.

Most of the results of such investigations tend to contradict one another. For example, whereas Peck's study in 1936 concluded that women teachers were less satisfied (or "more poorly adjusted") than men teachers,[19] Chase in 1951 reported women teachers to be more satisfied than their men colleagues.[20] Also, although Provence reported that there were no significant relationships between job satisfaction and the demographic variables of his subjects[21], Olatunji found significant relationships ($P < 0.05$) between her subjects' personal variables (age, sex, qualifications, teaching experience and others) and their job satisfactin.[22] But as Hulin and Smith[23] say, the net result of job satisfaction studies seems to be that higher job levels and higher wages generally contribute to job satisfaction; and that leadership style, age, and educational qualifications are positively related to job satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and sex seems to defy generalizations of any sort. Assuming, as is generally believed, that teachers, like other occupational groups, react to personal characteristics and environmental variables, the following testable hypotheses were generated.

(a) <u>Personal Domain</u>

    (i) There will be significant differences between the perceived job satisfaction of male and female teachers.

    (ii) Perceived job satisfaction will be positively and significantly related to variations in the age of teachers.

19. L.Peck, "A Study of the Adjustment Difficulties of a Group of Women Teachers" <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u> (1936), Vol.47, pp.139-156.

20. F.S.Chase, "Factors for Satisfaction In Teaching" <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u> (1951) Vol. 33, pp. 127-132.

21. A.J.Provence, "The Relationship Between Secondary School Supervisors and Teacher Job Satisfaction" (Ed.D. Dissertation, The State University of New Jersey (New Brunswick, 1978).

22. Stella A.Olatunji "The Relationship Between Selected Teacher Variables and Teacher Job Satisfaction In Western Nigerian Secondary Schools" (Ph.D.Dissertation, New York University, 1971), <u>Dissertation Abstracts International</u>, Vol.32, No.1, (1972) p.6059A.

23. C.L.Hulin and P.C.Smith, op.cit.

(iii) There will be significant differences between the perceived job satisfaction of single teachers and that of their married colleagues.

(iv) The perceived job satisfaction of the graduate teachers will differ significantly from that of the non-graduate teachers.

(v) Teachers' work experiences will be positively related to their perceived job satisfaction.

(vi) Men teachers will value the extrinsic work values more than the women teachers for whom the intrinsic work values will be of more importance.

(vii) Age will be significantly but negatively related to the valuation of extrinsic job rewards (economic returns and security) but positively related to valuation of intrinsic job values (e.g. altruism).

(viii) Single teachers will be more instrumental in their work-value orientations than their married colleagues who will be more normative.

(ix) Graduate teachers will attach more importance to professional-related values such as intellectual stimulation, creativity, independence and altruism than the non-graduates who themselves will value more the socio-economic (extrinsic) values.

(x) Significant differences between teachers in their ratings of work values will be related to variations in the length of their teaching experience.

(b) The Organizational-Ecological Domain.

The ecological system of a school includes the number of other organizations with which it has contacts and relationships as well as the environment in which it is located. As Richard Hall says, "in an intense urban area, an organization is much more likely to have contacts with a myriad of other organizations than is one in a rural area"[24] - The school organization is an open system, a social institution composed of people. It is constantly engaged in exchanging information, energy and resources with its environment. As Winston Oberg says,

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24. Richard H.Hall, Organizations, Structure and Process (London: Prentice-Hall International, Inc., 1974) p.304.

> - - - the total situation (including constraints and
> contingencies) existing in the relevant environment
> must be incorporated into organizational theory if
> it is to be of value in an increasingly turbulent
> era. No longer will it be possible to assume a
> "frictionless" stable environment... In short,
> environmental turbulence, cultural variables and
> the relevant task environment have an
> unquestioned but inadequately assessed impact on
> organizational performance.[25]

Although there exist identifiable boundaries which separate schools from

their environments, these boundaries are nevertheless permeable, so that

what goes on outside the school's immediate environment affects teachers'

job attitudes and performances. And as Charles Perrow says, "people must

fulfil other social roles; besides, society has shaped them in ways which

affect their ability to perform organizational tasks.... Daily people

come contaminated into the organization."[26] The hypotheses generated

within the ecological domain were related to the status of the school

location and school grade. Urban areas in Nigeria are presumably more

convenient to live in than the rural areas. Similarly, urban schools are

probably better equipped than the rural schools whose catchment areas are

often much poorer. These differences, if they actually exist, are bound

to affect the teachers' work attitudes and values. One doubts, however,

the existence of such differential work conditions in a centralized

school system (as in Imo State) which emphasizes uniformity of service

conditions. In order to test the validity of this thinking, it was

hypothesized that:-

> (xi) There will be significant differences between the
> perceived job satisfactions of the rural and the urban
> teachers.

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25. cited in F.E.Kast and J.E.Rosenzweig, Organization and Management,
    A Systems Approach (Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha Ltd, 1970) p. 131.

26. ibid, p.133.

(xii) Urban teachers will value more the intrinsic and self-expression value-complex than the rural teachers who will rate the extrinsic-reward-oriented value-complex more highly.

(xiii) Teachers' perceived total job satisfaction will be positively related to their school grades.

(xiv) Primary school teachers will value more the extrinsic rewards of a job whereas secondary school teachers will value more the intrinsic rewards.

In order to ascertain the nature of relationships between a teacher's sense of commitment and his or her job satisfaction, the following hypotheses were also posited:

(xv) Teachers' perceived overall job satisfaction will be positively related to their job commitment.

(xvi) There will be significant differences between the committed and the non-committed teachers' ratings of the work values.

4. The Scoring Technique.

The Teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire (TSQ) items as well as the Work Values Inventory (WVI) items were assigned numerical values along a dissatisfaction - satisfaction continuum and an unimportant - important continuum respectively. These values were not printed on the questionnaire package, so response choices were weighted as follows: (a) (for job satisfaction items) very dissatisfied, 1; dissatisfied, 2; neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 3; satisfied, 4; and very satisfied, 5; (b) (for the WVI items) very unimportant, 1; unimportant, 2; somewhat important, 3; important, 4; and very important, 5. Scale scores for both instruments were then constructed by calculating the mean of an unweighted sum of the relevant component items. As the survey could not be hand-tallied adequately, the data presented in this thesis were computerized, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programme.

5. <u>Presentation of the Results (Specific Findings)</u>.

In order to further establish the validity of the item groupings in the TSQ, a multiple correlational analysis of the items assigned to each scale was computed. As Appendix 7-B reveals, the relationship among the component items in each scale ranged from a correlation coefficient of 0·42 to 0·89, and all were statistically significant at the level of 0·001 or even better in some cases. On the basis of Cohen and Manion's suggestion that "when correlations are around 0·40, crude group prediction may be possible" and that "correlations ranging from 0·65 to 0·85 make possible group predictions that are accurate enough for most purposes,"[27] the item groupings in the TSQ could be accepted as a valid exercise (even though that was not the best test that could be used). This seems the more justifiable if one compares these correlation coefficients (Appendix 7-B) with those derived from the pilot test (Table VIII). Also, matrix correlations were calculated on the job satisfaction scales as well as on the Work Values Inventory scales. The interrelationships among the scales were found to be generally low (Appendices 7-C and 7-D). Correlations ranging from 0·20 to 0·35 show, according to Cohen and Manion,[28] only very slight relationships, thus indicating the relative independence of the items so analysed. Therefore, it could be claimed that we were measuring distinct job facets in this study.

An attempt will now be made to answer the research questions and the hypotheses that were postulated for this study. In doing so, evidences will be drawn from the data from the completed questionnaires as well as from the interviews.

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27. Louis Cohen and Lawrence Manion, <u>Research Methods In Education</u> (London: Croom Helm, 1980) pp.138-139.

28. ibid.

(a) <u>Levels and Areas of the Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Work Values</u>.

(i) <u>Question 1</u> - To what extent could it be said that teachers in Imo
State primary and secondary schools were satisfied
(or dissatisfied) with their jobs?

In order to answer this question, the mean scores for the fifteen job

satisfaction scales (Table XII) were added up and a further computation of

their mean calculated to yield an overall job satisfaction score. The

computation yielded a mean of 2·25. For a more meaningful understanding

and interpretation of this and other mean scores, the points on the

dissatisfaction - satisfaction continuum were contracted from the original

five to three. So that a mean of 1 to 2·3 would denote "dissatisfaction",

while a mean of between 2·4 and 3·7 denoted a "neutral" perception. In

the same manner a mean of between 3·8 and 5 meant "satisfaction".

Such a reduction of the original points on a questionnaire is not unknown

in attitudinal researches. For example, Ohikhena and Anam adopted this

same method in their study of leadership behaviour of college principals in

one of the states in Nigeria.[29] Thus the overall mean of 2·25 could be

interpreted to mean a relatively high degree of overall job dissatisfaction

among the Imo State primary and secondary school teachers. A frequency

distribution of the teachers on those three-point scores revealed that in

general, about 96 (12%) of the sample teachers could be said to belong to

the satisfaction group, 260 (33%) of them to the neutral group while a

total of 442 (55%) could be said to be clearly dissatisfied with their

jobs (see Table XII and Fig.9). The validity of this particular finding

was confirmed with evidences from the interview which was later held with a

randomly selected sample of teachers in the state. Each of the sixty-two

interviewees was asked to say which of the following statements came

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29. T.O.Ohikhena and A.Anam, "Leadership Types Among Secondary School
Principals In the South Eastern State of Nigeria" <u>African Journal of
Educational Research</u> (April 1974) Vol.I, No.I, pp.89-90.

Fig. 9. <u>A diagrammatic representation of the</u> <u>percentage of teachers perceiving</u> <u>themselves to be satisfied or dis-</u> <u>satisfied with their jobs.</u>
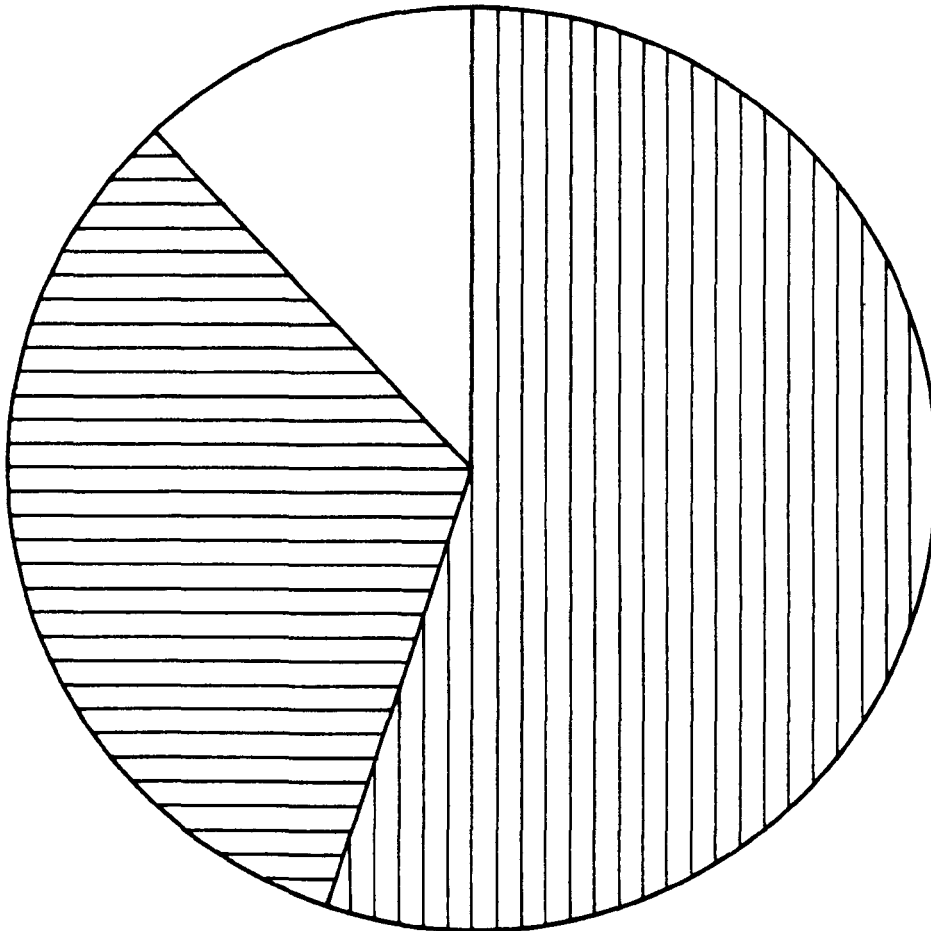
Dissatisfied group (55%)
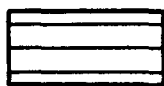
Neutral group (33%)

Satisfied group (12%)

closest to describing his or her feelings about his or her job:

(a) I am <u>extremely satisfied</u> with teaching as my occupation.

(b) I am <u>more satisfied than not</u> with teaching as my occupation.

(c) I am <u>equally satisfied and dissatisfied</u> - I guess I am in the middle.

(d) I am <u>more dissatisfied than satisfied</u> with teaching as my occupation.

(e) I am <u>extremely dissatisfied</u> with teaching as my occupation.

Forty-nine (79.03%) of the teachers who were interviewed said that they were more dissatisfied than satisfied with their jobs. The rest of them, comprising nine out of a total of thirteen women and four of the men, felt that they were equally satisfied and dissatisfied with their jobs. Interestingly enough, this group of "equally satisfied and dissatisfied" teachers had all had over ten years of teaching experience. None of the sixty two teachers interviewed perceived himself or herself to be <u>quite</u> satisfied.

(ii) <u>Question 2.</u>   Which aspects of the teachers' jobs were perceived to be the most satisfying or the most dissatisfying?

As is shown in Table XII, the following aspects of the teachers' jobs were perceived to be satisfying by most of the teachers (size of teachers in percentages): teacher-teacher relations (42.5%); job security (40.5%); teacher-pupil relations (36.9%); fringe benefits (25.3%); and teacher-school head relations (22.5%). The dissatisfying job facets as perceived by most of the teachers were: work load (100%); recognition and status (99.4%); teacher-inspector relations (98.7%); curriculum and instructional services (95.6%); growth and advancement (91.2%) and central administrative policies (89.7%). A calculation of the mean score for each of the fifteen scales (Table XIII) shows that although the job facets were generally dissatisfying to the same teachers, the following job aspects were at least not as dissatisfying as the rest: teacher-teacher

TABLE XII

A SUMMARY OF THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE OF TEACHERS WHO

EXPRESSED SATISFACTION OR DISSATISFACTION WITH THE VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THEIR

JOBS.

Job Satisfaction Scales	Dissatisfied Group		Neutral Group		Satisfied Group	
	No.	Total %	No.	Total %	No.	Total %
1. Pay.	429	(53·8)	338	(42·4)	30	(3·8)
2. Fringe Benefits.	16	(2·0)	718	(90·0)	63	(7·9)
3. Central Administrative Policies.	715	(89·7)	82	(10·3)	0	(0·0)
4. Growth and Advancement.	732	(91·8)	65	(8·2)	0	(0·0)
5. Recognition & Status.	792	(99·4)	5	(0·6)	0	(0·0)
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	139	(17·4)	479	(60·1)	179	(22·5)
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services.	762	(95·6)	35	(4·4)	0	(0·0)
8. Work Load.	797	(100)	0	(0·0)	0	(0·0)
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	9	(1·1)	449	(56·3)	339	(42·5)
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	160	(20·0)	552	(69·3)	85	(10·7)
11. School Neighbourhood.	509	(63·9)	212	(26·6)	76	(9·5)
12. Career Satisfaction.	391	(49·1)	363	(45·5)	43	(5·4)
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	787	(98·7)	10	(1·3)	0	(0·0)
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	64	(8·0)	439	(55·1)	294	(36·9)
15. Job Security.	324	(40·7)	150	(18·8)	323	(40·5)
Corrected Mean (Average)	442	(55%)	260	(33%)	96	(12%)

relations (mean, 3·54); teacher-pupil relations (mean, 3·28) and teacher-school head relations (mean, 3·22). See also Fig. 10.

Similar questions were also put to the teachers who were interviewed later. In answer to the question of what really were the most important satisfactions which they receivedin their work as teachers, long holidays featured most prominently, having been mentioned by 43 (69·4%) of the interviewed teachers. Other satisfying aspects of their jobs as mentioned by the teachers were: working in the classroom without much "bossy interference" (mentioned 36 times); absence or at least the rarity of interpersonal rivalry among teachers for benefits (34 times); opportunities to read for external examinations (30 times); opportunity to make friends with other teachers and pupils (30 times); and security of tenure (30 times). Over seventy percent of those interviewees who were very happy with the opportunity that teaching offered them to prepare for external examinations were non-graduate teachers.

Asked what they thought they were losing by being teachers rather than by being in some other occupation, everyone of the sixty-two teachers who were interviewed rated "loss of status and recognition" as the "biggest loss". The next "loss" in the order to mention was "lack of promotion prospects (mentioned by 51 of the interviewees). Almost all of them perceived their initial basic salary structures to be fair and equitable. They complained mostly about the irregular methods of payment of their salaries by the School Board officials and the subsequent incremental rates. Coincidentally during the interview period, the Imo State government-owned newspaper, The Nigerian Statesman, on Monday, 11 February, 1980 carried a front-page headline news titled "Demonstration Against Non-Payment of Salaries: Police Halt Angry Teachers", as if to vindicate the interviewees' complaint.

Fig. 10. A graphic represention of the Teachers' perceived job
satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs.
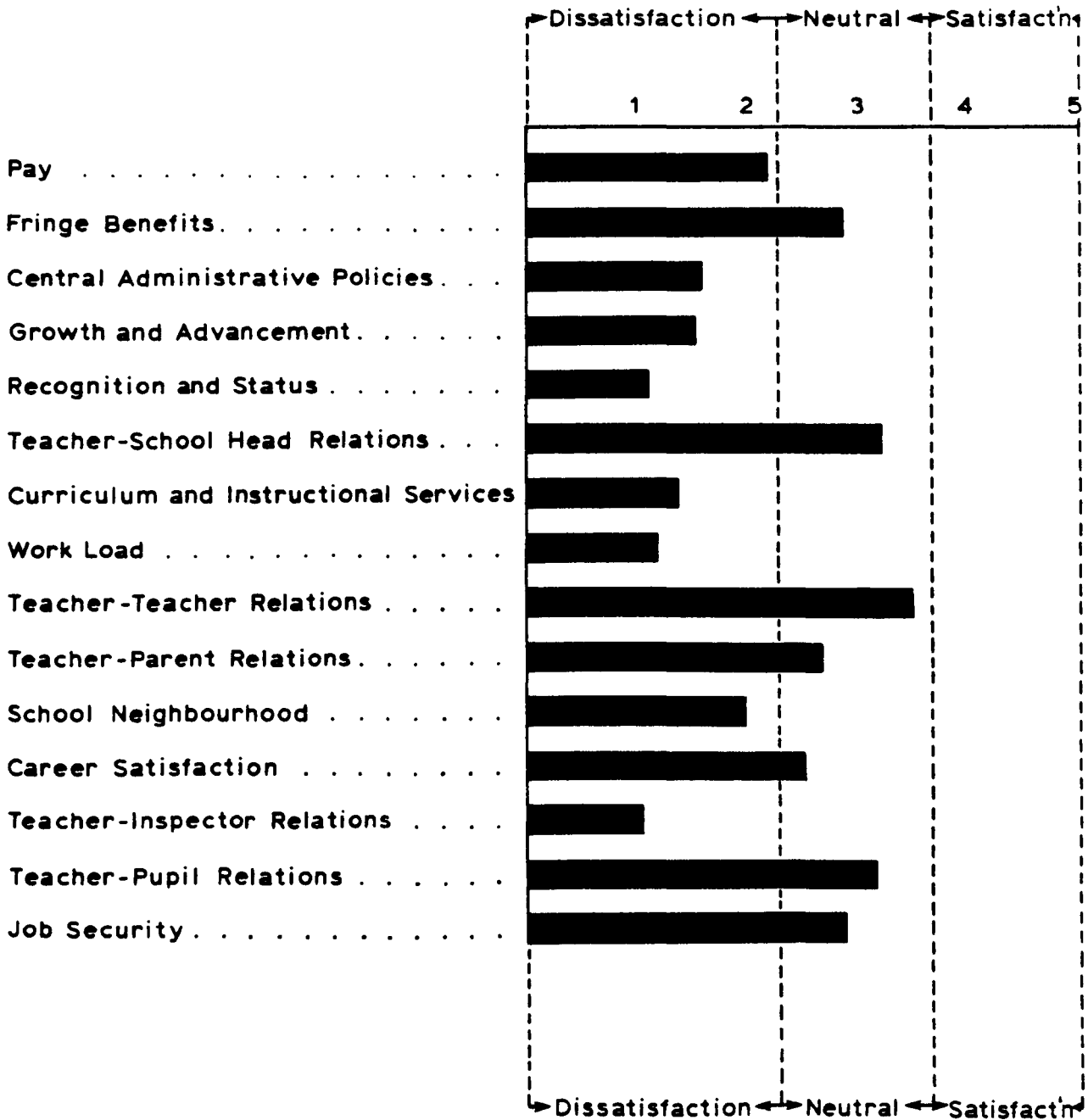
TABLE XIII.

MEAN SCORES OF THE JOB SATISFACTION SCALES FOR A SAMPLE OF TEACHERS IN
IMO STATE, NIGERIA (N = 797).

Job Satisfaction Scales.	Mean*	Standard Deviation
1. Pay.	2·25	0·74
2. Fringe Benefits.	2·99	0·49
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·65	0·53
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·59	0·38
5. Recognition and Status.	1·16	0·28
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·22	0·64
7. Curriculum and Instructional Services.	1·43	0·37
8. Work Load.	1·22	0·30
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·54	0·47
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·77	0·65
11. School Neighbourhood.	2·02	1·11
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·55	0·62
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·19	0·42
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·28	0·64
15. Job Security.	2·91	1·04

* The higher the mean, the greater the perceived satisfaction.

(iii) <u>Question 3</u>.   What work values were most (or least) valued by the
                            teachers?

In order to answer this question it was considered appropriate to find

out how many teachers rated a particular work value scale as important or

unimportant. As Table XIV shows, economic returns received the highest

rating. Seven hundred and thirty-five (92·2%) of the sample teachers rated

it as either "very important" or "important" while the rest, only 7·8%

of the total, rated it as "somewhat important." None regarded it as

"unimportant" nor "very unimportant." Relations with superior were

ranked second in importance; 668 (83·9%) of the teachers rated it as

either "very important" or "important". The frequency distribution of

raters at the various levels (Table XIV) was later converted into scores.

A rank ordering of the mean of such scores (Appendix 7-E) shows the four

most important work values in the teachers' view to be economic returns;

relations with superiors; achievement and prestige. Intellectual

stimulation was ranked sixth. The four least valued by the teachers were:

management (leadership); security; altruism and aesthetics. Applying the

three-point categorization of the data as suggested earlier, it can be

argued that generally, way of life, associates, variety, aesthetics,

altruism, security and management were "somewhat important" to the teachers

while the rest were "important".

(b) <u>Group Differences in the Perceived Job Satisfaction and Valuations of</u>
    <u>the Work Values</u>.

Sixteen hypotheses asserting significant differences between the

various groups of teachers in their perceived job satisfaction and

valuations of the various work value variables were proposed earlier in

this thesis. Difference-of-means tests (notably t-tests and ANOVA) were

computed on the data. The result is presented below in respect of the

formulated null hypotheses. The figures in brackets refer to the

TABLE XIV.

RESPONSE RATES ON EACH OF THE WORK VALUES INVENTORY (WVI) SCALES.

Response Rates (N - 797)

WVI Items.	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Mean*
1. Use my mind and learn new things.	255 (32%)	320 (40·2%)	170 (21·3%)	46 (5·8%)	6 (0·8%)	3·969
2. Create something new, develop new ideas and things?	269 (33·8%)	321 (40·3%)	127 (15·9%)	75 (9·4%)	5 (0·6%)	3·971
3. Organise and direct the activities of others.	102 (12·8%)	113 (14·2%)	210 (26·3%)	305 (38·3%)	67 (8·4%)	2·847
4. See that I have accomplished something?	288 (36·1%)	381 (47·8%)	98 (12·3%)	25 (3·1%)	5 (0·6%)	4·157
5. Find the work environment to my liking?	218 (27·4%)	189 (23·7%)	359 (45%)	31 (3·9%)	-	3·745
6. Have a superior or boss I can get along with?	265 (33·2%)	403 (50·6%)	121 (15·2%)	7 (0·9%)	1 (0·1%)	4·159
7. Find a way of life that is right for me.	267 (33·5%)	128 (16·1%)	282 (35·4%)	100 (12·5%)	20 (2·5%)	3·655
8. Are sure of a job even in hard times.	139 (17·4%)	95 (11·9%)	291 (36·5%)	212 (26·6%)	60 (7·5%)	3·051
9. Enjoy being with my colleagues?	200 (25·1%)	191 (24%)	318 (39·9%)	76 (9·5%)	12 (1·5%)	3·616

TABLE XIV continued.

	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	Mean*
10. Make something aesthetically pleasing.	115 (14.4%)	219 (27.5%)	236 (29.6%)	104 (13%)	123 (15.4%)	3.124
11. Are respected by others?	285 (35.8%)	266 (33.4%)	245 (30.7%)	-	1 (0.1%)	4.046
12. Do things my own way?	206 (25.8%)	319 (40%)	173 (21.7%)	99 (12.4%)	-	3.793
13. Have plenty of variety?	189 (23.7%)	262 (32.9%)	185 (23.2%)	131 (16.4%)	30 (3.8%)	3.563
14. Are paid enough to live well?	350 (43.9%)	385 (48.3%)	62 (7.8%)	-	-	4.361
15. Can benefit and help others?	39 (4.9%)	221 (27.7%)	326 (40.9%)	192 (24.1%)	19 (2.4%)	3.087

*Value: 1 = Very Unimportant
          2 = Unimportant
          3 = Somewhat Important
          4 = Important
          5 = Very Important

percentages of those teachers in the relevant group with a particular

perception of satisfaction/dissatisfaction or of importance/lack of

importance with regard to the adjacent preceding variable. Perceptions of

neutrality have been left out, although they can be inferred from the

tables. The statistical level of significance for the acceptance or

rejection of each hypothesis was arbitrarily set at 0·001.

(i) There will be significant differences between the perceived
job satisfaction of male and female teachers.

A frequency distribution of the teachers' responses (Table XV) shows that

teacher-teacher relations were satisfying to 30·8 percent of the male

teachers, followed by teacher-pupil relations (13%) and teacher-school

head relations (8·6%). A larger proportion of the women, on the other hand

perceived satisfaction with almost the same job facets as follows: Job

security (87·9%); teacher-pupil relations (65·2%); teacher-teacher

relations (56·4%) and teacher-school head relations (38·9%). The facets

of work load, teacher-inspector relations, recognition and status,

curriculum and instructional services, growth and advancement, and central

administrative policies were perceived to be dissatisfying by the majority

of both the men and the women teachers. A two-tail t-test of the men and

women teachers' mean scores on each of the fifteen job satisfaction scales

(Appendix 7-F) showed that the women had a significantly higher perception

of satisfaction than the/men (P ≈ 0·001 or better) on almost all the scales

except central administrative policies, recognition and status, and

teacher-teacher relations in which the men rated themselves higher, even

though it is statistically insignificant. With regard to overall job

satisfaction, the women were relatively more satisfied than the men (t-

value 43·02; P ≈ 0·0001) thus upholding the hypothesis of there being

significant differences between male and female teachers' job satisfaction

TABLE XV

PERCENTAGE OF GROUPS OF TEACHERS WHO PERCEIVED SATISFACTION WITH THE VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THEIR JOBS.

Teachers Groups Job Satisfaction Scales	Sex		Age			Marital Status		Qualification		School Grade		Experience			Location		Committment	
	Male	Female	Below 30 yrs.old	30-40 yrs old	Above 40 yrs old	Single	Married	Graduates	Non-Graduates	Primary	Secondary	Under 5 yrs exp.	5-10 yrs	Above 10 yrs.	Rural	Urban	Committed	Non-Committed
1. Pay	0.0	8.2	4.8	2.5	3.9	0.0	8.7	0.0	4.8	5.0	2.0	2.5	2.3	9.9	3.6	4.0	9.5	0.2
2. Fringe Benefits	0.2	17.0	8.3	7.5	7.8	6.9	9.2	0.0	10.1	6.1	10.3	6.4	7.7	12.1	8.1	7.6	14.4	3.9
3. Central Administrative Policies	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4. Growth and Advancement	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5. Recognition and Status	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
6. Teacher-School Head Relations	8.6	38.9	35.3	12.5	16.7	25.5	18.5	1.7	28.2	38.6	0.9	28.7	17.8	12.8	25.2	18.0	26.0	20.0
7. Curriculum & Instructional services	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
8. Work Load	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations	30.8	56.4	46.5	54.1	20.6	45.0	38.2	58.1	38.2	41.9	43.3	33.0	57.4	35.5	37.7	50.5	30.1	50.3
10. Teacher-Parent Relations	4.2	18.4	6.1	16.0	10.3	4.2	19.1	0.0	13.6	18.6	0.0	12.3	13.8	0.0	9.9	12.0	9.8	11.2
11. School Neighbourhood	0.0	20.8	14.7	10.7	0.0	13.7	16.2	11.6	8.9	5.7	14.7	13.7	5.7	7.1	0.0	25.2	7.5	10.8
12. Career Satisfaction	0.2	11.5	4.2	7.1	4.9	7.1	3.1	5.8	5.3	2.9	8.8	2.0	8.4	7.8	7.3	2.3	8.5	3.5
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations	13.0	65.2	43.9	39.8	22.0	31.0	44.5	32.6	38.1	41.2	31.1	33.5	40.9	36.9	34.9	40.2	50.3	28.5
15. Job security.	0.5	87.9	53.5	36.3	26.5	41.2	39.6	33.1	42.6	45.6	33.7	33.8	47.7	42.6	40.1	41.2	51.3	33.8
TOTAL	4.0	22.0	15.0	13.0	7.0	12.0	13.0	9.0	13.0	14.0	9.7	11.0	13.0	11.0	11.0	13.0	14.0	11.0

perceptions.

        (ii) Perceived job satisfaction will be positively and
            significantly related to variations in the age of
            teachers.

As Table XV shows, the job aspects perceived as satisfying by many of the teachers under thirty years of age were: job security (53·5%); teacher-teacher relations (46·5%); teacher-pupil relations (43·9%) and teacher-school head relations (33·7%). Nearly the same facets of the teachers' jobs were satisfying to the teachers of 30-40 years of age in the following order; teacher-teacher relations (54·1%); teacher-pupil relations (39·8%); and job security (36·3%). Teacher-school head relations did not seem to have received enough favourable response from this group as it did with the younger group. Again, the same job aspects were perceived as more satisfying than the rest by those above forty years of age. However the strength of their satisfactoriness was not as strong with this last group; viz: job security (26·5%); teacher-pupil relations (22%) and teacher-teacher relations (20·6%). Table XV also reveals that as a group, more of the youngest group of teachers (ie. 15% of them) perceived overall job satisfaction than the 30-40 year olds (13%) and those above forty years old (7%). A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of their group means (Appendix 7-G) showed that the three age groups differed significantly (P = 0·001) on all the scales apart from fringe benefits, work load, teacher-parent relations, career satisfaction and teacher-inspector relations. The three age groups differed substantially with regard to their overall job satisfaction (F ratio, 30·392; P = 0·0001). In other words the older the teachers, the less their perceived job satisfaction - a rejection of the hypothesis.

(iii) There will be significant differences between the
perceived job satisfaction of single teachers and
that of their married colleagues.

A frequency distribution of the single and the married teachers on the

various levels of perceived job satisfaction (Table XV) shows that the job

aspects perceived as satisfying by most of the single teachers were:

teacher-teacher relations (45·9%); job security (41·2%) and teacher-pupil

relations (31%). The same job facets were satisfying to the married ones

as follows: Teacher-pupil relations (44·5%); job security (39·6%); and

teacher-teacher relations (38·2%). Teacher-pupil relations seemed to be

satisfying to more of the married teachers than their single counterparts.

As with the earlier groups, work load, recognition and status, teacher-

inspector relations, curriculum and instructional services, growth and

advancement, and central administrative policies were dissatisfying to

almost the same percentage of both the single teachers and the married

teachers (see Table XVI). In all, about forty-five (13%) of the married

teachers and fifty-three (12%) of the single ones could be described as

satisfied. The dissatisfied group, on the other hand, included

approximately 254 (56%) of the single teachers and 188 (54%) of those who

were married. Appendix 7-H shows that these two groups of teachers differed

significantly (P   0·001) in their respective perceived satisfactions

with central administrative policies, growth and advancement, recognition

and status, curriculum and instructional services and teacher-inspector

relations, all of which were perceived to be more satisfying by the married

teachers than by the single teachers. Both groups did not of course

differ significantly (even at 0·05 level) in their perceived satisfaction

with fringe benefits, work load, teacher-teacher relations, teacher-

parent relations, school neighbourhood, career satisfaction, and teacher-

pupil relations. As Appendix 7-H further reveals, the married teachers

perceived greater overall job satisfaction than the single teachers (t value,

TABLE XVI

PERCENTAGE OF GROUPS OF TEACHERS WHO PERCEIVED DISSATISFACTION WITH THE VARIOUS   ASPECTS OF THEIR JOBS.

Teachers Groups / Job Satisfaction Scales	SEX		AGE			MARITAL STATUS		QUALIFICATION		SCHOOL GRADE		YEARS OF EXPERIENCE			LOCATION		COMMITMENT	
	Male	Female	Below 30	30-40	Above 40	Single	Married	Graduates	Non-Graduates	Primary	Secondary	Under 5	5-10	Above 10	Rural	Urban	Committed	Non-Committed
1. Pay	88·9	12·4	43·9	50·9	73·0	55·4	51·7	51·2	54·6	54·8	52·4	52·5	56·7	51·0	55·9	52·0	42·0	61·0
2. Fringe Benefits.	1·6	2·5	1·6	2·8	1·5	0·7	3·6	4·1	1·4	1·3	2·9	0·3	14·4	1·4	2·6	1·0	2·0	2·0
3. Central Administrative Policies	88·9	90·7	92·6	89·3	85·8	95·1	82·7	80·2	92·3	92·3	86·2	93·6	81·5	97·1	83·5	100	87·0	92·0
4. Growth and Advancements	93·8	89·6	94·2	83·3	100	96·0	86·4	63·4	99·7	100	80·9	92·2	91·3	92·2	94·1	88·0	99·0	87·0
5. Recognition and Status	98·8	100	100	98·2	100	98·9	100	97·1	100	100	98·5	98·6	100	100	98·9	100	98·0	100
6. Teacher-School Head Relations	25·2	8·2	17·6	16·7	20·6	12·4	23·9	27·9	14·6	5·2	33·7	4·2	29·8	24·8	25·8	3·6	15·0	19·0
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services	96·5	94·5	96·8	91·1	100	97·8	92·8	79·7	100	100	89·7	94·4	98·7	92·2	98·8	90·4	100	93·0
8. Work Load	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations	1·2	1·1	0·6	0·7	2·5	1·6	0·6	2·9	0·6	0·0	2·6	1·4	1·3	0·0	0·4	2·3	1·0	1·2
10. Teacher-Parent Relations	36·1	1·1	12·8	23·8	26·0	15·5	26·0	18·6	20·5	9·6	34·0	6·1	26·8	41·1	20·2	20·0	14·1	24·0
11. School Neighbourhood	69·7	56·9	60·3	66·2	66·2	64·7	62·7	66·9	63·0	67·1	59·5	58·9	66·1	71·6	98·6	6·6	63·0	65·0
12. Career Satisfaction	80·1	12·3	47·8	50·9	48·5	53·4	43·4	51·2	48·5	48·5	49·9	45·8	41·7	53·9	44·6	56·5	32·0	60·0
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations	100	97·3	96·8	100	100	100	97·1	100	98·4	97·8	100	98·9	100	95·7	97·9	100	97·0	99·8
14. Teacher-pupil Relations	10·6	4·9	3·8	4·6	19·1	5·3	11·6	6·4	8·5	1·7	16·4	3·4	8·4	10·1	7·3	9·3	13·0	5·0
15. Job Security	74·3	0·8	28·2	46·3	52·0	46·1	33·5	40·1	40·8	42·5	38·1	47·8	25·5	54·6	36·9	46·8	27·1	49·0
TOTAL	64·4	45·0	53·0	55·0	60·0	56·0	54·0	53·0	56·0	55·0	56·0	53·0	56·0	60·0	58·0	52·0	53·0	57·0

-180-

2·70; P = 0·007). This finding thus confirms in part the hypothesis by

showing that generally the married teachers were relatively more satisfied

with their jobs than the single teachers.

(iv) The perceived job satisfaction of the graduate teachers
will differ significantly from that of the non-graduate
teachers.

Table XV shows that whereas about sixteen (9%) of the graduate teachers

could be described as generally satisfied with their jobs, eighty (13%)

of the non-graduates could be grouped with this satisfied group. Although

both groups perceived satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with the same job

facets, there were variations in their respective degrees of perceptions.

For example, whereas the graduates were significantly more satisfied

than the non-graduates (P = 0·001) with fringe benefits, growth and

advancement, recognition and status, curriculum and instructional services,

work load, teacher-teacher relations and teacher-inspector relations, the

non-graduates were better off than the graduates (P = 0·001) on teacher-

school head relations and teacher-parent relations. As appendix 7-J

reveals, there were no significant differences between their perceived

satisfaction with pay, central administrative policies, career satisfaction,

teacher-pupil relations and job security.   An analysis of the difference

between the two groups' overall job satisfaction yielded a t value of 3·30

which was statistically significant at the 0·001 level. This confirms the

hypothesis that they would differ significantly in their perceived total

job satisfaction.

(v) Teachers' work experience will be positively related
to their perceived job satisfaction.

An analysis of the response rates on the various job satisfaction scales

(Table XV) shows that, in general, the following percentages of teachers in different experience groups could be described as satisfied: below five years, 11%; five to ten years, 13%; and above forty, 11%. Those who could be described as dissatisfied within the various experience groups totalled 53 percent, 56 percent and 60 percent respectively (Table XVI). Interpersonal (teacher-teacher, teacher-school head and teacher-pupil) relations again featured prominently together with job security as the satisfying job aspects to most of them, while the dissatisfying factors common to all the groups (Table XVI) were work load, recognition and status, central administrative policies, growth and advancement and the curriculum and instructional services. A statistical analysis of the variance among their respective perceptions (Appendix 7-K) showed that their perceptions varied significantly (P = .001) in all the job facets apart from fringe benefits, school neighbourhood, career satisfaction and teacher-pupil relations. In almost all the scales, those with more than ten years of experience were less satisfied than the two younger groups, who fared almost equally in all the cases. The overall job satisfaction of the three experience groups differed at the 0.08 level of statistical significance. The difference though substantial was not up to the set limit of 0.001 level.

> (vi) Men teachers will value the extrinsic work values more than the women teachers for whom the intrinsic work values will be of greater importance.

As Table XVII shows, the values rated most highly by the majority of the men teachers were economic returns (98.6%), intellectual stimulation (81%), relations with superior (78.7%), presige (76.9%) and achievement (75.7%). Most of the women on the other hand valued highly surroundings (97.5%), achievement (93.7%), relations with superior (89.9%) and aesthetics

TABLE XVII

PERCENTAGE OF GROUPS OF TEACHERS WHO ASCRIBED HIGHER VALUES TO THE VARIOUS WORK VALUE SCALES.

	SEX		AGE			MARITAL STATUS		QUALIFICATION		SCHOOL GRADE		EXPERIENCE			LOCATION		COMMITMENT	
	Male	Female	Below 30 years old	30-40 years old	Above 40 yrs old	Single	Married	Graduates	Non Graduates	Primary	Secondary	Under 5 yrs. exp.	5-10 years	Above 10 yrs.	Rural	Urban	Committed	Non Committed
Intellectual Stimulation	81.0	76.4	95.5	82.6	22.1	74.7	68.8	79.0	70.2	73.2	70.7	79.9	76.2	44.0	68.8	77.7	54.9	82.9
Creativity	69.4	79.4	99.7	82.9	22.5	72.5	76.0	78.5	72.8	72.6	76.0	77.1	77.2	59.6	73.8	74.4	54.9	85.9
Management (Leadership)	40.0	11.5	1.0	11.0	88.7	21.5	34.1	37.8	24.0	24.8	29.9	22.1	22.8	48.2	24.8	30.6	48.4	13.6
Achievement	75.7	93.7	95.2	81.9	69.6	85.0	82.7	68.6	88.2	86.4	78.0	87.7	75.2	92.9	84.3	83.4	77.5	88.0
Surroundings	11.8	97.5	64.7	46.3	36.8	49.7	52.9	45.9	52.5	50.0	52.5	50.6	53.7	46.8	48.4	55.5	66.0	41.8
Relationship with Superior	78.7	89.9	98.1	87.2	57.4	95.6	68.5	83.1	84.0	85.3	81.8	94.7	82.2	59.6	84.6	82.4	74.8	89.4
Way of Life	37.0	64.4	34.6	34.5	93.1	60.7	53.5	47.7	50.1	48.0	51.6	50.8	46.0	53.9	45.6	56.1	72.2	35.4
Security	37.5	19.7	2.2	20.6	82.8	24.6	35.0	21.5	31.5	28.7	30.2	29.6	21.5	45.4	30.4	27.6	52.6	14.9
Associates	31.9	69.3	84.3	35.2	14.2	67.2	25.4	25.0	55.7	58.8	36.1	58.1	41.9	41.1	48.4	50.2	43.5	52.5
Aesthetics	5.6	84.9	52.6	40.2	27.9	45.2	37.6	40.0	44.6	43.9	39.3	46.9	41.9	29.1	35.9	51.8	52.3	35.4
Prestige	76.9	60.0	30.8	96.4	90.2	48.3	96.2	82.0	65.6	59.0	82.7	52.8	80.2	87.2	72.8	63.1	82.4	60.9
Independence	66.0	65.8	66.0	75.8	52.0	63.6	68.8	99.4	56.6	61.6	71.6	70.1	65.8	55.3	63.7	69.4	50.7	75.4
Variety	56.3	57.0	61.2	75.1	24.0	56.3	56.9	62.8	54.9	56.8	56.3	65.9	56.7	32.6	46.4	73.4	43.5	64.8
Economic Returns	98.6	84.7	82.1	100	97.1	86.3	100	85.5	94.1	91.9	92.7	83.0	99.7	100	93.8	89.8	99.3	87.8
Altruism	11.8	57.3	26.3	40.6	31.4	27.5	39.3	19.2	36.3	29.4	37.0	26.8	38.9	34.0	29.4	37.9	44.8	24.6

(84·9%). In other words, the single most important work value to the men teachers was economic returns and for the women, surroundings or the work environment. On the other hand the least valued of the work values (Table XVIII) were aesthetics and altruism for the men, and management or leadership and security for the women. These findings in a way validate the folk view that women are generally humanitarian, kindhearted, religious and dependent while men are credited with such attributes as aggression, forcefulness and ambition. A calculation of the test of significant differences between their respective valuations (Appendix 7-L) reveals that at the 0·001 level of statistical significance women had higher valuations of most of the work values apart from economic returns and security, the values to which the men attached greater importance (P = 0·001). Statistically, there were no significant differences between the men and the women on creativity (P = 0·172), independence (P = 0·114) and variety (P = 0·275). The hypothesis was thus only partially accepted.

> (vii) Age will be significantly but negatively related to the valuation of extrinsic job rewards (economic returns, and security) but positively related to valuation of intrinsic job values.

Table XVII again reveals that the work values most cherished by the largest number of teachers under thirty years of age were creativity, relations with the superior, intellectual stimulation and achievement while economic returns and prestige attracted most of those aged between thirty and forty. For most of those above forty years of age, economic returns, way of life, prestige and leadership or management featured prominently as important work values. Among the values perceived to be of least importance (Table XVIII) by the majority were: (a) for the under 30s, management (leadership) and security; (b) for the 30-40 year olds, management, aesthetics and altruism; and (c) for those above 40 years of

TABLE XVIII

PERCENTAGE OF GROUPS OF TEACHERS WHO ASSIGNED LOWER VALUES TO THE VARIOUS WORK VALUE SCALES.

Teacher Groups / Work Value Scales	SEX		AGE			MARITAL STATUS		QUALIFICATION		SCHOOL GRADES		EXPERIENCE			LOCATION		COMMITMENT	
	Male	Female	Below 30 yrs old	30-40 years old	Above 40 yrs old	Single	Married	Graduates	Non-Graduates	Primary	Secondary	Under 5 yrs. Exp.	5-10 years	Above 10 years	Rural	Urban	Committed	Non-Committed
Intellectual Stimulation	9.7	2.7	0.0	1.8	23.0	8.6	3.8	2.9	7.5	10.1	1.8	9.8	3.0	5.7	7.7	4.7	11.4	3.5
Creativity	8.1	12.3	0.3	13.2	20.6	12.6	6.6	13.4	9.1	7.7	13.2	8.4	12.1	9.9	12.1	6.6	16.3	6.1
Management (Leadership)	18.3	80.3	71.2m	45.9	10.3	51.4	40.5	41.3	48.2	43.9	50.4	39.1	55.4	47.5	45.2	49.2	42.5	49.3
Achievement	5.8	1.4	0.0	2.5	11.3	3.3	4.3	10.5	1.9	0.4	8.2	2.5	6.0	2.1	2.6	5.6	6.2	2.2
Surroundings	7.2	0.0	1.6	8.5	1.0	4.0	3.8	54.1	47.5	5.0	2.3	5.9	2.7	1.4	4.8	2.3	0.7	5.9
Relationship with Superior	1.6	0.3	0.9	1.8	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	1.3	0.2	2.1	0.3	1.7	1.4	1.2	0.7	0.3	1.4
Way of Life	8.8	22.5	26.9	12.8	0.0	11.3	19.9	15.7	54.1	13.2	17.6	11.2	15.1	24.8	15.7	14.0	16.7	14.1
Security	27.3	42.2	69.2	18.1	2.5	42.4	23.4	35.5	33.8	34.9	33.1	40.8	34.6	16.3	34.9	32.9	15.0	46.0
Associates	18.1	2.7	6.1	1.4	31.9	11.8	10.1	16.9	9.4	6.8	16.7	9.8	11.7	12.8	9.1	14.3	18.3	6.5
Aesthetics	48.8	4.4	14.1	34.2	42.6	30.4	26.0	44.8	24.0	21.5	37.8	25.4	33.9	24.8	33.5	20.3	25.8	30.1
Prestige	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	51.7	3.8	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2
Independence	11.1	14.0	11.9	10.7	15.7	11.3	13.9	0.0	15.8	10.5	15.0	10.6	10.7	20.6	10.5	15.6	16.0	10.2
Variety	21.5	18.6	16.3	17.8	29.4	21.5	18.5	8.7	22.9	20.6	19.6	16.2	22.8	24.8	28.0	7.3	26.5	16.3
Economic Returns	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Altruism	41.2	9.0	21.8	23.1	38.2	25.3	28.0	40.7	22.6	17.1	39.0	22.9	32.2	23.4	29.8	20.9	24.2	28.3

age, aesthetics, altruism and associates. A calculation of the difference-of-group means (one way analysis of variance, Appendix 7-M) shows that these three age-groups of teachers differed significantly (P = 0·001) on almost all the work values except altruism (P≠0·161). A closer look at Appendix 7-M will reveal that teachers' valuations of most of the extrinsic values of a job (particularly security, economic returns, and way of life) increased with age (P = 0·001); the reverse was the case with most of the intrinsic values. This finding rejects in part the above hypothesis.

(viii) Single teachers will be more instrumental in their work-value orientations than their married colleagues who will be more normative.

A frequency distribution of the teachers' ratings of the various work values (Tables XVII and XVIII) showed that the work values that were highly rated by most of the single teachers were: relations with superior (95·6%); economic returns (86·3%); achievement (85%); intellectual stimulation (74·7%); and creativity (72·5%). Most of the married teachers on the other had ascribed the greatest importance to economic returns (100%), prestige (92·2%) and achievement (76%). Of least importance to the single teachers were management, security and prestige; while the married ones least valued management, altruism and aesthetics. And as Appendix 7-N demonstrates, the single teachers placed higher valuations (P = 0·001) on intellectual stimulation, creativity, relationships with superior associates and variety than the married teachers, who ascribed greater importance (P = 0·001) to management (leadership), security and presige than their single counterparts. In other words, whereas the single teachers might be said to be normative or self-expressive in their work value orientations, the married ones could be described as calculative and instrumental. This suggests a rejection of hypothesis viii above.

(ix) Graduate teachers will attach more importance to
professional (intrinsic) values such as intellectual
stimulation, creativity, independence and altruism
than the non-graduates who themselves will value more
the socio-economic (extrinsic) values.

This hypothesis was postulated to test the validity of the generally

held view that educational attainment, being a primary mechanism

facilitating the attainment of occupational position, was likely to have

some effect on peoples' work values. The results given in Table XVII

indicate that the work values rated as important by the majority of the

graduates were independence (99·4%); economic returns (85·5%); relations

with superior (83·1%); prestige (82%) and intellectual stimulation (79%).

The following work values received high valuation from a large

percentage of the non-graduate teachers: economic returns (94·1%);

achievement (88·2%); relations with superior (84%) and creativity (72·8%).

Surroundings and management were relatively devalued by both the graduates

and the non-graduates. A t-test of the difference-of-group-means

(Appendix 7-P) shows that the graduates attached much more importance

to management and independence than the non-graduates (P = 0·001) who

themselves placed higher valuations (P = 0·001) on associates, aesthetics,

economic returns and altruism. In other words both the graduates and the

non-graduates had something to value more from both the intrinsic and the

extrinsic dimensions of work values. Therefore, educational

qualification was not a strong factor determining the teachers' work

value orientations. This finding therefore repudiates the hypothesis above.

(x) Significant differences between teachers in their ratings
of work values will be related to variations in the length
of their teaching experience.

This null hypothesis was postulated in order to test the substantiality or

correctness of the assertion by some organizational sociologists[30] that work experiences affect the worker's valuations of the potential rewards associated with work.

Table XVII shows that the following work values were rated as important by the corresponding percentage of teachers with under five years of experience; relations with superior (94·7%); achievement (87·7%); economic returns (83%); intellectual stimulation (79·9%); and creativity (77·1%). On the other hand, the values rated very low by most of the teachers in this group were; security (40·8%); management (39·1%); aesthetics (25·4%) and altruism (22·9%) (see Table XVIII). For those whose teaching experience ranged from five to ten years, the following work values were cherished by the majority as follows; economic returns (99·7%); relations with superior (82·2%); prestige (80·2%); creativity (77·2%); and intellectual stimulation (76·2%). Most of them however ascribed less importance (Table XVIII) to management, security, aesthetics and altruism. All of the teachers with above ten years of experience felt that economic returns were important; one hundred and thirty one (92·9%) of them rated achievement highly while 87·2 percent of them valued prestige highly. The least important of the work values to the majority of the teachers in this group were; management, variety, aesthetics and way of life.

A statistical analysis of the variance among the three groups' perception of work value importance (Appendix 7-Q) shows that they differed significantly (P= 0·001) in their perceptions on all the work value variables except creativity, surroundings, aesthetics, independence and altruism. A further examination of Appendix 7-Q would reveal that the

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30. See for example, Arne L.Kalleberg. "Work Values, Job Rewards and Job Satisfaction: A Theory of Work Experience" (Ph.D.Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1975) pp.62-70.

differences were mostly between those teachers with 1-10 years of teaching

experience as a group and those with more than ten years of experience. For

example, whereas the former tended to score almost equally but more than

the latter on intellectual stimulation, relations with superior, way of

life, associates and variety, the latter seemed to attach more importance

to management, achievement security, and economic returns. In short,

those teachers with under ten years of experience appeared to value the

intrinsic and social rewards of a job more than their more experienced

counterparts who seemed more calculative or instrumental in their work

value orientations. In Goldthorpe et al's terms,[31] this relatively

inexperienced group of teachers could be described as having a "solidaristic

orientation" towards work, and the more experienced ones to be overtly

bureaucratically oriented. Therefore the hypothesis was accepted.

> (xi) There will be significant differences between the
> perceived job satisfaction of the rural teachers and
> those of the urban teachers.

If teachers in rural schools occupy lower objective social position vis-

a-vis the urban teachers, and this seems to be true given the ridicule

which the appelation "village teacher" connotes, at least in Nigeria, then

they are more likely to be relatively deprived of those extrinsic rewards

which satisfy what Maslow terms lower-level needs. However the validity

of such thinking seems suspect in the context of a centrally harmonized

school administrative system. The null hypothesis above was therefore

proposed in order to ascertain the relevance of that assumption in the

context of this study. As Table XV indicates, most of both the rural and

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31. Goldthorpe, et al, op.cit, p.51.

the urban teachers perceived satisfaction with the following aspects of their jobs: job security; teacher-teacher relations; teacher-pupil relations and relations with the head. They both also perceived much dissatisfaction with work load; recognition and status; teacher-inspector relations; curriculum and instructional services; growth and advancement; central administrative policies; and pay (see Table XVI). Remarkably, whereas 98·6 percent of the rural teachers perceived dissatisfaction with the school neighbourhood, over twenty-five percent of the urban teachers perceived satisfaction with it. A t-test of the difference between the group means (Appendix 7-R) shows that as a group the rural teachers perceived greater satisfaction (P = 0·001) with central administrative policies; work load; career satisfaction and teacher-inspector relations than their urban colleagues who had higher perceived satisfaction (P = 0·001) with fringe benefits; growth and advancement; teacher-school head relations; curriculum and instructional services and school neighbourhood, all statistically significant at better than the 0·0001 level.

In terms of the overall job satisfaction, the urban teachers were significantly more satisfied than their rural colleagues (t value, 6·94; P = 0·0001) thus confirming the above hypothesis.

> (xii) Urban teachers will value more the intrinsic and self-expression value complex than the rural teachers who will rate the extrinsic-reward-oriented value complex more highly.

Some researchers[32] say that the lower a person's social class position, the more importance he or she attributes to such extrinsic rewards as pay, fringe benefits and that the higher a person's social class position the

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32. See for example, M.Kohn and C.Schooler, "Class Occupation and Orientation." American Sociological Review (1969). Vol.34, pp.659-678.

more importance he or she places on intrinsic rewards, such as opportunities for self expression and individual accomplishment. This might be expected to be even more the case in the developing countries like Nigeria where city dwellers think of themselves as superior to their rural village counterparts. But if it is true that occupational values are learned in the socialization process, it would seem that irrespective of their school location, teachers as professionals would have identical work value orientations. The above hypothesis was designed to test this argument.

Table XVII shows that most of both the rural and the urban teachers in this study tended to place high valuation on almost the same work values, such as economic returns, supervisory or superior relationships, achievement, creativity and intellectual stimulation; while de-emphasizing management, security, altruism and aesthetics (Table XVIII). A t-test computation on their group means revealed that at better than the 0·001 level of statistical significance the urban teachers ascribed more importance to way of life, aesthetics, variety and altruism than their rural colleagues who likewise placed a significantly higher valuation on prestige and economic returns. The urban teachers also manifested an appreciably significant higher preference for intellectual stimulation (P= 0·009) and surroundings (P= 0·008). There were no significant differences between them in their valuations of the other variables (Appendix 7-W). It thus seems proper to conclude that the urban teachers valued more the "self-expression/intrinsic-oriented value complex" while the rural teachers were inclined more towards the "extrinsic reward-oriented value complex"[33] - a finding which confirms the above hypothesis.

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33. See Morris Rosenberg, Occupations and Values (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957) pp. 11-13 for his major value orientations classification into: people-oriented-value complex; extrinsic-reward-oriented value complex; and self-expression-oriented value complex.

(xii) Teachers' perceived total job satisfaction will be
positively related to their school grade.

Centers and Bugental have postulated that individuals in lower-level
occupations were more likely to seek out and to be motivated by extrinsic
needs.[34] Hulin in his own study reveals a positive and significant
relationship between job level and perceived job satisfaction.[35] This would
imply that primary teachers lower in rank than secondary teachers, would
perceive less satisfaction with their job rewards. This hypothesis was
designed to test the validity of such a view.

As can be observed in Table XV the following job factors were
satisfying to the majority of the primary teachers in the following order:
job security (45.6%); teacher-teacher relations (41.9%); teacher-pupil
relations (41.2%) and teacher-school head relations (38.6%). The same
were also felt to be satisfying by most of the secondary teachers as
follows: teacher-teacher relations (43.4%); job security (33.7%) and
teacher-pupil relations (31.1%). Nearly all the teachers, primary and
secondary, perceived dissatisfaction with work load, teacher-inspector
relations recognition and status, curriculum and instructional services,
central administrative policies and growth and advancement (Table XVI).

Appendix 7-S reveals that there were statistically significant
differences (P= 0.001) between the two groups of teachers in their
perceived satisfaction with teacher-school head relations, teacher-parent
relations and teacher-parent relations (all in which the primary teachers
perceived higher satisfaction) and in fringe benefits, growth and
advancement, recognition and status, curriculum and instructional services,

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34. R.Centers and D.E.Bugental, "Determinants of Work Attitudes Among
    Negroes." Journal of Applied Psychology (1966) Vol.50, pp.193-197.

35. C.L.Hulin, op.cit.

work load and school neighbourhood (in which the secondary teachers were more satisfied than their primary colleagues). Generally the primary teachers could be said to be relatively better satisfied with the interpersonal relationship aspects of their jobs than the urban teachers whose perceived job satisfaction were relatively better on the intrinsic aspects of the job. A calculation of the statistical difference between their overall or total job satisfaction yielded a t value of 0.40 which was statistically significant at the 0·692 level, thus rejecting the hypothesis.

> (xiv) Primary school teachers will value more the extrinsic rewards of a job whereas secondary school teachers will value more highly the intrinsic rewards.

As Table XVII shows the values rated as important by the majority of the primary teachers were economic returns (91·9%); achievement (86·4%); relations with superior (85·3%); intellectual stimulation (73·2%) and creativity (72·6%). Of less importance to most of them were management (43·9%); security (34·9%) and aesthetics (21·5%) (Table XVIII).

The following work values were higly rated by most of the secondary teachers in the following order: economic returns (92·7%); prestige (82·7%); relations with superior (81·8%); achievement (78%); creativity (76%) and independence (71·6%). However 50·4 percent of the secondary teachers felt that management was of less importance to them. Altruism was also rated low by thirty-nine percent of the secondary teachers, aesthetics by 37·8 percent and security by 33·1 percent of the secondary teachers in the sample. It would thus appear that the same work values appealed to both the primary and the secondary teachers, both of whom also attached less importance to almost the same work values (See Tables XVII and XVIII). However, a t-test computation on their group means (Appendix 7-T) reveals significant differences (P= 0·001) between their respective valuations of

associates, aesthetics and altruism on which the primary teachers placed greater value; and prestige and independence which were much more valued by the secondary teachers. Economic returns received a higher valuation (statistically significant at the 0·080 level) by the primary teachers than the secondary teachers, whose valuation of intellectual stimulation was higher (P= 0·014) as well as achievement (P = 0·044) than that by their primary counterparts. In short, whereas the primary teachers' values could be described as dominantly extrinsic, those of the secondary teachers may be described as overtly self-expression-oriented, but these differences were not statistically significant, thus rejecting the hypothesis.

The Teachers' Organizational Job Commitment.

In a situation where there are no proper records of teachers' turnover as in Imo State, it would be very difficult to estimate the rate of teacher turnover. Besides the use of stability index (described in Chapter two of this thesis) another measure of teacher turnover used in this study was to ask the teachers who were still in the job to say whether or not they would like to remain within the state's teaching service if they had a choice. Such a measure of occupational commitment, it was hoped, could help to predict future occurrences of turnover within the state's teaching service besides the fact that occupational commitment is considered the mark of a real profession,[36] and a "factor contributing to subjective well-being at work."[37] Of the total data-producing sample of 797 teachers, 306 (38·39%) expressed their willingness to make teaching

36. Blanche Geer, "Occupational Commitment and the Teaching Profession." The School Review (Spring 1966) pp.31-47.

37. John Cook and Toby Wall, "Network Attitude Measures of Trust, Organizational Commitment and Personal Non-Fulfilment." Journal of Occupational Psychology (1980), Vol.53, p.40.

in the state an uninterrupted, lifelong career while the rest numbering
491 (61·60%) seemed insufficiently committed as evidencedin their consistent
response patterns to questionnaire items X08, X09, 42 and 43. Table XIX
below is a further breakdown of the "committed" and the "non-committed"
teachers into various sub-groups.

TABLE XIX.

THE COMPOSITION OF THE COMMITTED AND THE NON-COMMITTED TEACHERS.

Personal Variables	COMMITTED (N=306)	NON-COMMITTED N=491)
Male	118 (27·3%)	314 (72·7%)
Female	188 (51·5%)	177 (48·5%)
Single	129 (28·6%)	322 (71·4%)
Married	177 (51·1%)	169 (48·8%)
Graduates & Diplomas	40 (23·3%)	132 (76·7%)
Others	266 (42·6%)	359 (59·4%)
Primary	193 (42·3%)	263 (57·7%)
Secondary	113 (33·1%)	228 (66·9%)
Under 30 yrs. old	62 (19·9%)	250 (80·1%)
30-40 yrs.dd	81 (28·8%)	200 (71·2%)
Above 40 yrs old	163 (79·9%)	41 (20·1%)
Under 5 yrs Experience	105 (29·3%)	253 (70·7%)
5-10 " "	117 (39·3%)	181 (60·7%)
Above 10 yrs Experience	84 (59·6%)	57 (40·4%)
Rural	189 (38·1%)	307 (61·9%)
Urban	117 (38·9%)	184 (61·1%)

(xv) Teachers' perceived overall job satisfaction will be
positively related to their job commitment.

As Table XV shows, the number of the committed teachers who perceived
satisfaction with their jobs was roughly forty two (14%) while the non-
committed but relatively satisfied ones number fifty three (11%). Also,
161 (53%) of the committed teachers perceived themselves as generally
dissatisfied while 281 (57%) of the non-committed ones felt likewise
dissatisfied. The satisfying aspects of their jobs as perceived by the
highest number of the committed teachers were: Job security (51·3%);
teacher-pupil relations (50%); teacher-teacher relations (30·1%) and
teacher-school head relations (26%). The same group of teachers perceived
dissatisfaction with a number of their job variables in the following
order: work load (100%); growth and advancement (99%); recognition and
status (98%); teacher-inspector relations (97%) and central administrative
policies (87%). On the other hand the non-committed group perceived
satisfaction with their jobs as follows: teacher-teacher relations (50·3%);
job security (33·8%) and teacher-pupil relations (28·5%). The job facets
perceived to be dissatisfying by the majority in the non-committed group
were: work load (100%); recognition and status (100%); teacher-
inspector relations (99·8%); central administrative policies (93%);
curriculum and instructional services (93%); and growth and advancement
(87%). See Tables XV and XVI. It would thus appear that both groups
generally perceived satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the same work
variables respectively. However Appendix 7-U shows that they differed
significantly (P= 0.001) in their perceived satisfactions with pay,
fringe benefits, central administrative policies, recognition and status,
teacher-school head relations, career satisfaction, teacher-pupil relations
and job security in all of which the committed perceived a relatively
greater satisfaction than the non-committed. The non-committed teachers

in turn perceived greater satisfaction (P= 0·001) with growth and advancement, curriculum and instructional services, teacher-teacher relations and school neighbourhood than the committed teachers. On the whole the two groups differed significantly in their perceived total job satisfaction (t value, 3·77; P = 0·0001) thus accepting the hypothesis.

(xvi) There will be significant differences between the committed and the non-committed teachers' ratings of the work values.

The results from Table XVII indicate that the work values rated highly by most of the committed teachers were economic returns (99·3%); prestige (82·4%); achievement (77·5%); relations with superior (74·8%) and way of life (72·2%). Most of the non-committed teachers however placed high values on: relations with superior (89·4%); achievement (88%); economic returns (87·8%); creativity (85·9%) and intellectual stimulation (82·9%). And as Appendix 7-V shows, the committed teachers rated management, surroundings, relations with superior, way of life, security, aesthetics, prestige and altruism much more highly than the non-committed teachers (P < 0·001) whose valuations of intellectual stimulation, creativity, achievement, associates, independence and variety were higher (P = 0·0001). The difference between the two groups with regard to economic returns was statistically significant at the 0·031 level. It could thus be argued that whereas the committed teachers appeared to be overtly extrinsic-reward-oriented in their value system, the non-committed ones were more self-expression-oriented. Each of them had something to value in the people-oriented value complex. This finding upholds the hypothesis.

The Relations Between the Teachers' Perceived Job Satisfaction and their Valuations of the Work Values.

One of the reasons for the inclusion of a study of the teachers' work

values in this investigation was the view that the satisfaction which a

person derives from his job is a function not only of the objective

properties of that job but also of the strength of his desires or his

level of aspiration in the job.[38] In order to ascertain the nature of such

relationships in this study, rank order correlation analyses were computed

between the various job satisfaction and work value variables. The

results in Table XX indicate negative relationships between identical

job satisfaction and work value scales, similar to Mobley and Locke's

earlier findings.[39]

Job Preferences Among the Teachers.

It is significant to note that all those who felt they were committed

to teaching within the state school system also chose teaching when asked:

"If it were possible for you to start all over again, what job would you

go in for?" Only the non-committed teachers in the sample chose

occupations other than teaching; although one of them who was a lady

graduate, aged between 30 and 40 and with above ten years of teaching

experience would have "none but teaching." Another one of the non-committed,

a male graduate, aged above 40 and married and with more than ten years of

experience would also have "none but teaching or priesthood." The

questionnaire he completed showed that he placed the highest valuation or

altruism and perceived himself "very satisfied" on the teacher-pupil

relations and teacher-teacher relations scales.

Alternative jobs chosen ranged from jobs in firms and industries to

nursing and catering management. The most commonly mentioned alternative

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38. Nancy C.Morse, Satisfactions In the White-Collar Job (An Arbor:
    Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1953) p.28.

39. W.H.Mobley and E.A.Locke, "The Relationship of Value Importance to
    Satisfaction". Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1970)
    Vol.5, pp.463-483.

TABLE XX.

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION AND WORK VALUE IMPORTANCE SCALES.

Variables.	Spearman Correlation Coefficient	Significance Level.
1. "Pay" with "Economic Returns"	-0·2349	0·001
2. "Fringe Benefits" with "Economic Returns".	-0·0930	0·004
3. "Job Security" with "Security"	-0·2955	0·001
4. "Recognition and Status" with "Prestige"	-0·0360	0·155
5. "School Neighbourhood" with "Surroundings"	-0·1995	0·001
6. "Growth & Advancement" with "Intellectual Stimulation"	-0·2845	0·001
7. "Central Admin. Policies" with "Management"	-0·1984	0·001
8. "Growth & Advancement" with "Achievement"	-0·2945	0·001
9. "Teacher-Teacher Relations" with "Associates"	-0·1694	0·025
10. "Teacher-Inspector Relations" with "Relations with Superior"	-0·2657	0·010
11. "Curriculum & Instructional Services" with "Creativity"	-0·1657	0·015

jobs were private business enterprise, 162 (32·9%); administrative jobs

in the civil service 81 (16·4%); medicine/pharmacy, 72 (14·6%); banking/

accountancy, 54 (10·9%); engineering, 48 (9·7%); journalism and

advertising, 24 (4·8%); military, 20 (4·07%); catering and tourism, 14,

(2·8%) and nursing, 10 (2·03%). The major themes underlying their choices

are illustrated in the following unedited excerpts from their responses:

(i) A job where hard work is rewarded instead of a
Higher Diploma Certificate. A job where
honesty, practicality and devotedness are first
respected and sufficiently rewarded instead of
eye-services and hypocrisy.

(ii) Jobs that can enable me to use my initiative.

(iii) A job where the authorities respect productivity,
not "busyness" or appearing to be busy; where
my competence and skill are developed by training,
and where opportunity for write-ups and seminars
exist; where I meet people, not files; where
there is enough to keep me lucratively busy (plenty
of work and plenty of pay); where I am well housed,
with occasional trips or meeting with people,
ideas or machines from outside Nigeria.

(iv) I will go in for any job that will pay me well
enough so that I can live happily and
comfortably with my family.

(v) Any job that is respectable in the eyes of the
public will be good enough for me; not teaching
in which the most ignorant can become members.

(vi) I don't mind continuing with teaching provided
that the management has a definite sense of
purpose and sensitive to both the teachers' needs
and their students.

(vii) Teaching is an intrinsically rewarding job. I
sure would have loved to continue teaching for
a life time but for the snobbery of the ministry
officials towards teachers.

At the interviews which were held later, almost all the lady teachers

who were interviewed preferred teaching to any other job, their major

reason being that teaching afforded nursing mothers enough time to look

after their babies. Those aged above forty chose teaching because they

felt they would not be able to keep pace with the demands on time and

energy of any business organization. Over half of the rest chose private enterprises while the other half chose either administrative jobs in the civil service, banking or medicine but felt it was not easy to get into those jobs which require highly specialised training. Asked what jobs they would encourage their children to take up, they all chose either law, medicine, engineering or architecture. Only one of them chose teaching because he said he would like his daughter to be a good wife and mother, which, he said, teaching encourages in young girls.

Facilitators and Attractors.

Of the reasons given by the interviewees for taking up teaching jobs in the state, the following featured more frequently (over 50%): the free tuition, boarding and lodging offered by the teacher training colleges; the absence of any other alternatives; the enhancement of one's chances of marrying a decent husband; the prospect of enough time to read for external examinations; and spouse's choice. When asked what those external examinations were, subjects outside the concern of the teaching profession featured prominently. Some of them were: Accountancy; Journalism; Law; Marketing; and Physical and Chemical Sciences which would eventually qualify one for such "enviable professions" as Medicine, Pharmacy and Engineering. In fact only one of these interviewed admitted that she was preparing solely for an entrance examination into an advanced teachers' college. Three others who said they had registered for a similar examination admitted they would accept an offer into the advanced teachers college only if they failed to gain admission into a university, or a college of technology for their favoured courses like Business Administration, Political Science or Journalism.

One thing which everyone of the sixty-two interviewees wanted to see introduced into the state's teaching service was an institutionalized

"regular" study-leave-with-pay programme for teachers of all categories. They didn't seem to worry about the leadership behaviours of their headmasters or principals. Almost all of them lamented what they saw as the "powerlessness" of those heads vis-a-vis, the officials of the state's Ministry of Education and the Education Services Board. Everyone of them said he/she would prefer a situation of stated responsibility and clear authority (much of that authority left in the hands of the headmasters and principals) to a looser organization tending towards equality. They also decried the school inspectors' "high handed arrogance" in the discharge of their duties. One of the teachers felt that the school inspector in his school district was more of "a snooper" than supervisor and wished that the inspectors be properly trained to act as teachers' "friend-consultants" rather than as "fault finders".

These findings will be discussed fully in the next chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

--- the animals worked like slaves. But they
were happy in their work; they grudged no effort
or sacrifice, well aware that everything that
they did was for the benefit of themselves and
those of their kind who would come after them.

- George Orwell, Animal Farm.
(London: Secker and Warburg, 1949) p.43.

1. Summary of the Findings.

It might be useful if we first recapitulate the major findings which
will form the bases of the discussions that follow. The analyses and
interpretations of the data derived from this investigation (Chapter 7)
have led to the following conclusions:-

(a) With an overall mean score of 2·25, the teachers in this
study can be described as highly dissatisfied with their jobs (Table XII
and Fig. 9).

(b) The teachers as a whole were not particularly satisfied or
dissatisfied with their relations with fellow teachers, their headmasters
(or principal) and their pupils. They were however undoubtedly dissatisfied
with the scales of recognition and status, with relations with their
inspectors, with their work load, the curriculum and allied instructional
services, with prospects for growth and advancement, with central
administrative policies and practices, and, with the school neighbourhood
(Table XII and Fig. 10), all of which are centrally controlled within the
state school system.

(c) The work value orientations of the teachers as a group may be
described as overtly socio-economical cum organizational. Professional

values received a relatively low valuation.[1] (See Appendix 7-E and Table XIV).

(d) Women teachers perceived more job satisfaction on almost all aspects of their jobs apart from central administrative policies, recognition and status and teacher-teacher relations, than the men. Generally the women were significantly more satisfied than their men counterparts. (Tables XV and XVI and Appendix 7-F).

(e) The job satisfaction perceived by the teachers decreased with their age, contrary to expectation. Whereas the under 30s and those between 30 and 40 years of age did not seem to differ significantly in their perceived overall job satisfaction, they differed in several ways with those aged above 40 (Table XV and Appendix 7-G).

(f) Significant differences existed between the perceived job satisfaction of the single and the married teachers, the latter perceiving a higher overall job satisfaction (Tables XV and XVI and Appendix 7-H).

(g) Graduate teachers perceived more satisfaction than the non-graduates on almost all aspects of their jobs except interpersonal relations. Likewise, the graduates' overall job satisfaction was significantly higher than that of the non-graduates (Tables 5XV and XVI and Appendix 7-J).

(h) Experience and the teachers' perceived job satisfaction were positively related up to the ten year level, after which the relationship became inverse at the 0·08 level of statistical significance. (See Tables XV and XVI and Appendix 7-K).

(i) To a large extent, the extrinsic job rewards especially economic returns, security and prestige, were much more valued by the men

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1. As noted in the literature review, work values can be categorized in many ways. Professional values relate to the values and the ethos of professionalism such as knowledge, autonomy and the service ideal. Organizational values refer to the values and goals of bureaucracy like achievement and relations with the boss. Social-Economic values on the other hand relate to societal values and goals such as economic returns, relations with the superior, and prestige.

than by the women who placed higher valuations on most of the intrinsic job rewards, particularly aesthetics, altruism, relations with associates and way of life (Appendix 7-L).

(j) Age was positively related to valuations of extrinsic job rewards and inversely related to most of the intrinsic rewards of a job (Appendix 7-M).

(k) Whereas the single teachers may be described as more normative in their work value orientations, their married colleagues were more calculative and instrumental (Appendix 7-N).

(l) There was no clear-cut distinction between the work value orientations of the graduates and the non-graduates (Appendix 7-P).

(m) The most experienced group of teachers (above ten years) valued the extrinsic job rewards, especially economic returns and security more highly than the younger groups both of which placed higher values on intellectual growth and interpersonal relations (Appendix 7-Q).

(n) Urban school teachers perceived more overall job satisfaction than the rural school teachers. Significantly the urban teachers' perceived satisfaction with the scale of school neighbourhood was higher than that of the rural teachers (P $=$ 0.0001).

(o) There was no significant difference between primary and secondary teachers' overall job satisfaction. But on individual scales, primary teachers expressed higher satisfaction with interpersonal relations, while the secondary teachers' perceived satisfaction with fringe benefits, growth and advancement, work load, curriculum and instructional services. And school neighbourhood was significantly higher than was the case with the rural teachers. (Appendix 7-S).

(p) There was no clear-cut distinction between the primary and the secondary teachers' work value orientations. Both of them had something to value in both the intrinsic and the extrinsic aspects of job rewards.

Appendix 7-T).

(q) The majority of the teachers in this study (61·6%) did not

seem to be deeply committed to teaching within the state's school system.

Most reluctant to make teaching a life-long career were the men, particularly

the unmarried ones, the graduates, those under thirty years of age,and those

with less than five years of teaching experience. (Table XIV).

(r) The perceived overall job satisfaction of the committed

teachers was significantly higher (P = 0·0001) than that of the non-committed

teachers. (Appendix 7-U).

(s) Whereas the committed teachers appeared to be overtly

extrinsic reward-oriented in their work values, the non-committed ones were

more self-expression oriented. Both had something to cherish in the

people-oriented values.

(t) Were they to start all over again, most of the teachers

would have nothing to do with teaching as a career. The majority of them

said they joined the teaching service because it was relatively easier

and inexpensive to enter than most other jobs.

Having thus reviewed the major findings of this study, an attempt will

be made to discuss the findings, focussing attention on their implications

for practice.

2. <u>Discussion of the Findings and Their Implications for Practice</u>.

(a) <u>Areas and Levels of Perceived Job Satisfaction</u>.

From the statistical and other related results presented in the last

chapter and summarized above, it is possible to make a number of general

conclusions about the job satisfaction, work value orientations and

commitment of teachers in Imo State, Nigeria. Of course it must be

remembered that the findings were for a single state at one particular

period. It will therefore be inappropriate to generalise beyond this

particular state school system. The extent to which this study sample

would differ from a national sample of teachers of the same category is

not known, but gross differences would seem improbable.

There is no doubt that the standard or quality of education that is

provided in schools depends considerably on the availability of an adequate

number of teachers of the right quality. As Professor Nwosu points out,

> The future of any nation or society depends upon
> the quality of education it provides for its
> citizens, and the quality of education depends
> upon inspired, satisfied and dedicated teachers.[2]

Regrettably, the Imo State school system is today bedevilled by a

high rate of teacher turnover[3] at a time of rapidly rising pupil numbers.

In spite of strenuous efforts to increase the annual intake into the state's

teacher training colleges, teacher-shortage has become an almost permanent

feature of the state's education scene. At the same time, the past decade

has witnessed a growing criticism of teachers in Imo State as elsewhere

in Nigeria. Such criticisms usually revolve round the theme of "falling

standards" in the education which the teachers provide for their pupils.

Nigerian newspapers are replete with such criticisms. Although some of the

criticisms may be ill-informed, they should not all be written off as

mere sensationalism; some of the criticisms may be justifiable. Remedies

cannot be found in quick rebuttals or refutations nor in writing replies

to newspapers articles. In order to understand the validity or the

genuineness of such criticisms, it might be as well to consider how they

arise. For many people, including the critics, contact with the teacher is

limited to such issues as payment of various types of fees and levies for

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2. S.N.Nwosu, "The Teacher In a Period of Change." (Provost's Matriculation
   Address at the First Matriculation Ceremony of Alvan Ikoku College of
   Education, Owerri, Imo State; Nov. 4, 1978) p.10.

3. High rate of teacher turnover in Imo State is a common knowledge
   although no published figures are available.

their children or their wards and the receipt of termly or annual

examination results for their children. The average man's lack of direct

knowledge of, and experience with, the State Education Services Board or

the Ministry of Education's machinery and school policy-making and

execution processes means that much of his perception of the school-teacher

is coloured quite often by his own imagination, by rumours and by a

tendency to create stereotypes. It seems proper to emphasize that whatever

criticisms there may be of teachers in Imo State (as indeed elsewhere)

should be based on knowledge not on guesses. To some people this study

might seem a laborious treatise on the obvious. But it should be borne in

mind that this is the first study of its sort among teachers in the state.

It may be hoped that this study will help to make the state education

authorities more conscious of the job attitudes of the teachers.

The results from this study indicate a high level of job dissatisfaction,

low job commitment and extrinsic value preferences among the teachers in

the state as represented by the study sample. Not quite satisfied with

any aspect of their jobs (overall mean, 2·25), these teachers could be

described in terms of the typically embittered citizen in an oil-rich

Nigerian economy. In most respects, as the results show, they could be

described as an approximation to Dostoyevski's public servant - "a sick

man, a bitter man, an unattractive man."[4] Nwosu lends his support to this

seemingly cruel verdict by saying that "it seems to be the lot of teachers

that they are trained from the beginning for poverty. They endure their

lot with philosophical detachment."[5] That only about twelve percent of the

sample teachers (Fig. 9) could be described as generally satisfied with

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4. Cited in Samuel B.Bacharach and Michael Aiken, "The Impact of Alienation, Meaninglessness and Meritocracy on Supervisor and Subordinate Satisfaction." Social Forces, (March 1979) vol. 57, No.3, p.853.

5. S.N.Nwosu, op.cit., p.12.

their jobs is not a healthy sign for the teaching service in Imo State. This is more alarming when one notes that about 61·60 percent of the sample teachers indicated low commitment to their jobs and their employing organization.

A rank ordering of the job satisfaction scales in Table XIII will show that the teachers perceived relative satisfaction with them in the following order: teacher-teacher relations; teacher-pupil relations; teacher-school head relations; fringe benefits; job security; teacher-parent relations; career satisfaction; pay; school neighbourhood; central administrative policies; growth and advancement; curriculum and instructional services; work load; teacher-inspector relations; and recognition and status. It is thus suggested that the teachers were relatively happier with the interpersonal relationships aspect of their jobs (with the significant exception of relations with the inspector) than they were with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs or what Maslow would call their "esteem" and "self-actualization" needs.[6] And although this study was not necessarily concerned with validating or refuting Herzberg's theses of hygiene-motivation dichotomy, in retrospect, the findings in this study, can be seen to dispute his analysis.

It is not indeed surprising that teacher-teacher relations aspect was more satisfying than any other job aspect. As Becker observes,

> Teachers believe they ought to cooperate to defend
> themselves against authority attacks and to refrain
> from directly endangering the authority of another
> teacher. [They] develop a sense that they share a
> similar position and common dangers, and this
> provides them with a feeling of colleagueship that

6. A.H.Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Bros., 1970).

7. F.Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (London: Staple Press, 1968).

> makes them amenable to influence in these
> directions by fellow teachers.[8]

This observation is all the more relevant in a centrally bureaucratized

system (such as that of Imo State schols) in which authority is confined to

the top. Goldthorpe et al think that this situation might lead to a

"solidaristic orientation"[9] among the workers. Such a strong sense of

we- feeling, a them - us syndrome, though inevitable, does not augur well

for any organization.

Regrettably, the teachers were not as satisfied with their relations

with the pupils' parents as is desirable. Some of the teachers interviewd

complained about parents' attitudes towards their children's schools and

teachers. The complaint was more rampant among the urban teachers who

felt that most parents were often "too parental", or even too arrogant to

admit that their children ever did wrong, and they always tended to ask

for special treatment for their own children. Lortie explains the

situation thus:

> A parent who asks for special treatment for
> his child (or even seems to do so by frequent
> visits) places the teacher in a conflict
> situation; the teacher may be forced to choose
> between parental initiations and his own rules.
> The situation is more complex if several parents
> make contradictory requests; a barrage of parental
> interventions may make the teacher fear that his social
> order is beginning to unravel.[10]

It has to be emphasized that from a boundary maintenance perspective, the

relationship between teachers and parents has to be congenial so as to,

among other things, dissuade the schools from devoting their energies

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8. Howard S.Becker, "The Teacher In the Authority System of the Public
   School." Sociological Work (London: Allen Lane, The Penguin Press,
   1971) p.161.

9. J.Goldthorpe, et al. op.cit., pp.40-41.

10. Dan C.Lortie, School Teacher, A Sociological Study (Chicago: The
    University of Chicago Press, 1975) p.189.

towards protectionism. As Wagenaar says, good parental involvement in schools will encourage teachers and the ancillary staffs of the schools to devote their time and energy to quality services as opposed to "organizational self-perpetuation."[11] Such a healthy relationship seems more ideal than real in view of the different perceptions of the child on the part of his parents and his teacher. For example as Waller says,[12] whereas to the parents, the child is a special, cherished and loved person, to the teacher he is just one member of the student body. Perhaps as Sykes is cited[13] as saying, teacher-parent associations should be strengthened as "formalism [for] reducing potential conflict between teachers and parents."

Why was the teachers' perceived satisfaction with "teacher-inspector relations" at odds with the other interpersonal aspects? As the results indicate, the teachers were generally quite dissatisfied with the type of relationships existing between them and their local school inspectors. When questioned further in an interview, most of them felt that their school inspectors could be best described as "snoopers" or fault finders. They argued that most of the inspectors' visits were uncalled for, and complained that inspectors were always seeking opportunities to "bluff" and to assert their superiority over teachers, particularly the non-graduates. This in a way bears out Adesina's assertion. According to him,

> The major criticisms of the Inspectorate units
> are that not only do they fail to provide the
> necessary guidance and leadership but that the
> inspectors themselves assume the role of
> intelligence officers from the Ministries of
> Education. Besides, they are accused of being

11. Theodore C.Wagenaar, "School Structural Composition and Achievement; An Empirical Assessment." Sociology and Social Research (July 1978) vol. 62, No.4, p.613.

12. W.Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, (New York: Russel and Russell, 1961), p.69.

13. Dan C.Lortie, op.cit., p.188.

> too stingy with praise, too critical of existing
> practice without offering acceptable and
> constructive alternatives for solution.[14]

Such a poor portrayal of inspectors by teachers must be received with

caution. As Vroom says, descriptions of the behaviour of one person by

another tend to be subject to biases, including a tendency to attribute

favourable behaviours or motives to liked persons and unfavourable behaviours

or motives to disliked persons.[15] It needs to be established whether such

an unfavourable attitude by the teachers is an indirect expression of their

own deficiences or an assertion of their professionalism - a claim to

autonomy. Trow suggests that individuals with a strong need for

autonomy   express significantly lower satisfactions with jobs in which

they are made to depend on another's directives.[16] Autonomy is based on

the professional's expertise but as we saw in Chapters One and Two of this

thesis, the majority of the teachers in Imo State were nowhere near being

well qualified to teach at all. So, the first of the alternatives looks

attractive. In fact Vroom in one of his earlier studies finds no

relationship between: subordinates' descriptions of the behaviour of their

supervisors and the descriptions by (a) the supervisor himself (b) the

supervisor's own superior and (c) the supervisor's peers.[17] There is

however no intention here to hold a brief for the school inspectors most

of whom, as Adesina points out, have not had any formal training in

educational administration and supervision "and fewer still understand the

14. S.A.Adesina, *Planning and Educational Development In Nigeria*, (Lagos:
    Educational Industries Nigeria Ltd., 1977) pp. 151-152.

15. Victor H.Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (London: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.,
    1964) p. 113.

16. D.B.Trow, "Autonomy and Job Satisfaction in Task-Oriented Groups."
    Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology (1957), vol. 54, pp. 204-209.

17. V.H.Vroom, *Some Personality Determinants of the Effects of Participation*.
    Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1960).

specialized tasks of the Inspectors."[18] Could there be the possibility of

a "ripple-effect" whereby the inspector's own perceived job satisfaction

by affecting his or her own behavour is in turn dissatisfying to the

teachers? What seems to be lacking is interpersonal trust between the

teachers and the inspectors. Perhaps what is needed most is a preparedness

by the two parties, in the words of Cook and Wall, "to ascribe good

intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of the other."[19]

School inspectors can lead the way towards the establishment of such mutual

trust by involving the teachers as Rosen and Jerdee recommend,[20] in

participative decision-making and performance evaluation. These inspectors

should be certain what their role is. Unfortunately, Akoma says, the

school inspectors in Imo State were the least consistent and the teachers

the most consistent in their perceptions of the supervisory roles.[21]

However, everyone of the sample in Akoma's study agrees that the most

important of the identified supervisory roles is in the area of Human

Relations and Communication, this being followed by curriculum development

and improvement and the observation of and analysis of teaching.

We saw in Table XIII that the most dissatisfying aspects of the teachers'

jobs related to issues which were the sole responsibilities of the agencies

outside the local school, issues about which teachers and their headmasters

had little or no say. Of particular concern was the teachers' almost

unanimous dissatisfaction with recognition and status, central administrative

18. S.A.Adesina, op.cit., p.152.

19. John Cook and Toby Wall, "Network Attitude Measures of Trust,
    Organizational Commitment and Personal Non-Fulfilment." Journal of
    Occupational Psychology (1980) Vol.53, p.39.

20. B.Rosen and T.H.Jerdee, "Influence of Subordinate Characteristics On
    Trust and Use of Participative Decision Strategies in a Management
    Simulation" Journal of Applied Psychology, (1977), Vol.62, pp.628-631.

21. M.O.E.Akoma, "Guidelines for the Preparation of High School Instructional
    Supervisors in the Imo State of Nigeria." (Ed.D.Dissertation, Teachers'
    College, Columbia University, 1977).

policies, work load and the curriculum and instructional services. These,
in one way or another, relate to the phenomenon of extreme centralization of
authority in the Imo State School system as revealed in an earlier study
by the present writer.[22]

It is common knowledge that some twenty years ago, the average teacher in
Nigeria was regarded very highly by the people among whom he worked and
lived. In many cases he was the most educated man in the community; he
was often the only one who could write and read letters in the neighbourhood.
Apart from living in one of the best houses in the community (the mission
house), he enjoyed a prestige far in excess of his education and salary but
commensurate with his multifarious roles as teacher, catechist, oracle of
the whiteman's world, adviser, and newsbearer. Today, the picture looks
different; the teachers in this study perceived the least satisfaction
(most dissatisfaction) with the recognition and status which they perceive
as accorded to their jobs. Today, teaching in the state, as indeed
elsewhere seems to be characterized by status anomalies. Teachers are
described by almost everyone in our society as very important functionaries
in the social system. In the same breadth Nigerian society at large tends
to look down on them and to lampoon their jobs as easy work which anyone
could do. Writing about the teaching profession in general, Lortie
laments that,

> The occupation has had the aura of a special
> mention honored by society. But social ambiguity
> has stalked those who undertook the mission, for
> the real regard shown those who taught has never
> matched the professional regard... those occupying
> it do not receive the level or types of deference
> reserved for those working in the learned
> professions, occupying high government office,
> or demonstrating success in business.[23]

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22. See A.M.Ejiogu, "A Study of the Organizational Structure of the Imo
    State of Nigeria School System and Its Dysfunctional Implications"
    (M.A.Dissertation, University of Hull, 1978).

23. Dan C.Lortie, School Teacher: A Sociological Study, p.10.

Such a loss of status and prestige as is confirmed by the teachers in this study could be attributed to a number of factors.

As stated earlier the teacher was the most educated man in Igbo land (Imo State) until very recently. Being the only one who could interpret and translate the "whiteman's language" he was regarded with awe even by his own less fortunate kinsmen. In fact there was a time when he was thought to be super-human. Stories have been told of some local chiefs begging the teacher to make love to their wives, hoping that the offspring from such an affair would learn the "whiteman's magic" as the teacher had done. His house was built by the community and it was usually the best in the community. Is it any wonder then that he was held in esteem by everyone in his community?

The reverse seems to be the case today when the popular view seems to be that "those who cannot, teach." Teacher education programmes take a much shorter period than those for, say, medicine, engineering, accountancy or other professions, with whose practitioners primary and secondary teachers tend to compare themselves. So that the teacher in Imo State (categorized as educationally more advanced than many other states) has lost his pre-eminent position as the most educated in his tribe.

Although there is yet no empirical study on the quality of our present-day primary and secondary teachers, there is, nevertheless, evidence to suggest that the quality of teacher education programmes in Nigeria as a whole has been lowered. The introduction of free and universal primary education led to an exhilarating but massive expansion of schools and colleges and this worsened the teacher supply-demand relationship. In an effort to combat the escalating teacher-shortage, "hoards of untrained boys and girls, mostly rejects from the secondary school system and confused primary school leavers had to be drafted to join the teaching

force...."[24] Such a dilution of a relatively trained pool of teachers by the boys and girls and hitherto unsuccessful petty traders cannot augur well for the teaching service. The situation seems to be worse in primary schools where most of the teachers themselves are "doubly oriented towards the primary education itself, in that they are both products of this system and are, in three years or less time, working in it."[25] This reinforces the whole argument about the poor quality of teachers in our schools, not only in Imo State, but also in the other states, particularly in the moslem North. Relatively poor educational qualification apart, most of the teachers, especially those in urban areas, are accused of being heavily involved in part-time money-earning enterprises at the expense of their full-time employment. The devastating effect of this poor image of the teacher as an insatiable money grubber on his own self-image is better imagined than described. As Cogan says,[26] the public devaluation of the teacher and his job could set in motion a self-fulfilling prophecy, whereby the teacher himself internalizes a low opinion of himself and his job. Charters has identified a number of dysfunctional implications of poor teacher-image. According to Charters,

> The teacher's motivation for fulfilling the function
> of teacher in the classroom and school is depressed
> by low prestige.
>
> Independence of thought and freedom of action in
> the teaching situation is lower for those without
> esteem.
>
> Where prestige of teaching is low, the teacher lacks
> the influence or authority which, presumably, is
> essential to the success of the teaching-learning
> process.

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24. S.A.Adesina, op.cit., p.56.

25. ibid, p.150.

26. M.L.Cogan, "Current Issues in the Education of Teachers", in K.Ryan (ed). Teacher Education (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1975) pp. 204-229.

> Persons realizing low prestige and reward from
> their occupation divert their energies and
> interests away from fulfilment of their
> occupational functions toward, for example,
> activities designed to enhance their economic
> subsistence.[27]

This last observation is as true of the target population of the present

study as of Charter's target audience. The teacher thus seems inescapably

involved in a vicious circle of low prestige and status - low commitment -

low prestige and status. This then calls for a closer look at the central

administrative policies and practices in the state school system.

As Table XIII shows, the sample teachers perceived the greatest

dissatisfaction with those aspects of their jobs over which they had no

say or control. The teacher's job facets can be grouped into four broad

categories: organization-wide facets; immediate work environment facets;

job content facets; and personal facets. A common-sense inspection of

Table XIII will show that the personal facets were the least dissatisfying.

Something then must be wrong with the way things were handled by the

state educational policy makers within whose jurisdiction lie the other

aspects of the teachers' jobs.

During the interviews, teachers complained bitterly against what they

called the "arbitrary system of transfers" which they lamented was terribly

frustrating and unsettling not only for the teachers but also for the pupils.

Other complaints revolved round the themes of "unmanageable class size",

a promotion system that was not very encouraging for the young hard-working

and ambitious teacher, delay in the payment of teachers' salaries, denial

of certain fringe benefits promised them by the government, and inadequate

or non-existent instruction materials.

In 1976, a parent was bitterly criticised by the Imo State Schools

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27. W.W.Charters, "The Social Background of Teaching" in N.L.Gage (ed)
    Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963) pp.715-
    813.

Management Board in its Quarterly Bulletin of September 1976. According to

the Board, the parent [28] challenged the Board to

> ... convince me with facts and figures that the
> schools in the state are as yet functional after
> seven years, when principals have no money to
> post letters to parents, when our children have no
> sleeping beds, mattresses and the classrooms are bare
> and children sit on the floor and the staff use
> their salaries to buy writing chalks.... Creating
> Management Boards is not the answer but only means
> to give the job to the boys. A system of
> education in which more people are engaged in
> administration and management and less people in
> actual teaching and instruction without equipment
> is a mere joke and should be re-examined.[29]

Although the board was quick in dismissing Mr.Mbakwe's observations as

"erroneous and ludicrous assertions",[30] the findings in the present study

tend to lend credibility to Mbakwe's criticisms, four years after they

were made. An average classroom, usually accommodating a maximum of

forty pupils before 1970, today houses a minimum of fifty-seven pupils

at the primary school level, sixty-six in secondary schools and 101 in

teacher training colleges![31] Although the state government planned for

4,359 new classrooms for the secondary schools, and 25,879 for the primary

schools in 1979, it could provide only 1,897 and 17,804 classrooms

respectively.[32]

Teachers' salaries in Imo and the other states in Nigeria are not

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28. That parent was Mr.Sam O.Mbakwe who is now the elected governor of
    Imo State.

29. Imo State Schools Management Board, "State Schools Management Board
    Replies to Barrister Sam O.Mbakwe's Address Delivered as a Parent at the
    Prize Giving Day Ceremony of Girls Secondary School, Egbu on 19th June
    1976." Quarterly Bulletin, Vol.I (Sept-Dec. 1976) pp.55-56.

30. ibid, p.57.

31. Imo State of Nigeria, Handover Note From the Military Administration to
    the Civilian Administration (Sept.1979), Annex 4.

32. ibid.

notably deficient compared with those of other government employees.

Although they work for a relatively fewer working days per year (although

it can be argued that teachers work virtually twenty-four hours a day)

they nevertheless operate within the same salary structure as other public

servants. Unlike many other jobs, that of the teacher allows him or her

time for shopping and many other day-time non-work-related activities.

In these respects, one can say that the teacher's salary is not too bad

after all, although available statistics suggest that something must be

wrong somewhere with teachers' salaries. For example, in 1977, there

were a total of 17,975 civil servants whose gross salaries totalled

₦81·8 million as against 28,112 primary and secondary teachers earning a

total salary of ₦26·5 million for the same period. And yet there is

nothing to suggest that the model educational qualification of the civil

servants was higher than that of the teachers.[33] Indeed, the teachers

in the study did not perceive too much dissatisfaction with pay (mean =

2·25; Table XIII). The major problem however, does not seem to be with the

basic salary as such, but with the lack of opportunity to move up the

salary scale. The salary is front loaded, so that teachers with very

long service earn relatively little more than beginners. This seems to be

the major complaint, together with irregular methods of payment by school

board officials. Sometimes the teachers do not receive their salaries

for three successive months, whereas other public servants are paid between

the 21st and the 28th of every month without fail. As of August 1979,

the Imo State Ministry of Education was owing a debt of ₦26·4 million

in teachers' salaries, allowances and payments for school-related

contracts.[34]

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33. Imo State Government of Nigeria, Annual Digest of Statistics, 1977, p.140.

34. ibid, annex 9.

Promotion, which enhances one's earnings as well as entailing a more

prestigious position is not only irregular but also inadequate in the state

school system. In 1976, for example, the Imo State Schools Management Board

(later re-christened the State Educational Services Board) announced the

promotion of 299 grade "C" teachers to the next rank, Grade 2. On the

surface that should be happy and welcome news. However the first name on

the promotion list[35] was that of a teacher who became a C teacher in

1932. In other words, that teacher was on the same salary grade for

forty-two years. The youngest in experience among those who were promoted

became a "C" teacher in 1952. One might like to know what happiness such

teachers derived from being promoted after two or three decades of

service. A cleaner in the Ministry of education will have become at least

a head-cleaner by the time she has served for twenty years. To become

a principal in the State's secondary schools, it seems necessary to have

been a graduate teacher for at least fifteen years. Yet in a study by the

present writer[36], it was shown that leader behaviours and performances of

college principals did not differ among principals with different years of

teaching experience. So that doing well at the job seems not to be

recognised in terms of promotion. Even the headship position itself is

not accompanied by a real increase in trust and responsibility, the only

autonomy which heads and their teachers enjoy is that which is guaranteed

by the physical insulation from observation afforded by the classroom.

As Meahler and Charters say in another context,

> Subordinated to administrators, schools board,
> and vocal citizens, largely unorganized for (or
> even sympathetic to) collective action on their

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35. Imo State Schools Management Board, Quarterly Bulletin (1976) Vol.I,
    pp.10-15.

36. A.M.Ejiogu, Sex-Leadership Role Differentiation Among Principals of
    Secondary Schools In Imo and Anambra States of Nigeria" (M.Ed.Thesis,
    University of Lagos, 1976).

own behalf, teachers [and heads] frequently
have been prey to arbitrary manipulations of their
conditions of work.[37]

The state take-over of all schools in Imo and Anambra States (then

the East Central State) in 1970 was acclaimed by teachers all over the area.

According to the then East Central State Government, schools were taken over

in order to secure central control and an integrated system of education

which will guarantee uniform standards and fair distribution of educational

facilities and reduce the cost of running the schods...... combat

sectionalism, religious conflicts and disloyalty to the cause of a united

Nigeria...."[38] The enhancement of teachers' welfare was not mentioned as

one of the reasons. The take-over of schools was accompanied by a corresponding

move towards the centralization of decision-making powers. Teachers' posts

were regraded, at least on paper. Laudable public pronouncements were

made. An improved list of teachers' benefits and obligations was compiled.[39]

These early "successes" of the state school system deflected the teachers'

attention from the "autocratic" control of decision-making that

accompanied it. Little did they realise, as Antonio says in another

context, that "extreme formal rationality and exact calculation in the

service of bureaucratic ends may be irrational from the perspective of

broader societal values and interests."[40] For example, teachers postings

were handled impersonally by the computer at the Schools Board's Office,

so that in most cases husbands and wives (if they were both teachers) were

forcibly separated. The euphoria generated by the state take-over of

schools soon died as the intransigence and the "red-tapeism" of the State

37. Gerald H.Moeller and W.W.Charters, "Relation of Bureaucratization to
    Sense of Power Among Teachers." Administrative Science Quarterly
    (1965/66) Vol.10, p.446.

38. East Central State Government, Gazette No.3 of 21st January 1971, pp.2-5.

39. East Central State Government, Teachers' Service Manual, 1974.

40. R.J.Antonio, "The Contradiction of Domination and Production in
    Bureaucracy: The Contribution of Organizational Efficiency to the Decline
    of the Roman Empire." American Sociological Review (1979) Vol.44,p.879.

Schools Management Board became apparent. For example, the State Education

Services Board still arrogates to itself the function of selecting and

posting pupils into all the secondary schools and the teacher-training

colleges. The duty of school heads in this regard is merely to collect

the entrance examination fees from the pupils and then pay them to the

government treasury. Most of the teachers interviewed in this study

reported sub-standard or, in fact, deviant performances by the board in

carrying out its usually beautifully worded policies. The general

picture one gets is of an inclination towards increased centralization

and politicization of the state educational administrative apparatus.

Some of the N.U.T. officials with whom the present writer discussed a

number of issues that were related to this study tended to regard proposed

reforms and changes in the teachers' service conditions as mere symbolic

facades, if not outright frauds. In fact, the headmaster of one of the

schools whose teachers participated in the interview described the state's

Ministry of Education and the Education Services Board as "corrupt,

vindictive and inefficient" - an impression that conjures up Warren

Bennis's incisive characterization of the bureaucratic mechanism as

embodying "bosses without technical competence and underlings with it;

arbitrary and zany rules.... and cruel treatment of subordinates, based

not upon rational or legal grounds but upon inhuman grounds."[41] The

situation in the state's educational system may not be that bad. There

is, however, no doubt that central control of educational resources will

tend to reduce the flexibility of individual schools. The control of

educational finances and manpower resources centrally in both the

macrocosm of the school board and the microcosm of the individual school

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41. W.G.Bennis, Changing Organizations: Essays on the Development and
    Evolution of Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company,
    1966) p.5.

reduces the discretion that would have been available to school heads and
teachers in dealing with immediate personnel and material problems. The
creation of a unified school administrative structure, although it may
have removed some of the previous impediments to educational planning,
does not seem to make individual school administration any easier. Decisions
about the deployment of a larger quantity and variety of human and material
resources over a wider geographical area is bound to be a highly demanding
activity. As Wagennar says,

> If decision-making is concentrated at the top of
> the hierarchy, it is unlikely that decision makers
> will be in sufficiently close contact with the
> service-rendering component of the service
> organization to make appropriate decisions when
> needed, particularly when these decisions must
> be made rapidly.[42]

(b) Group Differences In Perceived Job Satisfaction.

The findings in this regard did not differ from the findings of most
of the previous studies reviewed earlier in this thesis. Perhaps the
striking differences were those about the noted variations of the teachers'
perceived job satisfaction on the bases of their sex and age.

As shown in the last chapter, women teachers expressed greater
satisfaction with almost all the aspects of their jobs apart from central
administrative policies, recognition and status, and teacher-teacher
relations, than the men. That should not come as a surprise to anyone who
is familiar with the Ibo culture in particular or Nigeria in general. For
example, women in Nigeria have been conditioned over the ages to accept
and be satisfied with less—unfortunately! If she is married, as were

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42. Theodore C.Wagennar, "School Structural Composition and Achievement:
    An Empirical Assessment." Sociology and Social Research (1978), Vol.62,
    No.4, p.610.

many of the women (44.3%) included in this study, she is not expected to be ambitious for material wealth. Her husband is the "provider" of all the family essentials while she is the "odozi aku" (treasury keeper). Her salary is her husband's, so to speak. Indeed, there have been instances in which husbands have stopped their wives from engaging in any form of "office work;" a salaried woman, they argue, is often a headache in the family. Children's care and general household maintenance are considered to be the primary duties of a married woman. Is there any wonder then that the women in this study expressed a significantly higher job satisfaction than the men especially with the extrinsic rewards. Their lower perceived satisfaction with recognition and status seems to point to their awakening to the "womens liberation" calls from across the Atlantic. The same could be argued for their lower degree of satisfaction with teacher-teacher relations when compared with the men's. If two women meet to discuss, no matter what, the men folk accuse them of gossipping; if they keep to themselves they are said to be timid and unsociable; and yet, if they mix freely with their men colleagues, they are lampooned as "wayward". One of the lady teachers who was interviewed during the course of this study described an incident during which in an argument she was reviled: "You shouldn't be arguing with me here. You must realise I'm a man and that I havee a woman like you for a wife...." - an argument that is symptomatic of the male chauvinism of the larger society. Whatever dissatisfaction the lady teachers expressed could be traced to the general negative attitude by the Nigerian men towards women - an attitude reminiscent of Thomas Aquinas's ancient view that women are /"defective and accidental, a male gone awry, the result of some weakness in the father's generative power."[43] That the women expressed higher overall job satisfaction than

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43. Cited by Richard Gilman, "Where Did I All Go Wrong?" Life Magazine,
    (1971), Vol.4, p.17.

did the men can easily be explained. Of all women's jobs[44] in Nigeria,

teaching seems to be the most rewarding, given the relative autonomy it

confers on the incumbent, its short working day - hours, long holidays

and salary scales that are not worse than the other jobs in the public

sector of the labour market. In terms of equity theory (social comparison)

therefore, the women in this study will perceive more satisfaction with their

jobs than their male counterparts. That will be more so if their

"reference others" were women and men in other jobs. Of course there is

no denying the possibility of men being more satisfied with their jobs

than women especially in factories. There, women usually occupy the lower

levels of employment (e.g. as factory hands) and their work is often

monotonous, boring and fatiguing.[45] In comparison, teaching is far

preferable. The lower levels of the teaching job (such as the infant

classes) usually staffed by more women than men (since women are generally

regarded as children-lovers[46]), are more thrilling and activity-

oriented than the "higher levels". By that token then, women as a group

should perceive greater job satisfaction than men.

It has been suggested elsewhere[47] that "age is invariably as good, and

often a better predictor" of job satisfaction as any other. Contrary to the

expectation that people's standards and expectations decline over the

years the old learning to be satisfied with less, the findings in the

present study suggest an inverse relationship between age and job

satisfaction. The reason may be, as Wright and Hamilton suggest, that the

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44. J.D.Grambs identifies them as teaching, nursing, librarianship and
    social work in "Women and Administration, Confrontation or Accommodation?"
    Theory Into Practice (1976), Vol.15, No.4, p.293.

45. C.L.Hulin and Patricia C.Smith, "Sex Differences In Job Satisfaction."
    Journal of Applied Psychology (1964) vol.48, No.2, pp.88-92.

46. See: Kathryn Cirincione-Coles, "The Administrator: Male or Female?"
    Journal of Teacher Education (1975) vol.25, no.4.

47. J.D.Wright and R.F.Hamilton, "Work Satisfaction and Age: Some Evidence
    for the Job Change Hypothesis." Social Forces (1978), Vol.56, No.4,p.1141.

older people might differ from the younger people who are starting out with different expectations.[48] For example, the older teachers' work value orientations in the present study were found to differ substantially from those of the younger teachers. In this study, it was found that the younger teachers perceived job satisfaction was significantly higher in all job facets, except in relation to central administrative policies. Its implication could be that the young men and women teachers are much more eager to question authority and are less inclined to the pursuit of bourgeois or material interests.

The teachers' perceived job satisfaction increased with age up to the age of forty, after which the decline set in. This is in accordance with Turner's suggestion that workers often begin to despair and become disconsolate as they contemplate growing older in a job that holds little promise for them and which may begin to demand a pace too fast for their ageing years.[49] As their morale falters, they dream of quitting the job but are further frustrated by the realization that they cannot afford to leave. With increased family obligations as he gets older, and faced with the harsh realities of a fast approaching retirement (with little or no retirement benefits) the old teacher feels he has not been amply rewarded in his "sacred job". At the age of forty, the average Ibo teacher will have had more than two grown-up children to educate, and an increasing package of demands to be met such as building a family house out of his "savings". His need for more income increases but he realises that his means are indeed poor. Such a feeling of relative deprivation is complicated further by the fact that, as Saleh and Otis say, old age is

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48. ibid.

49. A.N.Turner, "The Older Worker: New Light on Employment and Retirement Problems", _Personnel_ (1955), vol.32, pp.246-257.

generally characterized by a blockage of the channels for self-actualization and psychological growth and a decline in physical health.[50] These explanations are also applicable in explaining the nature of the relationship found between experience and perceived job satisfaction in the present study. Those however who, like Wright and Hamilton[51] argue that job satisfaction increases with age are not that wrong. That argument might hold true of jobs with adequate and regular promotion systems and meaningful retirement benefits such as those in the Imo State civil Service. Although they exist on paper, retirement benefits for teachers in Imo State are yet to be implemented.

Previous studies have contradicted each other in revealing significant positive relationship between eductional level and job satisfaction;[52] negative relationship between job satisfaction and educational level;[53] no significant relationship[54]; and inverse relationship between educational level and the way the organization was being managed.[55] The present study supports Goodman's conclusion of a positive relationship between educational level and job satisfaction. The only exception was in the case of interpersonal relation aspects which were proved not to be significantly related to educational level, thus suggesting the presence of other moderating variables (such as sex, age, leader behaviour of the head, and family background) on this aspect of work. This is of course a mere

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50. S.D.Saleh and J.L.Otis, "Age and Level of Job Satisfaction." Personnel Psychology (19), vol. , pp.425-430.

51. J.D.Wright and R.F.Hamilton, op.cit.

52. L.Goodwin, "Occupational Goald and Satisfaction of American Work Force" Personnel Psychology 1969, vol.22, pp.313-325.

53. H.M.Vollmer and J.A.Kinney, "Age, Education and Job Satisfaction" Personnel (1955), vol.32, pp.38-43.

54. D.Sinha and K.C.Sarma, "Union Attitude and Job Satisfaction in Indian Workers." Journal of Applied Psychological, 1962,vol.46,pp.247-251.

55. M.E.Gordon and R.A.Arvey, "The Relationship Between Education and Satisfaction with Job Content." Academy of Management Journal (1975), vol.18, no.4, pp.888-892.

assumption which could be thoroughly investigated in subsequent studies.

A finding of no significant relationship between school grade and job satisfaction (apart from interpersonal relations) is not hard to explain. Teachers' service conditions in Imo State are not graded, nor determined on the basis of the school grade. Service conditions are primarily determined by the teachers' educational qualifications. And as we saw in Chapter Two of this thesis, there were as many "unqualified" teachers in the secondary schools as in the primary schools. If remunerations and fringe benefits are determined by qualifications, it seems reasonable to argue that, given the near identical composition of the working population of primary and secondary teachers, there will be no significant difference in their perceived job satisfaction.

The finding of a statistically significant difference between the urban and the rural teachers' perceived satisfaction with the school neighbourhood ($P < 0.0001$) seem to vindicate teachers' allegations of discriminatory treatment of schools by the central office. According to some of the teachers speaking in the interview, basic equipment and amenities were lacking in almost every school (secondary or primary) except in those schools that were lucky to have "the big men's children". These "big men" (important government functionaries including school board officials, top army officials and business executives) live in the urban areas of the Imo State. And if that allegation is true, as this particular finding tends to suggest it is, then one begins to wonder how genuine was the government's intention to "guarantee uniform standards and fair distribution of facilities"[56] which was stated to be one of the reasons for nationalizing all schools in the state since 1970. Or were

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56. The Government of the East Central State, Gazette No.3 (21st Jan. 1971) p.I.

the schools nationalized so as to "give jobs to the boys"[57] as Mr.

Mbakwe alleged before he became the governor of the state. In order to

ascertain the genuineness of the teachers' concern on the other hand, it

might be proper to look more closely into their work value orientations.

(c) The Teachers' Work Value Orientations.

The work value orientations of the average teacher in Nigeria have

been the subject of much argument (rhetoric and invective) for some time

now, but of little or no empirical research. Such a concern was not

unjustifiable because an employee's value system is said to be central

to his emotional system, to his expectations of organizational rewards

and to his job performance and perceived job satisfaction.

Also, public school teachers in the state as all over Nigeria have

been labouring to sustain an image of professionalism. Although some

sociologists such as Lortie think that teaching is a semi-profession,[58]

if not an ambiguous profession[59], teachers all over the world have been

aspiring aggressively to genuine professional status.[60] The generally

reached conclusion in a typological approach which seeks to identify major

characteristics separating occupational groups from each other is that

these characteristics can be identified as expertise, commitment (service

ideal), responsibility, autonomy and corporateness. These defining

criteria, however, are essentially derived from an ideal type model which

57. Imo State Schools Management Board, Quarterly Bulletin (1976) No.I, p.56.

58. Dan C.Lortie, "The Balance of Control and Autonomy in Elementary School Teaching" in A.Etzioni (ed). The Semi Professions and Their Organization (New York: The Free Press, 1969) pp.26-30.

59. Paul M.Leigh, "Ambiguous Professionalism: A study of Teachers' Status Perceptions" Educational Review (1979) vol.3, No.I.

60. See, Ronald C.Corwin, Militant Professionalism (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970).

is heavily dependent on the identification of the professional as a sole practitioner remunerated by fees. While it was not possible, within the confines of this study to investigate fully the extent of the teachers' acculturation to the teaching profession's sub-culture, the study of the work value orientations of teachers in this study was undertaken as a measure of the degree of teachers' acceptance of a number of professinal values. This was considered legitimate because, the relationship between teachers and the society in which they perform their tasks is believed to be considerably shaped by the existence of professional self-images.

As has been noted already, the teachers in the present study placed higher values on the extrinsic rewards of a job than on the intrinsic. For example, the teachers as a group, placed the highest valuation on economic returns. Even, the high valuations they placed on achievement and relations with superior can be linked to economic returns. In the Nigerian context, achievement and good rapport with one's boss are instrumental to economic well being; good relatons with one's superior enhances one's promotion prospects.

Such an overwhelming endorsement of economic returns casts doubts on the teachers' claim to professional status, considering that professionals are believed to be generally motivated more by the service ideal, an altruistic orientation to work, than by the pursuit of material gains. The public preference for the image of the teacher as a dedicated professional totally committed to the welfare of the pupils is most marked. The public would prefer to see teaching, like other vocations, "legitimated in terms of values and norms - a purpose transcending individual self interest in favour of a presumed higher good."[61] But the

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61. C.C.Moskos, Jr., "From Institution to Occupation: Trends In Military Organization." Armed Forces and Society (1977) vol.4, No.I, p.41.

teachers in the present study postulated demands far removed from this altruistic self-image. Rather, they presented themselves as hedonistic and acquisitive creatures interested mostly in obtaining the greatest economic rewards. Of course, it would be sheer romanticism to expect the twentieth-century teacher in a relatively deprived society, such as the war-ravaged Imo State of Nigeria, to teach for a "reward in heaven." The protestant ethic which emphasizes hard work as a sign of God's favour does not seem to appeal any longer to the modern employee. The emphasis everywhere seems to be shifting towards the notion of "getting on in life" as a primary motive for working at all. However much as this attitude is normal in a society totally bedevilled by the cash nexus, one wonders whether it is a proper attitude on the part of teachers who, at the worst, may be regarded as quasi-professionals. For instance, one would have thought that the graduate teachers who were better qualified would have been more professional in their work value orientations than the not-so-well qualified ones. But as this study has revealed, there was no major difference between their work value orientations - thus highlighting, in a way, the need to re-examine the role of our teachers' colleges in the socialization of teachers into the profession. The professional socialization of a teacher would require, for example, taking the neophyte teacher to a point from which he would see himself and his role from a new perspective - a professional committed to the service ideal. It could be true, however, as Petty and Hogben suggest, that "students enter teacher education programs with traditional attitudes towards education but a change towards an increasingly more progressive [professional] attitudes takes place in college or university, only to be reversed once regular teaching begins."[62] In fact, Shipman takes the

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62. M.F.Petty and D.Hogben, "Explorations of Semantic Space With Beginning Teachers: A Study of Socialization Into Teaching." British Journal of Teacher Education (1980) vol.6, No.I, p.51.

argument further by saying that student-teachers usually employ "impression management" to camouflage their original attitudes until they are out of college.[63] Are we then saying that role identification, or anticipatory socialization, is not a stable phenomenon? The issue here seems to revolve round the validity, or otherwise, of Sherif's norm formation paradigm.[64] For Sherif, people's behaviour and attitudes come together or converge toward a group norm under the influence of interpersonal contacts. He argues that once a group norm has been established, it is internalized by the group participants; and that since the norm has been internalized, individual behaviour in similar situations will adhere to the standards set by the group. However, West and Williams hold a contrary view. According to them, rather than an internalization of the group norm by individual members, there seems to be a tendency for individual judgements to diverge once returned to situations of individual judgement.[65] The latter view seems to be borne out by the attitude of the teachers in the present study. Assuming that the teachers were truly acculturated towards a professional ethos during their training, why was this acculturation so short lived as to be almost non-existent in the real life practice of their jobs? Some explanations can be postulated.

Socialization is an on-going phenomenon. Family and the larger societal attitudes and values can, and do, influence people's (professionals or non-professionals) work value systems. Thus, in Nigeria, attitudes may change as the institutionally infused ethos of the teaching job comes face-to-face with the real world of "grab, grab." According to Bonuala,

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63. M.D.Shipman, "Theory and Practice In the Education of Teachers," Journal of Educational Research (1967), vol.9, p.209.

64. M.Sherif, The Psychology of Norms (New York) Harper, 1936).

65. W.G.West and J.Sherwood Williams, "Internalization or Divergence? Re-examining the Norm Formation Paradigm" Sociology and Social Research (July 1978) vol.62, No.4, pp.596-607.

Nigeria is a country in which "our values are cars, money and houses, not names....a nation in which everyone is set on ruinous societal values... a country whose people think they can grow and prosper through dazzling vanity."[66] If Bonuala's alarming observation is true, then the teachers' preference for instrumental values will not be a surprise to the reader. And as Charles Perrow remarks,[67] people are required to fulfil all kinds of social roles as well as that appropriate to their jobs. The larger society shapes people (teacher included) in ways which affect their entire value-system. Perrow states, "daily people come contaminated into the organization."[68] So that whatever ideals these teachers might have acquired during their period of anticipatory socialization (ie. in teachers' colleges) turn into mere illusions as soon as they enter the real work-world of Nigerian society.

It could be argued also that perhaps the teachers' colleges failed to select the "right" type of candidates. Adesina says that an ugly consequence of the expansion of the educational system all over Nigeria was the recruitment and selection of "rejects from the secondary school system and confused primary school leavers" into the teacher training colleges.[69] Becker warns that "a system which thus almost deliberately selected disgruntled failures for its teachers is bound not to get the greatest amount of teaching enthusiasm, which may be more important than a degree."[70]

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66. Lade Bonuola, "Enthronement of Superficiality." Daily Times (Lagos Nigeria) April 2, 1980, p.7.

67. Cited in F.E.Kast and J.E.Rosenzweig, Organization and Management, A Systems Approach (Tokyo, McGraw Hill Kogakusha Ltd., 1970) p.133.

68. ibid.

69. S.A.Adesina, op.cit., p.56.

70. H.S.Becker, "Schools and Systems of Social Status." Sociological Work (London: Allen Lane, The Penguin Press, 1971) p.220.

There is also a suggestion here that, as Colombotos says, "the social origins of persons recruited into occupations are crucial for an understanding of the interplay between person and occupational role."[71] Fagbamiye "makes an educated guess that the vast majority of teachers all over Nigeria are of lower class origin."[72] If that is true, then Kohn and Schooler's thesis may be relevant to the Nigerian case. According to them, the lower one's social class position, the more importance one attaches to material benefits such as pay, fringe benefits and job security.[73]

The high values placed on the extrinsic rewards by the men, the old, the married, the experienced and the committed teachers in the present study could be related to the general praxis of the larger society. In general, Sheppard and Herrick's observation that the "now generation of workers" subscribes to orientations and values qualitatively different from those of the past seems to have been upheld in the present study. The members of the new generation of teachers in the state want their rewards here and now. No longer are they prepared to wait to be rewarded in heaven. One or two decades ago, the average Ibo teacher was happy in, and proud of, his job. He worked under austere and adverse conditions without complaining (it was sinful to complain). He was told, and he believed, that his adversity was sanctifying. He lived on the school premises or in a mission house, in conditions that would horrify a tramp in the

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71. John Colombotos, "Sex Role and Professionalism: A Study of High School Teachers" The School Review (Spring 1963), vol.71, p.38.

72. E.O.Fagbamiye, "The Public Image of Teachers and Their Effectiveness: Some Untoward Consequences." (unpublished manuscript, University of Lagos, (1978) p.2.

73. M.Kohn and C.Schooler, "Class, Occupation and Orientation." American Sociological Review (1969) vol.34, pp.659-660.

Western industrialized world. Today, the teacher in Ibo land (ie. Imo

State of Nigeria) is different from his predecessors. He has become

indignant at all the perceived irregularities and inequalities around him.

Seeing his former pupil living in a modern government-furnished flat

beside his shanty house in the school compound, he refuses to continue

living in such conditions. And so today, uninhabited teachers' quarters

are a regular feature of the Imo State school system. Thus the time

when teaching was a demonstrably respectable employment seems to have gone

by. Is it any wonder then at the teachers' demonstrated low commitment,

as revealed in the present study?

(d) The Teachers' Job Commitment.

The notion of employee commitment to organizations has become a major

concern to organizational analysis for a number of reasons. For example,

Marsh and Mannari's research findings indicate that commitment is often a

better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction.[74] Also, Mowday Porter

and Dubin suggest that highly committed employees may perform better than

the less committed.[75] The term, commitment, as used in the present study,[76]

refers to a teachers' willingness to maintain membership within the state's

teaching service. The result of the study could, it was hoped, help to

predict teacher turnover in the state.

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74. R.M.Marsh and H.Mannari, "Organizational Commitment and Turnover: A
    Prediction Study." Administrative Science Quarterly (1977) vol.22,
    pp. 57-75.

75. R.T.Mowday, L.W.Porter and R.Dubin, "Unit Performance, Situational
    Factors and Employee Attitudes in Spatially Separated Work Units."
    Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1974) vol.12, pp.231-248.

76. Commitment has been variously defined by Bruce Buchanan, "Building
    Organizational Commitment", Administrative Science Quarterly (1974)
    vol.19 p.533 as: identification - adoption as one's own the goals and
    values of the organization; involvement - psychological immersion or
    absorption in the activities of one's own role; and loyalty - a
    feeling of affection for, and attachment to, the organization.

Earlier in this thesis it was recorded that 61·6 percent of the sample teachers indicated no lasting commitment to teaching in the state. Asked to envisage their lives in five to ten years' time, most of the teachers who were interviewed visualized themselves as wealthy business executives, driving around in expensive cars. Over eighty percent of them saw their teaching jobs simply as an interim engagement, or, in the words of Lortie, an "in-and-out engagement."[77] Such a limited perception of career (low professinal commitment) is very disturbing in a country that relies on education as a panacea for most of its problems. For example the Federal Government of Nigeria regards education not only as "the greatest force that can be used to bring about redress, it is also the greatest investment that the nation can make for the quick development of its economic, political, sociological and human resources."[78]

The persistent dilemma is that Nigerian society in a period of limited resources balks at the financial consequences of making teaching sufficiently enticing to attract qualified and dedicated personnel. A shortage of well qualified teachers thus creates problems of "overstretch", which of course breed dissatisfaction.

That so many people with low commitment are still teaching may be explained by the fact that access to teaching is not difficult. It is, in fact, one of the few jobs in the State that has facilitated entry. Fees in teachers' colleges are not charged. Poor students thus come to regard entry into those colleges as means of upward mobility at little or no cost to themselbes or their parents. For instance, in a study of the

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77. Dan C.Lortie, Schoolteacher, A Sociological Study, p.87.

78. Federal Republic of Nigeria, National Policy On Education, 1977, p.5.

social origins of Lagos University students by Ebomiyi (cited by

Fagbamiye) it was found that students in Education were generally older,

(80% of them were more than twenty seven years old) than students in other

disciplines. Also parental occupation and type of accommodation showed

the Education students at the bottom of the socio-economic ladder.[79] It

could be inferred from the present study, that most of the teachers became

teachers because they could not enter other occupations. As Lortie says,

> People who cannot make it as doctors, business
> executives... can at least avoid slipping into
> work of considerably less standing. Teaching
> functions therefore as a stratification safety
> net which allows people to land without severe
> damage to their status aspirations.[80]

Although the relationship between teachers' job commitment and turnover

was not directly measured in the present study, it could be postulated

that as soon as there are openings elsewhere, it is the non-committed

teachers who will first leave for such !"greener pastures." The finding

of a positive relationship between job commitment and job satisfaction

lends credibility to that postulation. What is not certain is the nature

of the cause - effect relationship between job commitment and job

satisfaction, although Coulter and Taft say that "satisfaction with teaching

is a precondition for a specified level of identification with the teaching

profession...."[81] The antecedents of organizational commitment are as

complicated as the human personality itself. Such commitment involves the

interation of a number of variables including a person's personal characteristics,

his job characteristics and his work experiences. So that it is not easy

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79. E.O.Fagbamiye, op.cit., pp.3-6½

80. Dan C.Lortie, op.cit., p.50.

81. F.Coulter and R.Taft, "The Professional Socialization of School Teachers
    As Social Assimilation." Human Relations (1973) vol.26, no.6., p.691.

categorically to account for the teachers' low job commitment in the

present study. There is no doubt, on the other hand, about the consequences

and the outcomes of organizational commitment. Steers identifies them as:

a desire to remain; an intent to remain, job attendance, employee retention

and high job performance.[82] Which is why the finding of teachers' low

commitment in the present study should be viewed with all seriousness.

As Aspinall suggests, obviously quite conscious of restricted employment

opportunities because of their initial lack of qualification, these men

and women must have entered the teacher training colleges to be equipped

for better jobs in the long run.[83]

(e) Conclusion: Suggestions for Future Practice and Research.

Results have been presented which indicate a high degree of teacher

dissatisfactin and an inclination to leave the teaching job in the state.

Also from the results it can be argued that teaching in this study is

increasingly moving away from the status of a profession to that of a mere

occupation as evidenced by a lessening of individual commitment and the

growth of calculative and instrumental attitudes towards the job. The

situation calls for a re-thinking of state school personnel policies.

According to Bowman, whether it is done in knowledge or in ignorance, the

shaping of personnel policies is the shaping of school education.[84] School

personnel policies should be formulated on firm knowledge. School personnel

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82. R.M.Steers, "Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment" Administrative Science Quarterly (1977), vol.22, p.47.

83. Marian Aspinall, "Social and Environment Studies Reform: The Nigerian Situation" Education for Development (University College Cardiff, 1979) vol.5, No.4, p.14.

84. Mary Jean Bowman, "Forward" in K.George Pedersen, The Itinerant School Teacher (Chicago: Midwest Administration Centre, 1973) p.v.

policies should reflect personal, demographic, professional - educational

and economic factors as they relate to both the teachers and the schools.

Of course no policy will be effective unless everyone in the school system

is interested and willing to cooperate with one another. Chester Barnard's

remark seems proper and cogent in this regard. According to him,

> An essential element of organizations is the
> willingness of persons to contribute their
> individual efforts to the cooperative system.
> The power of cooperation which is often
> spectacularly great when contrasted with that
> even of a large number of individuals unorganized,
> is, nevertheless, dependent upon the willingness
> of individuals to cooperate and to contribute
> their efforts to the cooperative system. The
> contributions of personal efforts which constitute
> the energies of organizations are yielded by
> individuals because of incentives.[85]

Cooperation and incentives are the operative words in the above quotation.

The suggestion here is that incentives induce cooperation and there is no

escaping the importance of money among other incentives.

The general debate about teachers' conditions of service in the state

is affected by a pragmatic and realistic awareness of the effect upon

public expenditure of such demands, given the huge number of teachers in

the state. Consequently, most of the public debate centres not on

theoretical or philosophical issues, such as "Education as an investment

in man", but on the practical issues of resource allocation in a society

in which there is a noticeable decline in the quantitative total of

available resources - a society whose erstwhile "oil-boom" economy has

degenerated into an "oil doom" economy, especially since 1977 when there

began "a down turn in Nigerian oil production which was to send the economy

into a sharp recession."[86] The scene is even more bleak in Imo State,

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85. C.I.Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Massachussetts:
     Harvard University Press, 1938) p.139.

86. Financial Times (Supplement on Nigeria) October I, 1979, p.II.

which is yet to recover, as we noted in Chapter One, from the devastations

of the Nigeria-Biafra war of 1967-1970. Consequently, at least for the

moment, the state has relatively no strong means of attraction and retention

of qualified and dedicated teachers. (For example, during an informal

discussion with a group of Imo state final-year undergraduates reading

Education at the University of Lagos in February 1980, eleven out of

sixteen of them (68·75%) said they would prefer teaching outside Imo state).

Nevertheless, teachers have to be recruited for the rapidly expanding

primary and secondary schools in the state. What then might be the best

policies for teacher recruitment and retention in the face of the state's

budget constraints? Adequate strategies for the attraction and retention

of able teachers are a sine qua non for the success of any educational

system.

As Harries-Jenkins observes in another context,[89] the decisions which

have to be made are essentially decisions about the social allocation of

scarce resources; about the choice between competing demands upon public

expenditure and about the reconciliation of the requirements of

education with the other economic and social needs of the people. This

problem becomes more intriguing and critical when funds are more than

usually scarce, so that growth in one area depends on contraction

elsewhere. Of course no one will deny that the Imo State government

allocates a huge portion of its annual budget to Education. For example,

in 1977/78, Education received the third largest share of ₦29·8 million

out of a total budget of ₦565 million. Land Transport, Road and Bridges

had the largest share of ₦59·7 million, followed by Town Planning which

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87. G.Harries-Jenkins, "Armed Forces And the Welfare State In the 1980s"
    (Unpublished Conference Paper, 1980).

received ₦34.6 million.[88] These allocations can be argued to be fair in

view of the massive reconstruction of the basic infrastructure destroyed

during the war years (see page 3). In spite of such apparently fair

allocation of funds for Educational services in the state, the Ministry

of Education/Education Services Board does not seem to be fulfilling its

financial obligations. At the time of writing of this thesis (April 1980),

teachers in the writer's home town are yet to receive their salaries for

February. Yet, as Nwosu says,

> Social justice demands that teachers who are as
> qualified for their jobs as their counterparts in
> the other Public Services, and sometimes better
> qualified, should not be made to collect the
> crumbs when it comes to remuneration. We shall
> continue to fight this cause with the might of
> our pen until justice is done.[89]

What is not clear is what miracles the "mighty pen" will work in a situation

where the basic funds are not available. Perhaps, it might be proper to

explore alternative sources of education-funding in the state. The state

government is not a Father Christmas. Which is why the present writer

endorses the recent announcement of the introduction of "education rates"

of twenty naira (£16) per male adult and ten naira (£8) per female adult

by the state governor.[90] If everyone cooperates, and the proceeds are

actually spent on education, then the state school system might become a

happier organization in which to work or teach.

Given the availability of necessary funds, certain changes will still

be necessary to make schooling and teaching happy and fruitful pursuits.

Change is not just a question of improving pay or fringe benefits, although,

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88. Information from the Accountant-General's Office, Owerri, March, 1979.

89. Professor S.N.Nwosu, 11th Convocation Address (Alvan Ikiku College of
    Education, Owerri, Imo State. Dec. 1978) p.25.

90. Reported in West Africa of April 21, 1980, p.717.

it can be argued that they are important in keeping employees at work. We are rather more concerned with those aspects of change which would enhance the motivation of teachers through the satisfaction of higher-order social needs, bearing in mind that no increase in pay will motivate the individual to work for psychological returns which are not forthcoming with monetary rewards.

Consideration has to be given also to recruitment procedures which are adopted by our teacher training colleges. As Pedersen[91] says, "the possibilities of improving the quality of education are strongly influenced by the competence of the human services that local school systems can employ." Although no research has yet been conducted to ascertain the characteristics of the human inputs into the teacher training colleges, means should be devised for predicting the career orientation of a teacher-aspirant. Equally important is the need to re-appraise our teacher-preparation programmes with a view to finding how best to change the teacher trainees job attitudes towards the professional self-image of teaching. Salancik and Pfffer suggest, for example, such strategies as changing them to have different needs through socialization or "conscious raising" programmes, and affecting their awareness, comprehension and interpretation of job characteristics.[92] Thus, if the "right" people are selected and professionally trained as teachers, perhaps the existing low job commitment as demonstrated by the teachers in the present study would not be so widespread.

The present promotion system which is based on seniority is not very encouraging especially for the young men and women with drive, initiative

91. K.George Pedersen, The Itinerant Schoolmaster (Chicago: Midwest Administration Centre, University of Chicago, 1973) p.I.

92. G.R.Salancik and J.Pfeffer, "An Examination of Need-Satisfaction Models of Job Attitudes." Administrative Science Quarterly (1977), vol.22, p. 434.

and ambition. As Griffiths says, the average young teacher is "a man on the way up"; he is eager for promotion and willing to demonstrate his ability for hard work.[93] An adequate staff appraisal system which rewards merit should be designed. Ways should be devised to include peer-rating in our teaching staff appraisals, instead of relying solely on the superior's appraisal of his subordinates.

Teachers have too often been confined to a utilitarian role. They are hardly ever allowed a say in the making of the policies which affect them and their job performances. All too often they are expected to concern themselves with just "teaching". Something has to be done to involve teachers in the formulation of policies: the rules and regulations concerning their jobs. It is wrong for those in authority to think that all they have to do is to issue orders and instructions to teachers and have them obeyed without question. Perhaps, Newman's thesis of "consultative direction"[94] will be of help in this regard. It involves the person who gives the order explaining to subordinates why the order is given and allowing them to ask questions or make alternative suggestions. Thus there should be a forum where teachers and administrators could meet from time to time, formally and informally. The establishment of a Teachers' Centre in at least each of the twenty-one Local Government Areas of the state is called for.

Such Teachers' Centres, as they are conceived in Britain, should be places where the teachers themselves could initiate proposals for educational reforms. Such centres must be so designed as to encourage "bottom-up" planning and initiatives rather than the existing "top-down"

93. D.E.Griffiths and W.J.McFarland, "Teacher Mobility In New York City." Educational Administration Quarterly (1955) vol.I, p.15.

94. W.H.Newman, Administrative Action (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1951) pp.384-388.

planning model in which teachers have all along been on the receiving-end

of policies determined by a handful of civil servants. The argument for

the inclusion of a "down-up" planning of education rests on the fact that

imposed patters of development are unlikely to be viable. At least in

Britain, evidence has shown that

> Informal local working groups of teachers, sensitive
> to the needs of their schools and their students,
> and confident that they were exercising a proper
> series of professional decisions, were achieving
> significant progress in developing and applying
> ideas.[95]

To start with, such centres could be open to qualified teachers (ie.

graduates and diploma teachers) because work at such a centre will call

for a wealth of informed ideas from the participants. A teacher's

Centre should serve as an information centre where teachers will find out

and discuss newly proposed policies; as a feedback and adaptation centre

for the exchange of ideas with particular innovators; as an in-service

training centre for instruction on new teaching techniques; as a

reprographic centre and a library centre; as a meeting place with local

school board officials and as a social centre where teachers can meet

fellow teachers and friends informally for games, drinks and parties.[96]

The centres will be best linked with neighbouring teachers' colleges.

School Inspectors should have very close links with such centres. It

could be so arranged that the local school inspectors' office is located

within the centre and he could, in fact, administer the centre with the

help of a number of the teachers' representatives.

Linked to this idea of creating numerous teachers' centres all over the

state is the need to institutionalise meaningful in-service programmes for

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95. John Eggleston, "Teachers' Centres: A British Development In Further
Professional Training." European Journal of Education (1979) vol.14,
No.4, p.352.

96. L.C.Taylor, Teachers' Centres (Paris: OECD, Centre For Educational
Research and Innovation, 1974).

teachers. Teachers, whether in primary, secondary or even post-primary institutions need enrichment programmes if they are not to become "dead wood", academically speaking. In-service programmes should be designed as an integral part of continuing teacher education and not just as an emergency service. According to the Commonwealth Secretariat in London, while some teachers will be highly motivated to take in-service courses designed to specific ends, others might require some encouragement to participate. And one means of encouragement, suggest the secretariat might be "the establishment of a system of qualifications based on the accumulation of credits resulting from attendance at in-service courses." The present system whereby "courses" are organized for teachers during the holidays, merely to prevent teachers from going away from home for holidays leaves much to be desired. "Educational leave" could be seriously considered as a permanent feature of in-service programmes. Every four or five years, a teacher should be granted two or three months leave during which he could be seconded to other jobs in the private sector. He could be deployed, for example, in a hospital, in a publishing house, in a museum, in the department of Environment or in a theatre depending on his field of specialization. Thus in constant touch with other sectors of the economy, his subsequent outlook and teaching would be better informed. Employers of labour could be persuaded by the government to pay the teachers' salaries during those periods of familiarization, thus reducing the overall cost of running the schools.

More powers should be given to school heads. They ought to sit on the panels interviewing teachers for posting to their schools. They should be allowed to participate in the selection of pupils for their own schools, even though this right might be abused by some. In collaboration with their respective Parents-Teachers Associations, schools should formulate local

rules and regulations governing them. The mass media should invite
headmasters and articulate teachers from time to time to discuss vital
education issues on television.

On the basis of the findings in this study, it seems proper to suggest
that the problem of teachers' job satisfaction and turnover and their
effects on children's education be thoroughly examined. Without doubt,
the low commitment of most of the teachers treated in the study, if it
is representative of the entire state school system, is bound to have some
untoward consequences for school effectiveness and efficiency. Such a
nation-wide study is overdue; the extraordinary unplanned complexity of
the Nigerian school system should not deter anyone thinking of
embarking on such a research project.

Epilogue.

The present writer identifies himself with an anonymous writer,
cited by Kast and Rosenzweig, who says:

> We have not succeeded in answering all our questions.
> Indeed we sometimes feel we have not completely
> answered any of them. The answers we have found only
> serve to raise a whole new set of questions. In
> some ways we feel we are as confused as ever. But
> we think we are confused on a higher level and about
> more important things.[97]

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97. F.E.Kast and J.E.Rosenzweig, Organization and Management, A Systems
Approach (Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha Ltd., 1970) p.625,

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APPENDIX 3-A.

MASLOW'S THEORY OF METAMOTIVATION *

I

Self-actualizing individuals (more matured, more fully human), by
definition, already suitably gratified in their basic needs, are now
motivated in other way to be called "metamotivations."

II

All such people are devoted to some task, call, vocation, beloved
work ("outside themselves").

III

In the ideal instance, inner requiredness coincides with external
requiredness, "I want to" with "I must."

IV

This ideal situation generates feelings of good fortune and also
of ambivalence and unworthiness.

V

At this level the dichotomizing of work and play is transcended; wages,
hobbies, vacations etc must be defined at a higher level.

VI

Such vocation - loving individuals tend to indentify (introject,
incorporate) with their "work" and to make it into a defining -
characteristic of the self. It becomes part of the self.

VII

The tasks to which they are dedicated seem to be interpretable as
embodiments or incarnations of intrinsic values (rather than as a
means to ends outside the work itself, and rather than as functionally
autonomous). The tasks are loved (and introjected) BECAUSE they embody
these values. That is, ultimately it is the values that are loved
rather than the job itself.

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*Source: A.H.Maslow, <u>The Further Reaches of Human Nature</u> (1977) pp.289-328.

VIII

These intrinsic values overlap greatly with the B - values, and perhaps are identical with them.

IX

This introjection means that the self has enlarged to include aspects of the world and that therefore the distinction between self and non-self (outside, other) has been transcended.

X

Less evolved persons seem to use their work more often for achieving gratification of lower basic needs, of neurotic needs, as a means to an end, out of habit, or as a response to cultural expectations etc. However it is probable that these are differences of degree. Perhaps all human beings are potentially metamtoviated to a degree.

XI

The full definition of the person or of human nature must then include intrinsic values as part of human nature.

XII

These intrinsic values are instinctoid in nature, i.e, They are needed (a) to avoid illness and (b) to achieve fullest humanness or growth. The "illnesses" resulting from deprivation of intrinsic values (metaneeds) we may call metapathologies. The "highest" values; the spiritual life; the highest aspirations of mankind are therefore proper subjects for scientific study and research. They are in the world of nature.

XIII

The metapathologies of the affluent and indulged young come partly from deprivation of intrinsic values, frustrated "idealism" from disillusionment with a society they see (mistakenly) motivated only by lower or animal or material needs.

XIV

This value - starvation and value-hunger come both from external

deprivation and from inner ambivalence and counter-values.

XV

The hierarchy of basic needs is prepotent to the metaneeds.

XVI

The metaneeds are equally potent among themselves on the average - ie

I cannot detect a generalized hierarchy of prepotency. But in any

given individual, they may be and often are hierarchically arranged

according to idiosyncratic talents and constitutional differences.

XVII

It looks as if any intrinsic or B - Value is fully defined by most

or all of the other B-values. Perhaps they form a unity of some sort,

with each specific B-Value being simply the whole seen from another

angle.

XVIII

The Value - life (spiritual, religious, philosophical, axiological,

etc) is an aspect of human biology and is on the same continuum with

the lower animal life (rather than being in separated, dichotomized,

or mutually exclusive realms). It is probably therefore species-wide,

supracultural even though it must be actualized by culture in order

to exist.

XIX

Pleasures and gratifications can be arranged in hierarchy of levels

from lower to higher ... etc.

XX

Since the spiritual life is instinctoid (part of the Real self) all

the techniques of subjective biology apply to its education.

XXI

But B - Values seem to be the same as B - facts. Reality then is ultimately fact - values or value - facts.

XXII

Not only is man PART of nature, and it part of him, but also he must be at least minimally isomorphic with nature (similar to it) in order to be viable in it. It has evolved him. His communication with what transcends him therefore need not be defined as non-natural or supernatural. It may be seen as a "biological" experience.

XXIII

The B - Values are not the same as our personal attitudes towards these values, nor our emotional reactions to them. The B - Values induce in us a kind of "requiredness feeling" and also a feeling of unworthiness.

XXIV

The vocabulary to describe motivations must be hiearchical, especially since metamotivations (growth motivations) must be characterized differently from basic needs (deficiency needs).

XXV

The B - Values call for behavioral expression or "celebration" as well as inducing subjective states.

XXVI

There are certain educational and therapeutic advantages in differentiating the realm or level of being from the realm or level of deficiencies, and in recognizing language differences at these levels.

XXVII

"Intrinsic conscience" and "intrinsic guilt" are ultimately biologically rooted.

Appendix 3-B.

SCHAFFER'S DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL
NEEDS RANKED ACCORDING TO THEIR IMPORTANCE.

Mean Rank of Importance	Dimension.
2.8	1. Creativity and Challenge: The need for meeting new problems requiring initiative and inventiveness and for producing new and original work.
3.1	2. Mastery and Achievement. The need to perform satisfactorily according to one's own standards. The need to perform well in accordance with the self-perception of one's abilities.
4.9	3. Social Welfare: The need to help others, and to have one's efforts result in benefit to others.
5.1	4. Moral Value Scheme: The need to have one's behaviour consistent with some moral code or structure.
5.2	5. Affection and Interpersonal Relationships: The need to have a feeling of acceptance by and belongingness with other people. The need to have people with whom to form these affective relationships.
6.6	6. Self-Expression: The need to have one's behaviour consistent with one's self concept.
7.1	7. Dominance: The need to have power over and control of others.
7.5	8. Recognition and Approbation: The need to have one's self, one's work and other things associated with one's self known and approved by others.
7.8	9. Economic Security: The need to feel assured of a continuing income. Unwillingness to "take a chance" in any financial matter.
8.6	10. Independence: The need to direct one's own behaviour rather than to be subject to the direction of others.
8.9	11. Socio-Economic Status: The need to maintain one's self and one's family in accordance with certain group standards with respect to material matters.
10.8	12. Dependence: The need to be controlled by others. Dislike of responsibility for one's own behaviour.

Source: R.M.Simmons. The Measurement of Factors of Teacher Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction In Teaching. (unpublished doctoral dissertation, the University of Tennessee, 1970, pp.28-29).

Appendix 3-C.

Characteristics of Hygiene and Motivation Seekers.*

Hygiene Seeker	Motivation Seeker
1. Motivated by nature of the	Motivated by nature of the task
2. Chronic and heightened dis-satisfaction with various aspects of his job context, e.g., salary, supervision, working conditions, status, job security, company policy and administration, fellow employees.	Higher tolerance for poor hygiene factors.
3. Overreaction with satisfaction to improvement in hygiene factors	Less reaction to improvement in hygiene factors
4. Short duration of satisfaction when the hygiene factors are improved.	Similar
5. Overreaction with dissatisfaction when hygiene factors are not improved.	Milder discontent when hygiene factors need improvement
6. Realizes little satisfactions from accomplishments	Realizes great satisfaction from accomplishments
7. Shows little interest in the kind and quality of the work he does	Shows capacity to enjoy the kind of work he does
8. Cynicism regarding positive virtues of work and life in general	Has positive feelings toward work and life in general
9. Does not profit professionally from experience	Profits professionally from experience
10. Prone to cultural noises (a) Ultraliberal, ultraconservative (b) Parrots management philosophy (c) Acts more like top management than top management does	Belief systems sincere and considered
11. May be successful on the job because of talent.	May be an overachiever.

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*Source: F.Herzberg, <u>Work and the Nature of Man</u>. (London: Staple Press, 1968) p.90.

British Teachers' satisfactions with teaching: men and women (primary, plus secondary)

	MEN (N=2388)			WOMEN (N=3402)	
Rank	Satisfactory item	% of teachers	Rank	Satisfactory item	% of teachers
1	Holidays	60.4	1	Holidays	56.6
2	Opportunity to practise own ideas	50.0	2	Opportunity to practise own ideas	47.1
3	Economic security	44.8	3	Working hours	42.4
4	Staff-pupil relationships	40.6	4	Economic security	37.3
5	Staffroom relationships	34.0	5	Staff-pupil relationships	37.3
6	Working hours	29.5	6	Staffroom relationships	35.1
7	Time to pursue personal interests	27.6	7	Head-staff consultation	19.8

Teachers' satisfactions with teaching: men and women (primary)

	MEN (N=763)			WOMEN (N=2255)	
Rank	Satisfactory item	% of teachers	Rank	Satisfactory item	% of teachers
1	Opportunity to practise own ideas	54.9	1	Holidays	55.8
2	Holidays	53.7	2	Opportunity to practise own ideas	48.4
3	Staff-pupil relationships	38.0	3	Working hours	46.0
4	Economic security	36.7	4	Staff-pupil relationships	35.8
5	Staffroom relationships	30.1	5	Economic security	35.6
6	Working hours	29.0	6	Staffroom relationships	32.6
7	Time to pursue personal interests	27.0	7	Relationships with parents	23.0
8	Relationships with parents	20.6	8	Head-staff consultation	22.7
9	Opportunity to pursue qualifications	19.8	9	Opportunity to pursue qualifications	17.1
10	Head-staff consultation	17.2	10	Time to pursue personal interests	16.7

Source: S.Hilsum and K.B.Start, Promotion and Careers In Teaching, Appendices A to G. NFER, 1974.

Teachers' satisfactions with teaching: men and women (secondary)

	MEN (N=1625)	% of teachers	Rank	WOMEN (N=1147)	% of teachers
Rank	Satisfactory item			Satisfactory item	
1	Holidays	63.5	1	Holidays	58.1
2	Economic security	48.6	2	Opportunity to practise own ideas	44.4
3	Opportunity to practise own ideas	47.7	3	Economic security	40.7
4	Staff-pupil relationships	41.8	4	Staff-pupil relationships	40.4
5	Staffroom relationships	35.9	5	Staff-room relationships	39.8
6	Working hours	29.5	6	Working hours	35.1
7	Time to pursue personal interests	27.8	7	Pastoral care for pupils	17.0
8	Time to pursue academic interests	17.6	8	Opportunity to pursue qualifications	15.0
9	Pastoral care for pupils	14.6	9	Head-staff consultation	14.1
10	Opportunity to pursue qualifications	13.8	10	Time to pursue personal interests	12.5

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Teachers' satisfactions with teaching: qualifications (secondary)

	'ORDINARY' GRADUATE (N=539)	% of t's.	Rank	GOOD HONOURS GRAD. (N=753)	% of t's.	Rank	NON-GRADUATE (N=1488)	% of t's.
Rank	Satisfactory item			Satisfactory item			Satisfactory item	
1	Holidays	50.3	1	Holidays	56.6	1	Holidays	48.3
2	Economic security	38.4	2	Staff-pupil relationships	42.7	2	Opportunity to prac.own ideas	37.7
3	Staff-pupil relationships	35.8	3	Economic security	41.5	3	Economic security	33.9
4	Opport. to practise own ideas	35.4	4	Opport. to practise own ideas	40.4	4	Working hours	29.8
5	Staffroom relationships	32.7	5	Staffroom relationships	39.7	5	Staff-pupil relationships	29.6
6	Working hours	24.7	6	Working hours	22.0	6	Staffroom relationships	28.2
7	Time to pursue pers.interests	18.6	7	Time to pursue acad.interests	17.3	7	Time to pursue pers.ints.	19.1
8	Pastoral care for pupils	14.3	8	Time to pursue pers.interests	15.0	8	Opport.to pursue qualifics.	13.3
9	Time to pursue acad.interests	13.2	9	Pastoral care for pupils	14.2	9	Pastoral care for pupils	11.6
10	Head-staff consultation	11.3	10	Head-staff consultation	10.2	10	Head-staff consultation	10.3

Table G1618: Teachers' dissatisfactions with teaching:
men and women (primary, plus secondary)

	MEN (N=2388)			WOMEN (N=3402)	
Rank	Unsatisfactory item	% of teachers	Rank	Unsatisfactory item	% of teachers
1	Status of profession in society	55.2	1	Class size	55.3
2	Class size	40.7	2	Status of profession in society	44.6
3	Promotion prospects	26.1	3	School/classroom accommodation	29.8
4	School/classroom accommodation	24.3	4	Inter-school consultation	20.9
5	Extent of non-professional work	22.4	5	Promotion prospects	20.8
			6	Extent of non-professional work	20.1

Table G16.19: Teachers' dissatisfactions with teaching:
men and women (primary)

	MEN (N=763)			WOMEN (N=2255)	
Rank	Unsatisfactory item	% of teachers	Rank	Unsatisfactory item	% of teachers
1	Class size	55.3	1	Class size	65.2
2	Status of profession in society	54.3	2	Status of profession in society	45.1
3	School/classroom accommodation	35.8	3	School/classroom accommodation	34.1
4	Promotion prospects	24.2	4	Student supervision by tutors	23.5
5	Extent of non-professional work	22.0	5	Inter-school consultation	22.4
6	Student supervision by tutors	20.8	6	Promotion prospects	21.9
7	Inter-school consultation	20.1	7	Extent of non-professional work	19.5
8	Textbooks	18.5	8	Staffroom accommodation	18.4
9	Interruptions to lessons	17.2	9	Interruptions to lessons	15.0
10	Guidance by advisors	16.9	10	Extent of student practice in schools	13.9

Table G16.20: Teachers' dissatisfactions with teaching: men and women (secondary)

	MEN (N=1625)	% of		WOMEN (N=1147)	% of
Rank	Unsatisfactory item	teachers	Rank	Unsatisfactory item	teachers
1	Status of profession in society	55.7	1	Status of profession in society	43.7
2	Class size	33.9	2	Class size	35.7
3	Promotion prospects	27.0	3	Influence of external examinations	22.9
4	Influence of external examinations	25.7	4	School/classroom accommodation	21.4
5	Extent of non-professional work	22.6	5	Extent of non-professional work	21.4
6	School/classroom accommodation	18.9	6	Promotion prospects	18.7
7	Pupil discipline	18.8	7	Interruptions to lessons	18.0
8	Inter-school consultation	17.4	8	Inter-school consultation	18.0
9	Textbooks	16.0	9	Textbooks	17.2
10	Equipment	15.8	10	Staffroom accommodation	16.7

Table G16.21: Teachers' dissatisfactions with teaching: qualifications (secondary)

	'ORDINARY' GRADUATE (N=539)	% of		GOOD HONOURS GRAD. (N=733)	% of		NON-GRADUATE (N=1488)	% of
Rank	Unsatisfactory item	t's.	Rank	Unsatisfactory item	t's.	Rank	Unsatisfactory item	t's.
1	Status of profession in soc.	42.9	1	Status of profession in soc.	40.7	1	Status of profession in soc.	41.8
2	Class size	26.3	2	Class size	28.6	2	Class size	27.9
3	Extent of non-prof. work	22.3	3	Influence of external exams.	25.2	3	Promotion prospects	21.6
4	Influence of external exams.	20.2	4	Extent of non-prof.work.	22.8	4	Influence of external exams.	18.4
5	School/classroom accomod.	16.9	5	School/classroom accommod.	19.1	5	Pupil discipline	16.9
6	Promotion prospects	16.7	6	Textbooks	18.3	6	Extent of non-prof.work	15.7
7	Textbooks	16.1	7	Promotion prospects	17.2	7	School/classroom accommod.	15.4
8	Equipment	14.5	8	Staffroom accommodation	16.9	8	Inter-school consultation	15.0
9	Pupil discipline	13.9	9	Equipment	14.9	9	Equipment	12.9
10	Staffroom accommodation	13.5	10	Head-staff consultation	13.5	10	Interruptions to lessons	12.8

APPENDIX 4-B.

REASONS FOR TEACHER TURNOVER IN ENGLAND AND WALES, 1972/73.

Main reasons in order of frequency of mention (by "all" teachers in "all" LEAs)	No.of responding teachers on which based*
Promotion, career advancement etc.	910
Marriage, or to be with husband/wife.	709
Dissatisfaction with teaching or school.	661
Pregnancy	302
To widen experience	312
Move to another area	266
Personal reasons	209
End of temporary post	165
To travel	261
Different School in P and S	203
Housing difficulties	333
Redundancy/reorganization	131
Travelling difficulties	157
To pursue own education	172
To work outside teaching	137
Salary	179
To seek more responsibility	85
Giving up work, permanently/temporarily	63
Other reasons	48
To teach handicapped children	53
To teach outside P and S	44
Total respondents	5,400

Source: Department of Education and Science, Reports on Education, No.79 (May, 1974) p.4.

APPENDIX 5-A

The University of Hull
195 Cottingham Road
Hull   HU5 2EQ
England

28 November, 1978

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_____

_____

Dear Sir/Madam

<u>Evaluating the Proposed Items for a
Teacher Satisfaction Questionnaire.</u>

    I am a research student in Hull University. The purpose of this
particular exercise is to measure the meaning of certain job satisfaction
scales to various people by asking them to judge each of the items against
a series of criteria. Please I would like you to make your judgements
on the bases of the <u>clarity</u> and the <u>relevance</u> of each item in measuring
the job satisfaction of teachers in Nigeria.

    You are to rate each item-statement by circling one of : 0, 1, 2, or
3 in which case

        0 = <u>not at all clear and relevant</u> as a measure of
            teacher job satisfaction in Nigeria.

        1 = <u>slightly clear and somehow relevant</u> as a measure
            of teacher job satisfaction in Nigeria.

        2 = <u>quite clear and relevant</u> as a measure of
            teacher job satisfaction in Nigeria.

        3 = <u>extremely clear and very relevant</u> as a measure
            of teacher job satisfaction in Nigeria.

In addition you are to make your own comments after each item with regard
to the appropriateness of the bracketed scale in describing the item above
it.

    Please turn to the next page and begin. God bless.

                Yours sincerely,

                    Aloysius Ejiogu.

1. Satisfaction with the way and manner in which the state Education Services Board handles teachers' grievances and complaints
         (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

2. Satisfaction with the present system of promotion of teachers in the state
         (ADVANCEMENT)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

3. Satisfaction with your present salary especially when you compare it with what people in other jobs or professions with similar qualifications and working experience get
         (PAY)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

4. Satisfaction with teaching itself as a job
         (TEACHING ITSELF)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

5. Satisfaction with the way the State Ministry of Education formulates policies and regulations
         (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

6. Satisfaction with the contribution your teaching job makes to the progress of your state and the country as a whole
         (ACHIEVEMENT)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

7. Satisfaction with opportunities you have to participate in community affairs (political, quasi-political or non-political)
         (GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

8. Satisfaction with the amount of your annual salary increase
         (PAY)   0,   1,   2,   3.

         Comments

9. Satisfaction with the quantity and quality of
instructional materials and equipment you have in
your school
    (WORKING CONDITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

10. Satisfaction with the variety in your teaching
job.
    (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

11. Satisfaction with provisions of recreational
facilities, office accommodation or staff common room
    (WORKING CONDITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

12. Satisfaction with prospects of promotion
    (ADVANCEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

13. Satisfaction with the role of teachers in
influencing school policies and practices
    (ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

14. Satisfaction with the opportunity you are given to
try out new ideas and techniques in teaching
    (GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

15. Satisfaction with the progress that is being made in
education in the state
    (ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

16. Satisfaction with parents' appreciation of your
work with their children
    (RECOGNITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

17. Satisfaction with the overall quality of your school
building
    (WORKING CONDITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

18. Satisfaction with the way your headmaster or
principal and you understand each other
    (RAPPORT WITH SCHOOL HEAD)   0, 1, 2, 3.

    Comments

19. Satisfaction with the way you are noticed when you
do a good job
        (RECOGNITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

20. Satisfaction with the chance to be responsible for
planning your work such as daily lesson notes etc....
        (GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

21. Satisfaction with the amount of social position
in this state that goes with your job as teacher
        (RECOGNITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

22. Satisfaction with the way your teaching job
provides for a secure future
        (SECURITY)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

23. Satisfaction with the chances of getting ahead
in your job
        (ADVANCEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

24. Satisfaction with the opportunity in your teaching
job to stay busy most of the time
        (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

25. Satisfaction with your teaching load (i.e. with the
number of lessons and periods you have in a week)
        (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

26. Satisfaction with the chance you have as a teacher
to do new and original things on your own
        (GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

27. Satisfaction with the opportunity which you have in
your teaching job to develop close friendships with your
fellow teachers
        (RAPPORT AMONG TEACHERS)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

28. Satisfaction with the way you and your fellow
teachers are kept informed about educational policies
in the state
  (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

29. Satisfaction with the chance to be alone on the
job (i.e. having to do your classroom teaching independent
of your colleagues)
  (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

30. Satisfaction with the type of support you get from
your headmaster or principal any time you are in trouble
either with a parent or with a ministry/L.E.A./E.S.B.
official
  (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH THE SCHOOL HEAD)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

31. Satisfaction with your involvement in educational
abilities which allow you to develop academically and
prcfessionally
  (GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

32. Satisfaction with the number of professional
activities and conferences held annually and to which
you were invited
  (GROWTH)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

33. Satisfaction with the overall professional activities
of your teachers union (N.U.T.) in the state
  (GROWTH)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

34. Satisfaction with the lines and methods of
communication between the teachers in your school and
the principal or headmaster
  (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH SCHOOL HEAD)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

35. Satisfaction with your freedom of access to the
principal (headmaster) about problems of personal and
group welfare
  (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH SCHOOL HEAD)   0, 1, 2, 3.

  Comments

36.   Satisfaction with the degree of appreciation
your fellow teachers show to your performances
        (RAPPORT AMONG TEACHERS)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

37.   Satisfaction with your students' (pupils')
appreciation of the work you are doing for and with them
        (RECOGNITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

38.   Satisfaction with your extra-curricular load in
the school
        (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

39.   Satisfaction with library facilities and laboratory
equipment provided in your school
        (WORKING CONDITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

40.   Satisfaction with the way you are respected and
treated as a professional by the community in which your
school is situated
        (RECOGNITION)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

41.   Satisfaction with the activities of your school's
Parents-Teachers Association (PTA)
        (TEACHER-COMMUNITY RELATIONS)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

42.   Satisfaction with the type of learning activities
which you provide for your students or pupils
        (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

43.   Satisfaction with the way teachers in your state
are transferred from one school to another (i.e. with
regard to the frequency of such transfers
        (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

44.   Satisfaction with the degree of teachers' involvement
in admission of new pupils or students into your school
        (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0, 1, 2, 3.

        Comments

45. Satisfaction with the way the Education Service Board and the Ministry of Education in the State handle funds such as caution fees meant for running of the schools
    (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

46. Satisfaction with fringe benefits (e.g. car allowance rent subsidy, leave bonus) which you receive, especially when you compare it with what those with comparable qualifications and experience in other jobs get
    (PAY)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

47. Satisfaction with your principal's or headmaster's use of the individual teacher's capacity and talents
    (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH SCHOOL HEAD)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

48. Satisfaction with the school superintendent's visits to your class or school, bearing in mind the reasons for and outcomes of such visits
    (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH SUPERVISOR)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

49. Satisfaction with the school curriculum in terms of its content and the degree of flexibility it allows you as a teacher
    (TEACHING ITSELF)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

50. Satisfaction with the provisions and facilities for further education and in-service training of teachers in your state
    (GROWTH)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

51. Satisfaction with the speed and understanding with which your State Education Services Board or Local Education Authority responds to teachers', principal's and headmasters' requests for textbooks and instructional materials
    (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

52. Satisfaction with the extent of professional guidance you receive from your local superintendent of schools
    (TEACHER RAPPORT WITH SUPERVISOR)   0, 1, 2, 3.

Comments

53.   Satisfaction with the location of your school in terms
of its nearness to markets, churches, healthy source of
water supply and electricity
        (WORKING CONDITION)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

54.   Satisfaction with the amount of respect which is
accorded your principal or headmaster by parents and the
community as a whole
        (SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

55.   Satisfaction with the nature and frequency of
communication between your school and the Ministry of
Education/Education Services Board/Local Education
Authority
        (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

56.   Satisfaction with the way the state entrance
examinations into secondary schools and teachers' colleges
are organised
        (ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

57.   Satisfaction with the actual teacher - pupil ratio
as it is in your school today
        (WORKING CONDITION)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

58.   Satisfaction with the available chairs, desks,
blackboard (chalkboard) etc in your classroom
        (WORKING CONDITION)   0,   1,   2,   3.

        Comments

        Further Comments/Suggestions (if any) please:-

        Thank you very much for your invaluable contribution.

                        Aloy. M. Ejiogu.

APPENDIX 5-B.

EXPERTS' SCORING OF THE PROPOSED ITEMS FOR THE TEACHER SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

| Item Nos.* | Scores | | | | | | | | | | | Mean | Experts' Model |
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11**		Comments
1	3	3	3	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	3	2·3	
2	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2·9	
3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·8	
4	3	3	2	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·5	
5	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·8	Can't be easily
6	1	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	0·9	identified
7	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	
8	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·7	
9	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2·8	Applies mainly to
10	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1·4	factory hands.
11	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·7	
12	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	2·7	But duplicates No.2
13	3	3	2	1	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2·4	
14	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	2·3	
15	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	0	2	2	2	1·4	Not easy to identify
16	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2·9	
17	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·7	
18	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	
19	2	1	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	2	2	1·1	Ambiguous
20	3	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	2	3	2·1	
21	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2·5	
22	3	3	3	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	2·4	
23	2	1	1	0	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	1·4	Ambiguous
24	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	0·9	Irrelevant
25	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·4	
26	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2·5	
27	2	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·4	
28	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1·5	Not specific
29	3	3	3	2	2	3	1	3	2	3	3	2·5	
30	3	3	3	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2·6	
31	3	3	3	2	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	2·5	

* These numbers refer to the item numbering in Appendix F.

** Each column has been scored by a different expert.

APPENDIX 5-B (Contd).

Item Nos.*	Scores											Mean	Experts' Comments
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
32	3	3	2	2	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	2.5	Same as No.31
33	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2.6	but omit
34	3	3	2	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2.5	for no.35
35	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2.7	
36	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	2.4	
37	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2.7	
38	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	Ambiguous
39	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2.7	
40	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.9	
41	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2.5	
42	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1.5	Irrelevant
43	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	3	2.7	
44	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	2.7	
45	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.8	
46	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	2.4	
47	0	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1.0	Ambiguous
48	2	2	3	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	2	2.1	
49	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.9	
50	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2.4	
51	3	3	3	3	2	1	2	3	2	3	2	2.4	
52	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2.4	
53	2	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2.3	Does not relate
54	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	1.0	to the teacher directly
55	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1.1	Concerns the head
56	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	2.7	
57	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2.3	Affects the teachers very much
58	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.8	

* Item nos. are the same as those in Appendix F.

APPENDIX 5-C.

The University of Hull,
195 Cottingham Road,
HULL, HU5 2EQ, ENGLAND.

April, 1979.

Dear Colleague,

As a Nigerian teacher currently studying for a higher degree, I have become increasingly worried about the problem of job satisfaction of teachers in Nigeria. It is my intention, therefore, to investigate the extent to which we as teachers in Nigeria are satisfied or dissatisfied with our teaching career as well as to determine the factors that have given rise to such feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Quite a good number of researches have been conducted in this issue of job satisfaction of teachers in Europe and America. Although such researches may be relevant to us in Nigeria, I feel that similar studies conducted in Nigeria will be more meaningful to us, especially as our system of education and cultural values differ from those of the western industrialised countries.

I shall be very grateful if you could join me in this study by completing the attached questionnaire as honestly as you can. My purpose is to determine trends, differences and similarities and in no way do I want to study individual teachers or individual schools. Confidentiality and anonymity will be strictly maintained throughout this study. These precautions to protect your individual identity are taken because I want you to be frank and sincere in filling out the questionnaire.

I hope that the instructions at the beginning of each section of the questionnaire are clear and that they will enable you to respond appropriately.

As all returns will be anonymous, I take this opportunity to thank you for your much appreciated assistance. God bless.

Yours sincerely,

ALOYSIUS M. EJIOGU.

Enc.

TEACHER SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Instruction

Below you are asked for certain information about your own background. We need such personal information to be able to analyse opinions under various classifications of respondents. As already promised, all the information you give will remain anonymous and strictly confidential.

Please put an X in the appropriate box as it relates to you in each item.

DO NOT WRITE
IN THIS COLUMN

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

X01   Sex: (i) Male [ ] ;   (ii) Female [ ]

5 ___

X02   Age: (i) Below 30 [ ] ; (ii) 30-40 [ ] ;
(iii) Above 40

6 ___

X03   Marital Status: (i) Single [ ] ; (ii) Married [ ] ;

7 ___

X04   Educational Qualification: (i) Graduate with
teaching qualification [ ] ; (ii) Graduate
without teaching qualification [ ] ;
(iii) Teachers Certificate and Diploma [ ] ;
(iv) Others [ ]

8 ___

X05   Level of school in which you are teaching:
(i) Primary [ ] ; (ii) Secondary [ ] ;

9 ___

X06   No. of years of teaching: (i) 1-5 [ ] ;
(ii) 6-10 [ ] ; (iii) Above 10 [ ]

10 ___

X07   Your school location: (i) Rural [ ] ;
(ii) Urban [ ]

11 ___

X08   If you have a choice would you like to continue
teaching within this state school system? (i) Yes [ ] ;
(ii) No. [ ]

12 ___

X09   Do you ever feel yourself to be part of your state

school system?   (i) Yes ☐ ;   (ii) No. ☐

13 ⟶

PART 2: JOB SATISFACTION ITEMS

Instructions

This section is designed to give you an opportunity to express how you feel about your present job as a teacher, what things you are satisfied with and what things you are not satisfied with.

On the following pages you will find statements about your present job. Decide how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by each statement.

(a) If you feel that an aspect of your job gives you more satisfaction than you expected, put an X in the box under "Very Sat" (very satisfied).

(b) If you feel that a particular aspect gives you the satisfaction you expected, put an X in the box under "Sat" (satisfied) for that aspect of your job.

(c) If you cannot make up your mind whether or not the job gives you what you expected, put an X in the box under "N" (neither satisfied nor dissatisfied) for that aspect.

(d) If you feel that your job gives you less satisfaction than you expected, put an X in the box under "Dissat" (dissatisfied) for that aspect of your job.

(e) If you feel that an aspect of your job gives you much less satisfaction than you expected put an X in the box under "Very Dissat" (very dissatisfied) for that particular aspect.

You may think that some items are repeated a number of times. That is not necessarily so. Please try and respond to all the items.

ON MY PRESENT JOB AS A TEACHER
THIS IS HOW I FEEL ABOUT:-

	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
1. The instructional materials and equipment in my school ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	14 ——
2. The prestige which the teaching profession enjoys in this country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	15 ——
3. The number of pupils in my class (ie. my class size) ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	16 ——
4. My choice of teaching as a career	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	17 ——
5. The opportunity I am given to participate in community affairs (local, state or national) ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	18 ——
6. My salary when I compare it with the salaries of other people in other jobs and who have had similar years of schooling ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	19 ——
7. My physical work-environment, e.g. canteens, recreational facilities and staff common room	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	20 ——
8. The chances I have for promotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	21 ——
9. The amount of freedom I have to use my own judgement	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	22 ——
10. The way my headmaster/headmistress/ principal handles problems in the school	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	23 ——
11. The amount of my annual salary increase	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	24 ——
12. The role of teachers in influencing school policies and practice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	25 ——
13. The extent of the understanding between my headmaster/headmistress/ principal and me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	26 ——

Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat

ON MY PRESENT JOB AS A TEACHER
THIS IS HOW I FEEL ABOUT:-

	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
14. The overall quality of my school building	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	27 ———
15. Parents' appreciation of my work with their children ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	28 ———
16. The opportunity I have to try out new ideas and techniques in teaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	29 ———
17. The extent to which my teaching job provides for a secure future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	30 ———
18. The social position that goes with teaching in my state ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	31 ———
19. My teaching load (i.e. the number of lessons and periods I have in a week)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	32 ———
20. The opportunity I have to develop close friendships with other teachers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	33 ———
21. The degree of my involvement in educational activities such as seminars which could help me to develop academically and professionally	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	34 ———
22. The overall professional activities of the teachers' union (e.g. NU.T.) in my state	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	35 ———
23. The activities of my schools Parents-Teachers Association (P.T.A.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	36 ———
24. How the teachers in my state are transferred from one school to another	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	37 ———
25. The amount of respect and appreciation I get from other teachers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	38 ———
26. The extent of teachers' involvement in admitting new pupils or students to my school	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	39 ———·
	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat	

ON MY PRESENT JOB AS A TEACHER
THIS IS HOW I FEEL ABOUT:-

	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
27. My students' (or pupils') appreciation of the work I am doing for them	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	40 ———
28. The fringe benefits (e.g. car or motor cycle allowance, house rent subsidy, leave bonus) which I receive especially when I compare them with what others with comparable qualifications and experience get in other jobs..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	41 ———
29. The school curriculum in terms of the relevance of its content and the degree of flexibility which it allows me as a teacher ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	42 ———
30. The facilities for further education and in-service training of teachers in my state	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	43 ———
31. The extent of professional guidance which I receive from my local inspector or superintendent of schools	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	44 ———
32. The number and the conditions of available chairs, desks, blackboard etc. in my classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	45 ———
33. The location of my school in terms of its nearness to markets, churches, healthy water supply and electricity	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	46 ———
34. The Ministry of Education or School Board's handling of school funds such as caution fees and games' fees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	47 ———
35. The duration of my annual leave or holidays	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	48 ———
36. The amount of clerical work (e.g. filling forms and copying of documents) I am required to do...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	49 ———

	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat

ON MY PRESENT JOB AS A TEACHER
THIS IS HOW I FEEL ABOUT:-

	Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
37. The extent of professional guidance which I receive from my school headmaster/headmistress/ principal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	50 ____
38. All in all, considering both the pleasant and the unpleasant aspects of your job, how far satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your teaching job?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	51 ____
39. The degree of the understanding and respect between my pupils and me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	52 ____
40. The security of my job tenure within the state's teaching service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	53 ____
41. The performances of my School district inspector (i.e. his/her manner of school inspection) ..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	54 ____

| | Very Dissat | Dissat | N | Sat | Very Sat | |

42. Are you ever proud to be called a teacher? ☐ Yes; ☐ No   55 ____

43. Can the offer of a bit more money with another employer seriously make you think of changing your job? (i) Yes ☐ ; (ii) No ☐   56 ____

PART 3: WORK VALUES INVENTORY

Instruction

Below are 15 work value descriptions. Please indicate the absolute importance to you of each work value description by circling either 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 in each case.

5 = Very important
4 = Important
3 = Somewhat important
2 = Unimportant
1 = Very Unimportant.

Please begin.

How would you rate work in which you:-	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
WV1 Use your mind and learn new things?	5	4	3	2	1	57 ———
WV2 Create something new, develop new ideas or things?	5	4	3	2	1	58 ———
WV3 Organise and direct the activities of others?	5	4	3	2	1	59 ———
WV4 See that you have accomplished something?	5	4	3	2	1	60 ———
WV5 Find the work environment to your liking?	5	4	3	2	1	61 ———
WV6 Have a superior or boss you can get along with?	5	4	3	2	1	62 ———
WV7 Find a way of life that is right for you?	5	4	3	2	1	63 ———
WV8 Are you sure of a job even in hard times?	5	4	3	2	1	64 ———
WV9 Enjoy being with your colleagues?	5	4	3	2	1	65 ———
WV10 Make something aesthetically pleasing?	5	4	3	2	1	66 ———

How would you rate work in which you:-	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	DO NOT WRITE IN THIS COLUMN
WV11 Are respected by others?	5	4	3	2	1	67
WV12 Do things your own way?	5	4	3	2	1	68
WV13 Have plenty of variety?	5	4	3	2	1	69
WV14 Are paid enough to live well?	5	4	3	2	1	70
WV15 Can benefit and help others?	5	4	3	2	1	71

WV16 If it were possible for you to start all over again, what job would you go in for? _____

APPENDIX 6-A.

TEACHERS WORK VALUES AND JOB ATTITUDES INTERVIEW OUTLINE.

Introduction (to be memorized and spoken in a very conversational
manner).

My name is Aloysius Ejiogu from The University of Hull in England.
Did you have the opportunity to fill out the job satisfaction
questionnaire which I sent round some months ago? I was really
encouraged by the responses I got and I am indeed grateful to everyone
of you teachers in this state.

This interview is the second part of the survey. I hope you will
be free to discuss with me most of the issues which affect you as a
teacher in this state. Rest assured, I'm not going to quote you
personally; whatever you say is strictly confidential. I shall merely
add up all the opinions I hear from the teachers as a group and summarize
them in order to simply have a general overall picture of teacher morale
in Imo State.

Although I shall be asking most of the questions, please feel very
free to ask me questions or raise any issue which though important I
might forget to mention.

Before I begin to ask my own questions, is there anything you want to
ask or tell me with regard to the teaching job here?

Shall we start?

Thank you.

APPENDIX 6-A (continued)

Teachers Work Values and Job Attitudes

Interview Outline

1. In what year were you born?

2. Are you married? How many children?

3. At what point did you make the definite decision to enter teaching?

4. What were the major attractions that teaching held for you at the time you decided to become a teacher?

5. What persons do you think influenced you in your decision to become a teacher? (Probes: Family .... Teachers ..... Others).

6. In what ways is teaching different from what you expected when you decided to enter it? (How is it better or worse than what you expected?)

7. Of the various things you do as a teacher which do you consider to be the most important?

8. To what extent are you free to do the above more or less as you think best?

9. Please recall some occasions when you felt especially proud of yourself as a teacher. Please tell me about it.

10. We hear a lot these days about the problems teachers have, but still there are thousands of people entering teaching in Nigeria. What do you think attracts and holds them in teaching?

11. As far as you personally are concerned, what are the really important satisfactions which you receive in your work as a teacher?

12. Of those you have mentioned which do you feel is the most important satisfaction?

13. Which of these statements (hand card to respondents) comes closest to describing your feelings about teaching?

    (a) I am extremely satisfied with teaching as my occupation.
    (b) I am more satisfied than not with teaching as my occupation.
    (c) I am equally satisfied and dissatisfied - I guess I'm in the middle.
    (d) I am more dissatisfied than satisfied with teaching as my occupation
    (e) I am extremely dissatisfied with teaching as my occupation.

14. Can you think of any changes, of any kind, which might increase your satisfaction with teaching as an occupation?

15. What do you think you lose by being a teacher rather than in some other occupation?

16. What are the little things that irritate you in your work?

17. Some people think that a school should be operated like a well-run business or government agency where everyone's responsibility is clearly stated and the lines of authority are sharp and clear. Others think that schools should be organized loosely and that relationships among members of the staff should tend toward equality rather than differences in authority. Which of these two views comes closer to being yours?

    (a) Stated responsibility and clear authority?
        or
    (b) Looser organization tending to equality?

18. In one research project it was found that teachers consider the principal as an important factor in choosing between possible positions. What questions would you ask about the principal if you were considering working in a new school?

19. If you had to start all over again, what occupation would you choose?

20. If you had the opportunity to bring about change in our state school system what single change would you most like to see brought about?

    THANK YOU VERY MUCH.

APPENDIX 6-AI

Dept. of Adult Education
The University
Hull.

13th December, 1979.

Dear Aloy,

The scholarships Committee has awarded you the sum of £150.

towards the cost of your research visit to Nigeria. You will receive

official notification shortly. Best wishes.

Yours sincerely,

(Sgd)

Professor Bernard Jennings.

The University of Hull

195 Cottingham Road, Hull, HU5 2EQ.

Department of Adult Education

Gwyn Harries-Jenkins,LLB MA M.Phil

Secretary: (0482) 46311 ext.7415

APPENDIX 6-B.

6th February, 1980.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

Not long ago we distributed some questionnaires to teachers in the Imo State of Nigeria school system, the purpose of which was to ascertain what areas of the teaching job are satisfying or dissatisfying to them. We are indeed grateful to you and your teachers for the wonderful co-operation we received.

We now want to follow that up with personal interviews of some randomly selected teachers in order to corroborate the data we got from the former exercise.

It will be appreciated if you would give Mr.Aloy Ejiogu, for whom this is part of his Ph.D. programme,your usual co-operation. Again we assure you of the anonymous nature of our data treatment. Once again, we are grateful for your co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

(Signed)

Dr.G.Harries-Jenkins.

APPENDIX 6-C.

A MODEL ADDRESS TO THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE SURVEY.

Dear Colleagues,

As you must have been informed, I am here representing Mr.Aloysius M.Ejiogu, one of our sons studying in England. Mr.Ejiogu who was once a teacher among us is still interested in us and how we feel about our jobs in the state. He has demonstrated that interest by choosing for his thesis a topic that concerns us all. The questionnaire before you is designed to enable us to say without fear or favour how satisfied or dissatisfied we are with the various aspects of our jobs as teachers. It includes such dimensions as our actual teaching job, our pay, our principals or headmasters, the state Ministry and/or Board of Education and many other things connected with our work. He has also promised to make a copy of his research findings available to our employers who ought to know how we feel with the various aspects of our job. Abstracts of the findings will also be left with our Central Library for our information too.

You are requested to answer all the questions. You must NOT sign your name nor write the name of your school or college on any part of the questionnaire. So please feel free to be completely honest; Mr. Ejiogu has no desire to find out any particular individual's answers.

No one in this school will ever see the completed questionnaires you turn in. As soon as you finish, seal your questionnaire with the sellotape on this table and return it to this card box (show it) from which I will collect them to be mailed to Mr.Ejiogu later. As I shall not be here by the time you are through with the questionnaires, may I, on behalf of Mr.Ejiogu, thank you all for your cooperation.

Are there any issues on which you need some clarification? (Pause...) In the absence of any question, you can take it away toyour own room or to any quiet corner of your choice.

Thank you.

(Leave the staff room and return to collect the completed questionnaires the next day).

A FURTHER BREAKDOWN OF THE COMPOSITION OF THE DATA-PRODUCING SAMPLE (N=797)

Variable Cells	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Male (N=432)			248*	184	113	319	233	199	199	152	81	281	151	126	164	142
2. Female (N=365)			203	160	59	306	223	142	159	146	60	215	150	186	117	62
3. Single (N=451)					76	375	292	159	270	126	55	274	177	253	90	108
4. Married (N=346)					96	250	164	182	88	172	86	222	124	59	191	96
5. Graduates (N=172)							2	170	49	92	31	104	68	38	92	42
6. Non-graduates (N=625)							454	171	309	206	110	392	233	274	289	162
7. Primary (N=456)									283	113	60	302	154	215	118	123
8. Secondary (N=341)									75	185	81	194	147	97	163	81
9. Below 5 years Experience (N=358)												211	147	177	98	83
10. 6-10 years Experience (N=298)												188	110	97	155	46
11. Above 10 years Experience (N=141)												97	44	38	28	75
12. Rural (N=496)														189	175	132
13. Urban (N=301)														123	106	72
14. Below 30 years of Age (N=312)														-	-	-
15. 30 years+, age (N=281)														-	-	-
16. Above 40 years age (N=204)														-	-	-

*These figures represent the number of subjects in each cell.

APPENDIX 7-B.

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE ITEMS IN EACH SATISFACTION SCALE.

Scale	No. of Items	Lowest Correlation Coefficient	Level of Significance
1. Pay	2	0.7213	0.001
2. Fringe Benefits	2	0.4539	0.001
3. Central Administrative Policies	3	0.4211	0.001
4. Growth and Advancement	5	0.5930	0.001
5. Recognition and Status	4	0.4862	0.001
6. Teacher-School Head Relations	3	0.7342	0.001
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services	4	0.7011	0.001
8. Work Load	3	0.4746	0.001
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations	2	0.4658	0.001
10. Teacher-Parents Relations	2	0.6234	0.001
11. School Neighbourhood	3	0.8074	0.001
12. Career Satisfaction	2	0.8926	0.001
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations	2	0.5735	0.001
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations	2	0.7218	0.001
15. Job Security	2	0.8672	0.001.

MATRIX OF CORRELATIONS AMONG THE JOB SATISFACTION SCALES.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Pay	–														
2. Fringe Benefits	·4725														
3. Central Admin. Policies	·0695	·1503													
4. Growth & Advancement	·2814	·2699	·2064												
5. Recognition & Status	·1421	·1525	·0495	·3775											
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	·4004	·1591	·0517	·1541	·2045										
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services	·2876	·2581	·2045	·6482	·4372	·0056									
8. Work Load	·1853	·1531	·2166	·0054	·2776	·0591	·0287								
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations	·1716	·0129	·2245	·2130	·1157	·0480	·1825	·0192							
10. Teacher-Parent Relations	·1905	·0720	·1915	·2464	·2528	·3363	·0452	·2040	·1151						
11. School Neighbourhood	·1040	·1490	·3001	·2966	·0953	·1053	·4391	·0386	·1026	·0988					
12. Career Satisfaction	·6393	·4420	·1953	·1247	·0336	·3429	·0448	·3192	·1567	·1373	·0271				
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations	·0604	·0729	·2116	·0410	·1102	·0177	·1268	·0623	·0300	·0736	·2221	·0014			
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations	·4087	·1411	·0072	·1790	·2745	·4442	·2350	·1719	·2799	·2057	·1514	·3353	·0318		
15. Job Security	·4815	·3872	·1556	·2248	·0021	·2546	·0105	·3492	·2677	·3194	·0871	·6720	·0541	·4337	–

THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE WORK VALUES INVENTORY (W.V.I.) SCALES.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Intellectual Stimulation															
2. Creativity	.5038														
3. Management	.4371	.2920													
4. Achievement	-.3075	.2041	-.323$												
5. Surroundings	.2678	.0810*	-.4872	.2843											
6. Relationship with Superior	.3272	.0745*	-.3519	.1853	.2666										
7. Way of Life	.1530	-.2662	.2228	.0002*	.1537	-.0972*									
8. Security	-.4845	-.3343	.5774	.2231	.2762	.4679	.3900								
9. Associates	.5472	.1807	-.5454	.3009	.4530	.3055	-.1348	.5152							
10. Aesthetics	.2002	.0733	-.3723	.3217	.5348	.1209	.2242	.2376	.3653						
11. Prestige	.5161	-.2916	.3166	.2076	.5380	.4211	-.0889	.4682	.4462	-.4169					
12. Independence	.2282	.1097	.1095	.0164*	.0217*	-.0562*	.2240	.0581*	.0163	.0563*	.4638				
13. Variety	.5048	.2386	.0366*	.0161*	.1248	.1476	.1638	-.2355	.2855	.2200	.4694	.3861			
14. Economic Returns	-.1727	.0153*	.1305	-.2197	-.3034	-.2041	-.4884	.1188	-.1648	-.1905	.2425	.2831	.2006		
15. Altruism	.2282	.0189*	-.1308	.1082	.3657	.1675	.2556	.0089*	.2005	.4736	-.1949	.0382	.1938	-.1013	

*The Relationship is not statistically significant even at the 0·05 level.

APPENDIX 7-E

A RANK ORDERING OF THE WVI SCALES IN THEIR ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

AS RATED BY THE TEACHERS.

WVI Scales	Mean*	Standard Deviation
1. Economic Returns.	4·361	0·622
2. Relations with Superior.	4·159	0·711
3. Achievement.	4·157	0·802
4. Prestige.	4·046	0·822
5. Creativity.	3·971	0·964
6. Intellectual Stimulation.	3·969	0·912
7. Independence.	3·793	0·965
8. Surroundings.	3·745	0·903
9. Way of Life.	3·655	1·140
10. Associates.	3·616	1·010
11. Variety.	3·563	1·130
12. Aesthetics	3·124	1·259
13. Altruism.	3·087	0·896
14. Security.	3·051	1·176
15. Management.	2·847	1·162

*The higher the mean score, the higher the rank of the related scale.

APPENDIX 7-F.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION
OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale	Male (N=432)		Female (N=365)			
	MEAN	SD.	MEAN	S.D.	T.Value	*
1. Pay.	1.7986	0.549	2.7795	0.575	24. 58	0.0001
2. Fringe Benefits.	2.7546	0.367	3.2630	0.465	17. 24	0.0001
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1.6142	0.530	1.6995	0.529	2. 27	0.024
4. Growth and Advancement.	1.4907	0.349	1.7008	0.389	8. 04	0.001
5. Recognition and Status.	1.1678	0.331	1.1555	0.209	0. 62	0.538
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	2.9699	0.566	3.5078	0.031	13. 10	0.001
7. Curriculum and Instructional Services.	1.3860	0.359	1.4726	0.387	3. 27	0.001
8. Work Load.	1.1466	0.241	1.3096	0.347	7. 80	0.001
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3.4630	0.443	3.6205	0.026	4. 78	0.001
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2.5312	0.601	3.0562	0.583	12. 45	0.001
11. School Neighbourhood.	1.8349	0.971	2.2347	1.223	5. 14	0.001
12. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1.1968	0.398	1.1753	0.447	0. 72	0.475
13. Career Satisfaction.	2.1285	0.316	3.0466	0.514	30. 85	0.0001
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations	3.0093	0.528	3.6164	0.603	15. 16	0.001
15. Job Security	2.0926	0.657	3.8712	0.359	46. 19	0.0001
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2.0390	0.143	2.5006	0.160	43. 02	0.0001

*Statistical level of significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees of
freedom.

APPENDIX 7-G.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF VARIOUS

AGE GROUPS OF TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scales	Below 30 yrs. (N=312)		30-40 yrs (N=281)		Above 40 yrs (N=204)		F ratio	*
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1. Pay.	2·360	0·75	2·295	0·74	2·009	0·68	15·107	0·000
2. Fringe Benefits.	3·009	0·51	3·012	0·45	2·919	0·49	2·727	0·064
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·588	0·48	1·640	0·45	1·773	0·57	7·784	0·001
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·564	0·35	1·732	0·41	1·422	0·31	44·396	0·000
5. Recognition and Status.	1·120	0·18	1·271	0·39	1·076	0·16	37·185	0·000
6. Teacher School Head Relations.	3·340	0·68	3·081	0·58	3·212	0·61	12·721	0·000
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services.	1·386	0·34	1·562	0·44	1·298	0·26	35·080	0·000
8. Work Load.	1·207	0·28	1·236	0·32	1·222	0·32	0·660	0·521
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·577	0·45	3·616	0·47	3·360	0·46	20·401	0·000
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·822	0·53	2·781	0·75	2·681	0·65	2·973	0·050
11. School Neighbourhood.	2·120	1·18	2·049	1·12	1·820	0·97	4·689	0·010
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·583	0·61	2·555	0·64	2·488	0·60	1·489	0·225
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·183	0·46	1·206	0·41	1·167	0·37	0·552	0·578
14. Teacher-pupil Relations.	3·417	0·59	3·349	0·58	3·005	0·70	29·582	0·000
15. Job Security.	3·237	0·90	2·883	0·93	2·436	1·18	40·418	0·000
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·301	0·276	2·284	0·261	2·126	0·254	30·392	0·0001

*Statistical level of significance at 795 degrees of freedom.

APPENDIX 7-H.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF THE

SINGLE AND THE MARRIED TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale.	Single (N=451)		Married (N=346)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T-value	*
1. Pay.	2·3149	0·504	2·1613	0·969	2·89	0·004
2. Fringe Benefits.	3.000	0·465	2·9709	0·513	0·83	0·404
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·5580	0·466	1·7820	0·582	6·02	0·001
4. Growth and Advancements.	1·5171	0·356	1·6773	0·397	5·98	0·001
5. Recognition and Status.	1·1197	0·229	1·2187	0·331	4·98	0·001
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·2749	0·608	3·1405	0·667	2·96	0·003
7. Curriculum & Instructional Service.	1·3786	0·330	1·4884	0·419	4·13	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·2158	0·329	1·2297	0·270	0·63	0·527
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·5366	0·496	3·5334	0·437	0·09	0·925
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·7472	0·507	2·8052	0·796	1·25	0·212
11. School Neighbourhood.	1.9860	1·099	2·0523	1·126	0·83	0·404
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·5322	0·654	2·5741	0·574	0·95	0·345
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·1419	0·349	1·2471	0·495	3·51	0·001
14. Teacher-pupil Relations.	3·2550	0·029	3·3314	0·675	1·67	0·095
15. Job Security.	2·8404	1·088	3·000	0·052	2·15	0·032
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·2279	0·263	2·2808	0·288	2·70	0·007

*Statistical level of Significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees of freedom.

APPENDIX 7-J.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF

GRADUATE AND NON-GRADUATE TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale.	Graduates** (N = 172)		Non-Graduates (N = 625)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T-Value	*
1. Pay.	2·2413	0·792	2·2496	0·731	0·13	0·897
2. Fringe Benefits.	3·1250	0·430	2·9496	0·020	4·24	0·001
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·6880	0·597	1·6437	0·512	0·97	0·334
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·9686	0·416	1·4819	0·296	17·36	0·001
5. Recognition and Status.	1·3343	0·449	1·1148	0·189	9·54	0·001
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	2·8178	0·410	3·3259	0·644	9·81	0·001
7. Curriculum & Instructional Service.	1·6977	0·574	1·3508	0·250	11·63	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·3256	0·320	1·1925	0·294	5·15	0·001
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·6919	0·476	3·4920	0·460	5·01	0·001
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·4942	0·565	2·8480	0·649	6·51	0·001
11. School Neighbourhood.	2·2384	1·087	1·9573	0·044	2·95	0·003
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·5174	0·609	2·5576	0·623	0·75	0·452
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·3953	0·490	1·1296	0·381	7·59	0·001
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·2326	0·652	3·3024	0·635	1·27	0·205
15. Job Security.	2·9012	0·903	2·9088	1·074	0·09	0·932
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION.	2·3113	0·269	2·2336	0·275	3·30	0·001

* Statistical level of Significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees of
  freedom.

** These include the holders of Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) and
   Diploma in Education.

APPENDIX 7-K.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF VARIOUS

EXPERIENCE-GROUPS OF TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scales.	Below 5 years (N=358)		5-10 years (N-298)		Above 10 years (N=141)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F ratio	*
1. Pay.	2·321	0.60	2·107	0·79	2·360	0·91	8·766	0·000
2. Fringe Benefits.	2·958	0·44	2·977	0·51	3·085	0·54	3·601	0·027
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·594	0·51	1·714	0·60	1·676	0·40	4·318	0·014
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·558	0·42	1·658	0·33	1·509	0·36	9·341	0·000
5. Recognition and Status.	1·130	0·23	1·188	0·31	1·197	0·33	4·301	0·014
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·475	0·55	2·974	0·61	3·071	0·65	63·354	0·000
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services.	1·448	0·37	1·365	0·37	1·498	0·38	7·293	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·160	0·29	1·263	0·32	1·288	0·27	13·819	0·000
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·426	0·47	3·713	0·41	3·436	0·47	37·209	0·000
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·964	0·55	2·690	0·74	2·457	0·50	37·939	0·000
11. School Neighbourhood.	2·102	1·15	1·994	1·06	1·856	1·10	2·592	0·074
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·542	0·55	2·571	0·66	2·549	0·62	0·342	0·676
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·159	0·40	1·171	0·38	1·291	0·54	5·330	0·005
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·299	0·61	3·326	0·62	3·177	0·73	2·690	0·067
15. Job Security.	2·751	1·04	3·222	0·83	2·638	1·26	23·659	0·000
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·259	0·289	2·262	0·240	2·204	0·304	2·504	0·080

* Statistical level of significance with 795 degrees of freedom.

APPENDIX 7-L.

SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE TEACHERS'WORK VALUE ORIENTATIONS.

Work Value Scales	Mean for Men (N=432)	Mean for Women (N=365)	T Value	Statistical Level of Significance (df = 795)
Intellectual Stimulation.	3·8449	4·1151	4·21	*
Creativity.	3·9282	4·0219	1·37	0·172
Management (Leadership).	2·1808	3·4097	17·49	*
Achievement.	3·9352	4·4192	8·90	*
Surroundings.	3·0602	4·5562	41·28	*
Relationship with Superior.	4·0370	4·3041	5·37	*
Way of Life.	3·4282	3·9233	6·25	*
Security.	3·3125	2·7425	7·02	*
Associates.	3·2014	4·1068	14·08	*
Aesthetics.	2·3426	4·0493	25·84	*
Prestige.	4·2106	3·8521	6·29	*
Independence.	3·8426	3·7342	1·58	0·114
Variety.	3·5231	3·6110	1·09	0·275
Economic Returns.	4·5324	4·1589	8·85	*
Altruism.	2·7060	3·5370	14·70	*

* Statistically significant at better than the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX 7-M.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS WORK VALUES AS
PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS.

Work Value Scales.	Below 30 years (N=312)		30-40 years (N=281)		Above 40 years (N=204)		F ratio	*
	Mean		Mean		Mean			
1. Intellectual Stimulation.	4·702	0·55	3·840	0·58	3·025	0·77	456·709	0·000
2. Creativity.	4·321	0·49	4·189	1·06	3·137	0·88	140·212	0·000
3. Management (Leadership).	2·128	0·73	2·708	0·95	4·137	0·87	353·139	0·000
4. Achievement.	4·417	0·58	4·139	0·83	3·784	0·89	42·512	0·000
5. Surroundings.	4·045	0·90	3·619	0·95	3·461	0·69	32·392	0·000
6. Relations with Superior.	4·570	0·59	3·947	0·52	3·824	0·81	111·748	0·000
7. Way of Life.	3·350	1·28	3·488	1·06	4·352	0·60	60·320	0·000
8. Security.	2·215	0·75	2·961	0·76	4·456	0·83	517·750	0·000
9. Associates.	4·365	0·89	3·374	0·58	2·804	0·85	266·355	0·000
10. Aesthetics.	3·436	1·14	3·090	1·13	2·696	1·47	22·615	0·000
11. Prestige.	3·519	0·84	4·238	0·50	4·588	0·66	163·844	0·000
12. Independence.	3·811	0·97	3·940	0·92	3·564	0·98	9·242	0·000
13. Variety.	3·920	1·29	3·605	0·92	2·961	0·85	50·279	0·000
14. Economic Returns.	4·266	0·75	4·416	0·49	4·431	0·55	6·135	0·003
15. Altruism.	3·032	0·79	3·167	0·82	3·059	1·12	1·819	0·161

APPENDIX 7-N.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE SINGLE AND MARRIED TEACHERS'

WORK VALUE ORIENTATIONS.

Work Value Scales	Mean for the Single Teachers. (N=451)	Mean for the married Teachers. (N=344)	T value	Statistical Level of Significance (df = 795)
Intellectual Stimulation.	4·1508	3·7297	6·61	*
Creativity.	4·1570	3·8248	4·88	*
Management (Leadership).	2·6785	3·0552	4·60	*
Achievement.	4·1707	4·1395	0·54	0·587
Surroundings.	3·7583	3·7326	0·40	0·691
Relationships With Superior.	4·4191	3·8198	12·93	*
Way of Life.	3·6874	3·6105	0·94	0·347
Security.	2·8825	3·2616	4·57	*
Associates.	3·9180	3·2297	10·13	*
Aesthetics.	3·1552	3·0901	0·72	0·471
Prestige.	3·7805	4·3895	11·13	*
Independence.	3·7805	3·8023	0·32	0·752
Variety.	3·6940	3·3953	3·72	*
Economic Returns.	4·3171	4·4157	2·22	0·027
Altruism.	3·0222	3·1715	2·33	0·020

* Statistically significant at, or better than, the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX 7-P.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE GRADUATE AND NON-GRADUATE

TEACHERS' PERCEIVED WORK VALUES IMPORTANCE.

Work Value Scales	Graduate Mean (N = 172)	Non-Graduate Mean (N = 625)	T value	Statistical level of significance (df = 795)
Intellectual Stimulation.	3·9904	3·8895	1·28	0·199
Creativity.	3·9302	3·9824	0·63	0·530
Management (Leadership).	3·1744	2·7568	4·22	*
Achievement.	4·0174	4·1952	2·58	0·010
Surroundings.	3·6919	3·7600	0·88	0·381
Relationship with Superior.	4·1860	4·1520	0·56	0·579
Way of Life.	3·6105	3·6672	0·58	0·564
Security.	2·8721	3·1008	2·26	0·024
Associates.	3·2093	3·7280	6·10	*
Aesthetics.	2·7500	3·2272	4·45	*
Prestige.	4·1395	4·0208	1·68	0·093
Independence.	4·9244	3·4816	22·03	*
Variety.	3·6279	3·5456	0·85	0·398
Economic Returns.	4·1395	4·4224	5·37	*
Altruism.	2·7151	3·1888	6·29	*

* Statistically significant at, or better than, the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX 7-Q.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE AMOUNT OF IMPORTANCE ATTACHED TO

VARIOUS WORK VALUES BY TEACHERS WITH VARIOUS YEARS OF EXPERIENCE.

Work Value Scales	Under 5 Years (N=358)		5-10 yrs. (N=298)		Above 10 years (N=141)		F ratio	*
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1. Intellectual Stimulation.	4·173	0·98	3·940	0·80	3·511	0·79	28·811	0·000
2. Creativity.	3·980	0·88	4·017	1·03	3·851	1·02	1·445	0·235
3. Management (Leadership).	2·824	1·00	2·722	1·15	3·170	1·47	7·376	0·001
4. Achievement.	4·190	0·71	3·966	0·90	4·475	0·69	28·821	0·000
5. Surroundings.	3·766	0·97	3·758	0·86	3·667	0·83	0·653	0·525
6. Relations with Superior.	4·397	0·61	4·050	0·69	3·787	0·78	47·729	0·000
7. Way of Life.	3·799	1·67	3·621	1·15	3·362	1·40	7·785	0·001
8. Security.	2·992	1·10	2·873	1·60	3·582	1·24	19·067	0·000
9. Associates.	3·802	1·09	3·507	0·95	3·376	0·82	12·099	0·000
10. Aesthetics.	3·224	1·16	3·054	1·37	3·021	1·24	2·055	0·127
11. Prestige.	3·774	0·82	4·232	0·78	4·348	0·70	40·390	0·000
12. Independence.	3·799	0·88	3·896	1·00	3·560	1·04	5·878	0·003
13. Variety.	3·816	1·16	3·487	1·08	3·085	1·13	23·504	0·000
14. Economic Returns.	4·279	0·74	4·376	0·49	4·539	0·50	9·128	0·000
15. Altruism.	3·084	0·79	3·084	1·04	3·099	0·82	0·017	0·182

* Statistical levels of significance.

APPENDIX 7-R.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION

OF RURAL AND URBAN TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale	Rural Teachers (N = 496)		Urban Teachers (N = 301)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T.Value	*
1. Pay.	2·22	0·78	2·29	0·68	1·37	0·172
2. Fringe Benefits.	2·94	0·50	3·07	0·45	3·68	0·001
3. Central Administrative Policies.	0·81	0·59	1·39	0·26	11·76	0·001
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·54	0·36	1·66	0·40	4·52	0·001
5. Recognition and Status.	1·18	0·28	1·14	0·28	1·70	0·089
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·15	0·69	3·32	0·53	3·65	0·001
7. Curriculum & Instructional Service.	1·33	0·31	1·58	0·42	9·37	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·26	0·34	1·16	0·23	4·43	0·001
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·5081	0·46	3·58	0·49	2·09	0·037
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·74	0·03	2·82	0·67	1·66	0·096
11. School Neighbourhood.	1·22	0·37	3·33	0·52	66·91	0·0001
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·61	0·65	2·45	0·031	3·65	0·001
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·27	0·49	1·06	0·23	7·02	0·001
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·27	0·59	3·30	0·71	0·74	0·457
15. Job Security.	3·94	1·03	2·86	1·06	0·99	0·323
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·199	0·260	2·335	0·279	6·94	0·0001

* Statistical level of significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees

of freedom.

APPENDIX 7-S.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale	Primary Teachers (N=456)		Secondary Teachers (N=341)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T value	*
1. Pay.	2·27	0·68	2·21	0·82	1·15	0·249
2. Fringe Benefits.	2·89	0·47	3·12	0·47	6·78	0·001
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·61	0·53	1·71	0·53	2·78	0·006
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·45	0·29	1·77	0·41	12·75	0·001
5. Recognition and Status.	1·10	0·18	1·24	0·36	6·98	0·001
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·50	0·58	2·83	0·49	17·34	0·001
7. Curriculum & Instructional Service.	1·32	0·20	1·57	0·49	9·61	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·15	0·28	1·32	0·31	8·11	0·001
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·52	0·46	3·56	0·49	0·84	0·401
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	3·00	0·63	2·46	0·54	12·89	0·001
11. School Neighbourhood.	1·85	1·06	2·25	1·14	5·12	0·001
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·55	0·60	2·55	0·65	0·09	0·925
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·16	0·43	1·22	0·41	1·74	0·081
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·40	0·55	3·13	0·71	6·07	0·001
15. Job Security.	2·92	1·10	2·89	0·95	0·30	0·765
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·247	0·26	2·254	0·30	0·40	0·692

* Statistical level of significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees of

freedom.

APPENDIX 7-T.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS WORK VALUES AS
PERCEIVED BY PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS.

Work Value Scales.	Primary Teachers Mean (N=456)	Secondary Teachers Mean (N=341)	T value	Statistical level of Significance
Intellectual Stimulation.	43·8768	4·0373	2·46	0·014
Creativity.	4·0088	3·9208	1·27	0·203
Management (Leadership).	2·8092	2·8974	1·06	0·290
Achievement.	4·1075	4·2229	2·02	0·044
Surroundings.	3·7083	3·7947	1·34	0·182
Relationship with Superior.	4·1930	4·1144	1·55	0·123
Way of Life.	3·6732	3·6305	0·52	0·601
Security.	3·0526	3·0499	0·03	0·974
Associates.	3·8202	3·3431	6·78	*
Aesthetics.	3·3070	2·8798	4·80	*
Prestige.	3·9123	4·2258	5·42	*
Independence.	3·6140	4·0323	6·20	*
Variety.	3·6184	3·4897	1·59	0·112
Economic Returns.	4·3947	4·3167	1·75	0·080
Altruism.	3·1952	2·9413	3·99	*

* Statistically significant at, or better than, the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX 7-U.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION OF THE

"COMMITTED" AND THE "NON-COMMITTED" TEACHERS.

Job Satisfaction Scale	Committed (N=306)		"Non-Committed" (N=491)			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	T value	*
1. Pay.	2·43	0·82	2·14	0·67	5·45	0·001
2. Fringe Benefits.	3·05	0·55	2·95	0·44	2·91	0·004
3. Central Administrative Policies.	1·76	0·58	1·58	0·49	4·74	0·001
4. Growth and Advancement.	1·51	0·32	1·63	0·41	4·40	0·001
5. Recognition and Status.	1·30	0·25	1·18	0·30	2·82	0·005
6. Teacher-School Head Relations.	3·35	0·64	3·13	0·62	4·82	0·001
7. Curriculum & Instructional Services.	1·34	0·28	1·48	0·41	5·34	0·001
8. Work Load.	1·24	0·30	1·21	0·31	1·67	0·096
9. Teacher-Teacher Relations.	3·45	0·46	3·59	0·47	3·95	0·001
10. Teacher-Parent Relations.	2·76	0·58	2·78	0·69	0·35	0·726
11. School Neighbourhood,	1·99	1·07	2·03	1·13	0·64	0·519
12. Career Satisfaction.	2·78	0·65	2·41	0·56	8·33	0·001
13. Teacher-Inspector Relations.	1·18	0·46	1·19	0·40	0·21	0·835
14. Teacher-Pupil Relations.	3·39	0·74	3·22	0·56	3·57	0·001
15. Job Security.	3·09	1·11	2·79	0·98	3·99	0·001
16. OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION	2·297	0·267	2·221	0·276	3·77	0·0001

* Statistical level of Significance (2-tail probability) with 795 degrees of freedom.

APPENDIX 7-V.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS WORK VALUES AS

PERCEIVED BY THE 'COMMITTED' AND THE 'NON-COMMITTED' TEACHERS.

Work Value Scales	'Committed' Teachers' Mean (N=306)	'Non-Committed' Teachers' Mean. (N=491)	T value	Statistical level of Significance.
Intellectual Stimulation.	3·6013	4·1976	9·46	*
Creativity.	3·7190	4·1283	5·95	*
Management (Leadership)	3·1993	2·6273	6·96	*
Achievement.	3·9967	4·2566	4·51	*
Surroundings.	4·0490	3·5560	7·77	*
Relationship with Superior.	4·2648	3·9902	5·39	*
Way of Life.	3·9150	3·4929	5·17	*
Security.	3·6373	2·6864	12·07	*
Associates.	3·4248	3·7352	4·26	*
Aesthetics.	3·3170	3·0041	3·43	0·001
Prestige.	4·3268	3·8717	7·89	*
Independence.	3·5098	3·9695	6·72	*
Variety.	3·2353	3·7678	6·64	*
Economic Returns.	4·4216	4·3238	2·16	0·031
Altruism.	3·3137	2·9450	5·76	*

* Statistically significant at better than the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX 7-W.

STATISTICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN TEACHERS IN THEIR

WORK VALUE ORIENTATIONS.

Work Value Scales	Rural Mean (N=496)	Urban Mean (N=301)	T value	Statistical level of Significance (df=795)
Intellectual Stimulation.	3·9032	4·0764	2·61	0·009
Creativity.	3·9335	4·0332	1·42	0·157
Management (Leadership).	2·8085	2·9103	1·20	0·231
Achievement.	4·1552	4·1595	0·07	0·943
Surroundings.	3·6794	3·8538	2·65	0·008
Relationship with Superior.	4·1351	4·1993	1·24	0·217
Way of Life.	3·5363	3·8505	3·80	*
Security.	3·0524	3·0498	0·03	0·976
Associates.	3·6411	3·5748	0·90	0·369
Aesthetics.	2·9234	3·4551	5·90	*
Prestige.	4·1230	3·9203	3·40	*
Independence.	3·7742	3·8239	0·71	0·481
Variety.	3·3105	3·9801	8·46	*
Economic Returns.	4·4133	4·2757	3·04	0·002
Altruism.	2·9899	3·2458	3·94	*

* Statistically significant at, or better than, the 0·001 level.

APPENDIX X.

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Appendix X (continued)

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