THE EFFECTS OF THE PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON TEACHER MOTIVATION:

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MISSIONARY SCHOOLS IN AUSTRALIA AND LEBANON

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JOSEPH HANNA WAKIM

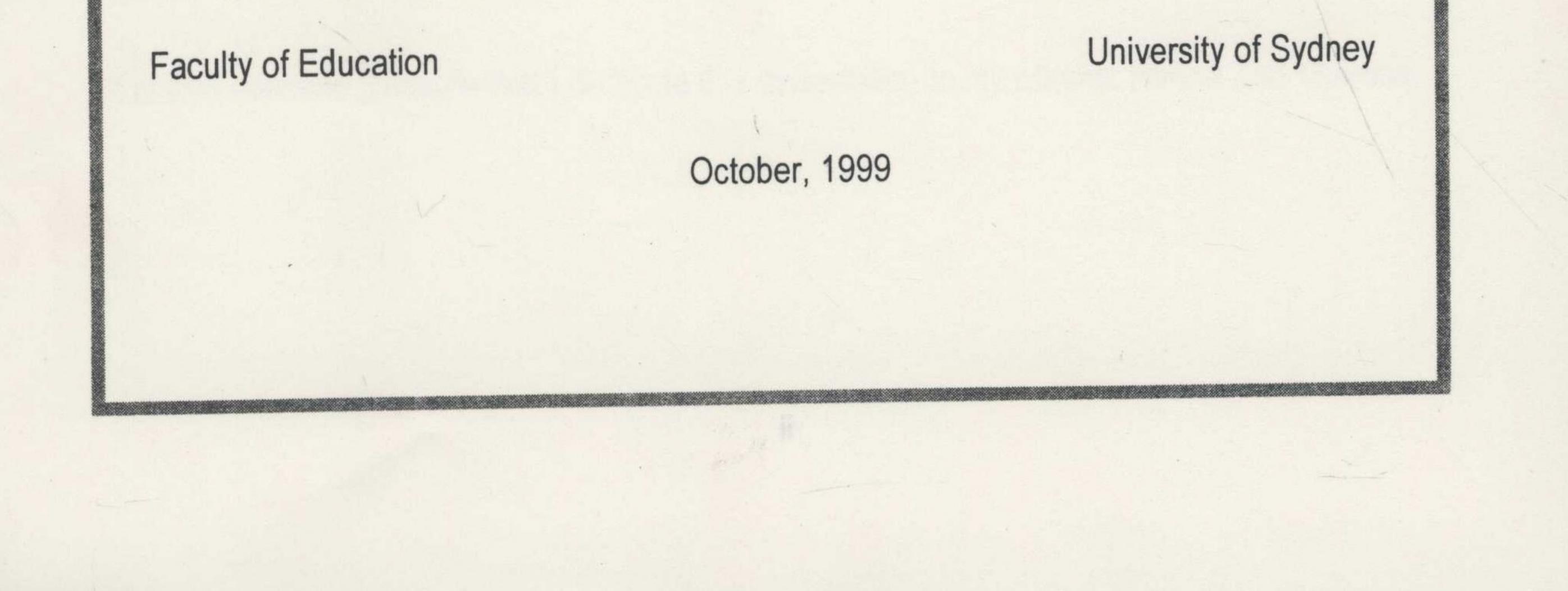
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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy



Abstract

This thesis examines the effects of principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and identifies the motivational strategies if any being used in six schools belonging to Lebanese missionary orders. Three of the schools in the study are located in Australia and three are in Lebanon. The schools are managed by clergy, most of whom have qualifications in theology but few have any qualifications in education.

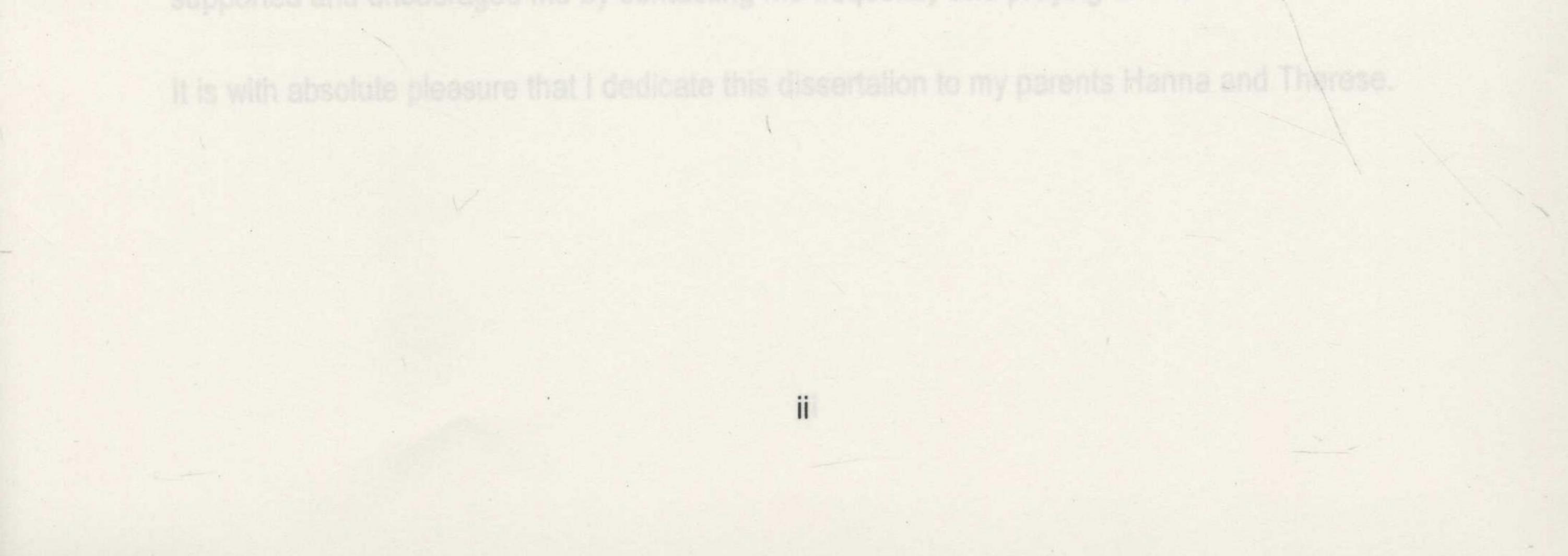
The motivational theories of Maslow, Porter, Herzberg, Vroom, Locke, Turner and Lawrence and

McGregor provide the theoretical framework for the study. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are used in this study. While a questionnaire is the primary instrument for data collection, interviews are also used to provide supplementary data and to allow for more detailed analysis. Teachers in Australia and Lebanon completed a total of 102 questionnaires, and 24 interviews were conducted with volunteer teachers.

The study found that the principal's leadership style has both a direct and an indirect effect on teacher motivation and performance, and the six primary motivational factors available to the principals to influence teacher motivation are: leadership style, decision-making, teamwork, recognition, personal regard and professional growth. These categories are not listed in order of priority and should not be considered as distinct and separate. There is a seventh factor in motivation, school reform or restructuring, which is discussed in relation to the Lebanese schools in the study.

There are several outcomes of this study which may prove to be significant. Firstly, the results from this study will help the principals of schools involved to understand their personal leadership style by encouraging them to reflect on the impact of their styles on teacher motivation. Secondly, the study provides crucial information that will be helpful to the Lebanese missionary orders in the future selection of principals who are capable of motivating teachers and improving schools. Finally, findings from this study provide information which hopefully, when applied, will develop effective school leaders, improve teacher motivation and enhance schools' educational environment. e thank you to the University of Sydney, and especially to the Floculty of Education.

Possible avenues for further research are recommended. to words could express the love and gratitude I teel towards my parents and family who



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The journey towards a PhD is burdensome, demanding and physically exhausting, but rewarding, motivating and intellectually challenging. It requires the investment of time and the sacrifice of a social life. If one is doing this in a foreign country, many difficulties emerge and an additional and different kind of support is needed. Here I would like to thank some of those special people who have both supported me in my academic studies and provided me with invaluable friendship.

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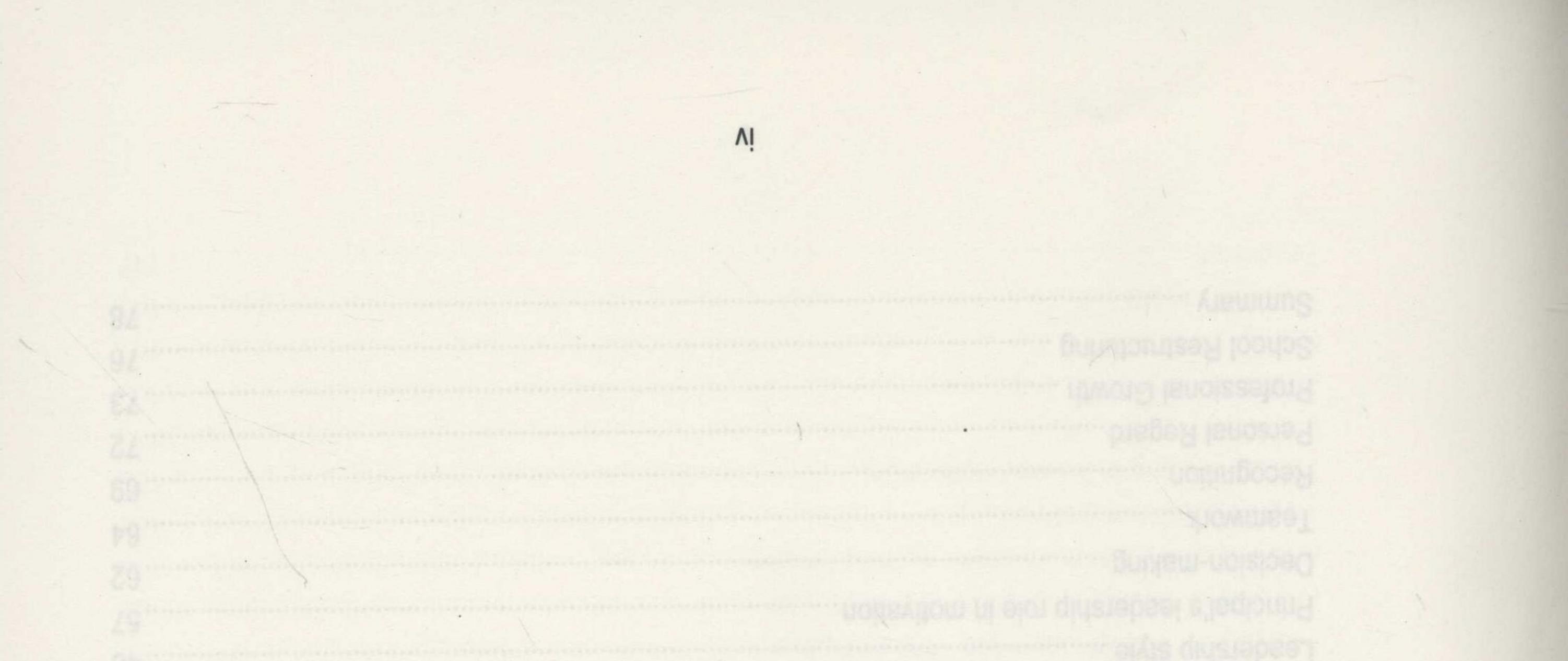
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No words could express the love and gratitude I feel towards my parents and family who supported and encouraged me by contacting me frequently and praying for me.

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It is with absolute pleasure that I dedicate this dissertation to my parents Hanna and Therese.



شكري الى من بذل من وقته وجهده وقدم كل مساعدة معنوية ومادية، الاحباء ميشال وريما واكيم والصديق ريمون شاهين.

شكري ألى من وقف بجانبي وشجعني في لحظات الصعاب خلال مسيرتي هذه، الاب شربل قري والاب طوني الطحان.

شكري الى الاساتذة الذين اشتركوا في تعبئة الاستعارة المخصصة لهذه الدراسة، فلولا مشاركتهم لكن الانجاز مستحيلا.

شكري الى الصديق جوزيف الطوني الخوري على غيرته، تصائحه وتوجيهاته الطمية.

اخيرا، شكر عالي علانتي التي الفي فخر الانتعام اليها، فاني اكن كل محبة وتقدير لكل فرد منها، واخص بالذكر والدي حنا وتراز واكيم.

شكر وعرفان جميل

لا بد من كلمة شكل وعرفان جميل اوجهها الى كل مخلص وقف بجانبي وشجعني في مسيرتي نحو انجاز هذه الاطروحة.

شكري الأول والاسمى ارفعه الى الرب يسوع على نعمه التي اغدقها على في مسيرتي الحياتية والطمية.

شكري الى من اشرف ووجه بكل محبة واخلاص وتفان هذا البحث العلمي الدكتور كفن لوز.

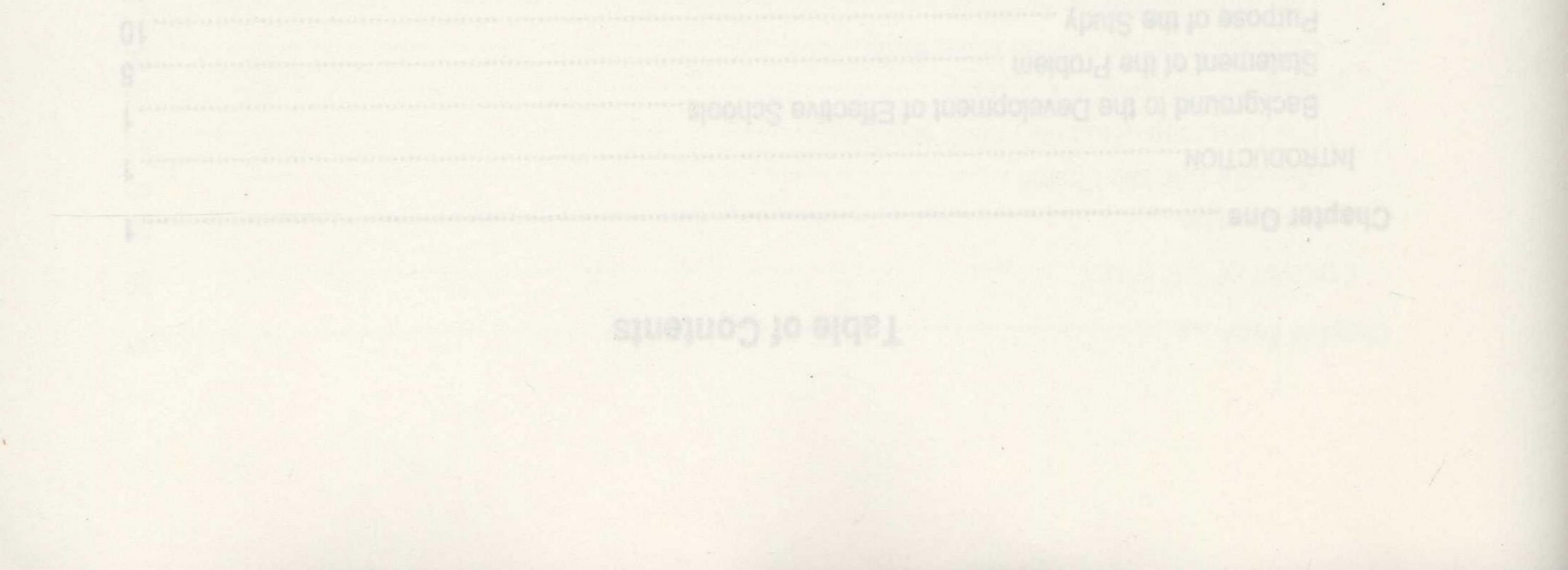


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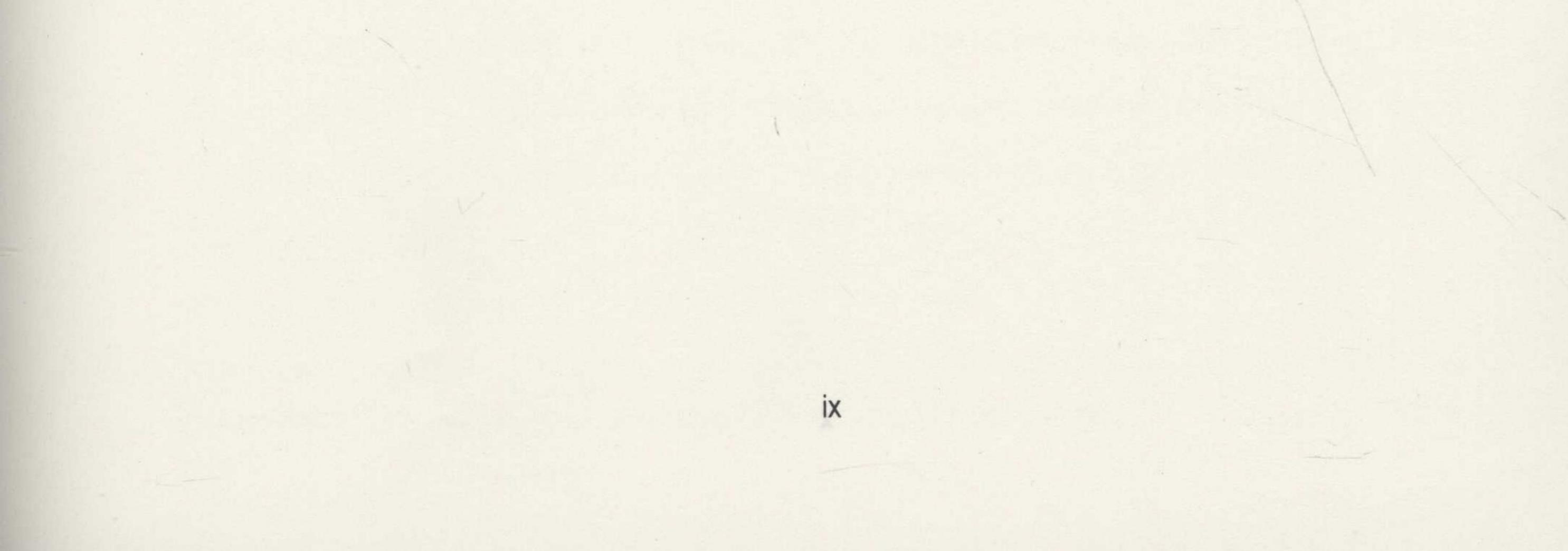
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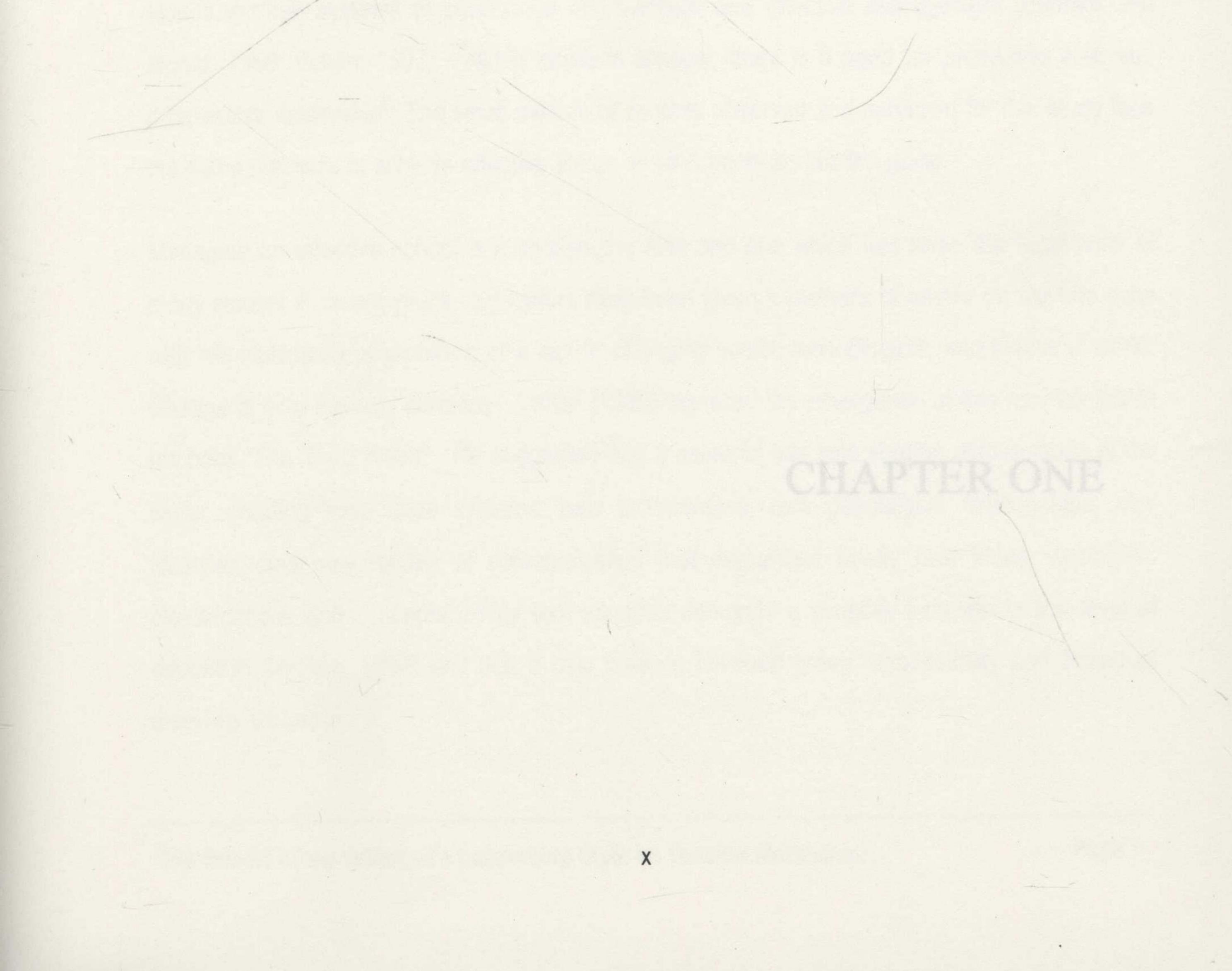
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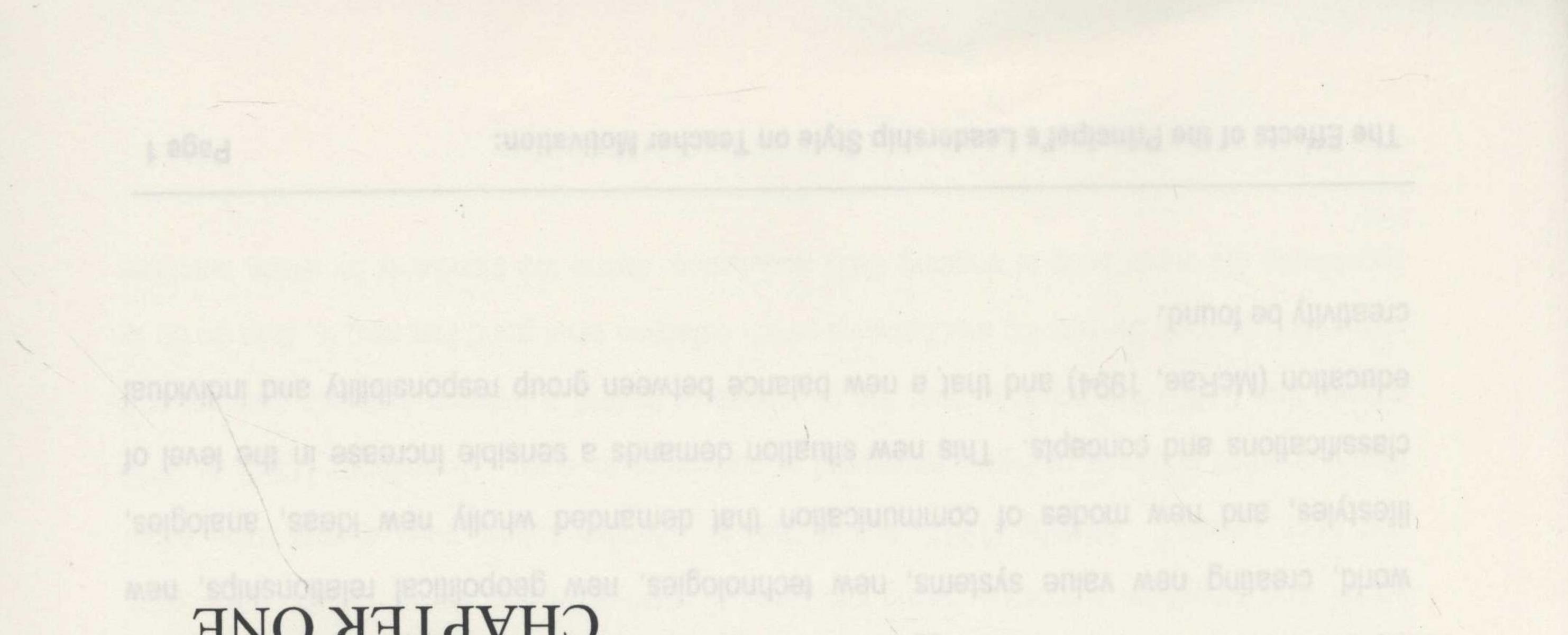
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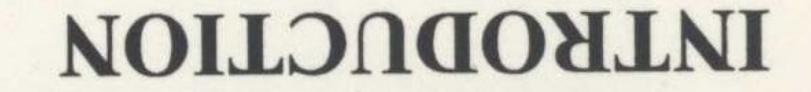




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Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

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today's competitive and market-driven environment. The topics discussed cover issues relating to the research, such as purposes, approach, questions, assumptions, significance and limitations of the study.

Background to the Development of Effective Schools

educational decision-making process.

Recent global trends in educational management involve the creation of effective schools. In a competitive market-oriented society, schools, like all organisations, are being forced to produce results through systems of continuous improvement and effective management (Everard and Morris, 1996; Fullan, 1993). Within effective schools, there is a need for productive staff and progressive leadership. The small sample of schools observed and surveyed for this study face the same pressure to achieve effective status as all schools across the globe. Managing an effective school is a challenging task and one which has been the focal point of many studies in recent years. Educators have been given a plethora of advice on ways to cope with the multiplicity of problems of a rapidly changing social, technological, and industrial world. Change is now the only certainty. Toffler (1980) signalled the emergence of this new society in his book "The Third Wave". He suggested that a powerful tide was surging across much of the world, creating new value systems, new technologies, new geopolitical relationships, new

lifestyles, and new modes of communication that demanded wholly new ideas, analogies, classifications and concepts. This new situation demands a sensible increase in the level of education (McRae, 1994) and that a new balance between group responsibility and individual creativity be found.

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Introduction

Changes to the culture of work, such as the processes of decision-making, communication, recognition, professionalism, teamwork and personal regard are currently transforming the structure of the school system. They have also given rise to new relationships within school organisations, particularly new models of leadership. These changes reflect a wider and more comprehensive set of values shaping social reality in recent decades and require a different approach to creating educational excellence. New and increasing demands are being placed on educational administrators in that they need to develop new ways of thinking and new strategies

(McGaw et al, 1992). New administration, management and leadership skills are also needed (D'Orsa and D'Orsa, 1997). Problems brought about by structural and cultural change are complex and value-laden given the increasing participation of a variety of stake-holders in the educational decision-making process.

The devolution of management responsibility at the school level means that schools are becoming more organisationally demanding (Ainley, 1995). Rising expectations about higher academic standards and the need for the schools to provide a greater variety of social education, coupled with economic and political pressures for efficiency and accountability, add to the already considerable workload on teachers and educational leaders. In the 21st century, special

talents and skills will be required of all educators, especially those in leadership positions.

Effectiveness is a central concept in the management of schools and school systems. However, there is no uniform definition of an 'effective school'. Definitions vary depending on the orientation of those examining the issue. For instance, McGaw, Banks, and Piper (1991, p. 2) suggest that "[a]n effective school is one that achieves greater student learning than might have been predicted from the context in which it works". Similarly, Chapman (1991, p. 1) says "[a]n effective school is one that promotes the progress of its students in a broad range of intellectual, social, and emotional outcomes, taking into account socio-economic status, family background, and prior learning". Murphy (1985) argues that an effective school must always have either tightly coupled curricula or highly structured opportunities to learn. Rosenholtz (1985, p. 375) argues that "[e]ffective schools meet the challenge of finding a balance between security and stimulation through developing mechanisms which establish what good teaching is, then go on to accentuate the importance of ongoing skills acquisition, define the standards by which teachers

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Page 3

measure success in teaching, signal the need to develop new teaching skills and provide ways to learn and improve".

According to the Eltis Report (1995), "[s]chooling depends more than ever on the quality and professionalism of teachers". More specifically, Chrispeels (1996, pp. 303-304) identifies a number of qualities characteristic of effective schools that were revealed fairly consistently across studies. Typically, these include: clear school mission and strong academic focus; the

opportunity to learn and student time on tasks; setting high expectations and positive homeschool relations; frequent monitoring of student progress and program effectiveness; and a positive, safe, and orderly learning environment.

Recent research (Ainley, 1995) on school effectiveness indicates trends towards decentralisation and the emergence of the self-managing school. Purkey and Smith (1985) suggest a model for creating an excellent school through the emphasis on firstly, classroom research on teacher effectiveness; secondly, research into the implementation of educational innovation; thirdly, research into school organisation which identifies the role of school culture in school improvement; and finally, research into consistency between effective schools and the

experiences of practitioners.

Responsiveness and flexibility are closely linked to the organisational structure, staff morale and school culture. Sashkin and Egermeier (1992, p.12) assert that this restructuring involves "changes in roles, rules, and relationships between and among students and teachers, between teachers and administrators and between administrators at various levels", that is, from the school itself to the district office to the State administration.

Another factor in school effectiveness which Finn (1984, p. 518) mentions is "strategic independence". He points out that "[t]he central problem faced by policy makers who attempt to transform the findings of effective schools into improved educational practice at State or local

levels is the tension between school-level autonomy and system-wide uniformity". Strategic independence aims to overcome this problem by recognising the school as the key organisational unit in the public school system, encouraging schools to be different (except for the core of cognitive skills and knowledge) and devolving more budgetary authority to the school level.

Introduction

Page 4

Chapter One

Research by Coleman and Hoffer (1987) emphasises the importance of establishing the strongest possible linkages between school and community. They examine the performance of schools on key indicators and highlight the importance of what they term 'social capital' as a key determinant of effectiveness. Sizer (1984) believes that one imperative for better schools is giving teachers and students the opportunity to take full advantage of their different capabilities, a situation which implies that there must be substantial authority in each school. Goodlad (1984,

p. 275) suggests "genuine decentralisation of authority and responsibility to the local school within a framework designed to assure school-to-school equity and a measure of accountability". This school management technique requires a new system of motivation by which the administrators keep teachers motivated and enthusiastic.

Research by Reynolds and Packer (1992) states that, in the 1990s, the agenda for school effectiveness researchers and practitioners will be broadened. In the first instance, the range of outcomes expected from schools is likely to be significantly enlarged by the various competencies required for employment, and by the further competencies necessary for functioning in an information-oriented society. Secondly, the change in the nature of leadership and management tasks required of teachers, particularly senior teachers, will be more market oriented; for example, serving educational clients, resource management, program budgeting, corporate planning, enhancing motivation, communication, planning and controlling. The measurement of effectiveness will have three strands: pedagogical, psychological, and organisational. The link between education and the general economic well-being of individuals and the nation has been the issue of extensive worldwide discussion in recent decades (McGaw et. Al, 1993).

Schools are increasingly taking over the responsibilities which were once the domain of church

and family, to provide a whole range of life skills as well as preparation for vocational capabilities.

In both areas, the pedagogical emphasis is on developing creative, flexible, motivated individuals who can participate fully in society's activities. Another purpose served by creating an effective school is to ensure a focal point where equality of educational opportunity is provided for all students by the teachers who are working for the sake of the students in accordance with the orientation of their principals (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993).

Within the effective school model, there are three types of goals: academic, social and strategic (Johnson, 1989). Academic goals are provided by state authorities and represent the academic standards which must be achieved. Success for teachers and students is measured by testing programs in which the accomplishments of students are judged according to set indicators. Mastery of basic skills and fundamental processes are also seen as a necessity for intellectual development. Social goals are obtained from the value system of society and represent the basis for the production of good citizens.

The concept of developing 'moral' character is a social goal expected in an effective school. Personal goals of emotional and physical well-being are viewed as being crucial in the process of self-realisation. The effective school has, at the very heart of it, the need to develop a sense of dignity in each student and staff member who passes through it. It aims to develop compassionate, sensitive individuals who have a wealth of joy within themselves and the ability to proclaim that joy to others (Townsend, 1994).

Strategic goals are derived from the educational marketplace which helps determine the management of resources, financial considerations, budgeting requirements, types of services to be provided, promotional activities, staff development needs, staff motivation and improvement.

Traditionally, schools have been structured on a rational, bureaucratic model characterised by compartmentalisation and isolation. However, in the last decade a new model has emerged. Kanter (1983) and Mulkeen and Cooper (1987) point out that this model is based on the integration of organisational structure to bring about greater responsiveness and flexibility. The motivation for this new model is the marketisation of educational processes. Bureaucratic control and homogenisation is being removed and schools have to compete with one another to offer the best product and service at an attractive price.

Two types of change drew market forces into the educational arena. As world markets become increasingly competitive, there is a demand for different competencies in workers, and fiscal constraints on governments force greater cost effectiveness on all government services. According to Beare (1991), local empowerment is the means by which educational providers can offer the degree of responsiveness clients demand, and the accountability governments need.

Therefore, it can be argued that the imperatives of market-driven restructuring require schoolbased management.

Research into effective schools provides useful insights into what constitutes an effective school culture. Murphy (1985), Duignan (1986, 1987) and Erickson (1987) all provide important indicators of the characteristics of an effective learning culture in schools. In this culture, organisational members have a strong sense of purpose and vision for the future based on their values and beliefs about what is fundamental to human life, the purpose of education, the nature of curriculum, the way children learn and grow, and the nature of interpersonal relationships (Starratt, 1986; Fullan, 1987).

A good leader is crucial to creating a vision for the school and encouraging an organisational culture conducive to reflection, criticism, negotiation and compromise (Duignan, 1987; Fullan,1987). According to Schon (1983, p. 165), successful educational leaders become "agents of organisational learning". Good leaders also build effective networks and mould the normal interactions of daily school life into dynamic yet focused outcomes. Dimmock (1991, p. 160) suggests that "more coordination and control among the elements of a school are a likely consequence of school-based management. Less control from the centre might imply more control at the school level".

Therefore, good leadership is vital for two crucial reasons. Firstly, to implement effective schoollevel control and vision as well as to enhance teacher motivation. Secondly, to ensure that the participants in the planning process (such as teachers, parents, and community) are properly informed, do not exert undue influence, have an opportunity to provide feedback and are involved in monitoring and reviewing outcomes.

Contiguous with good leadership, an effective school has a thoroughly professional staff who set high but realistic standards, monitor their own effectiveness and are willing to be motivated and innovative. Mortimore (1988) claims that such teachers are actively involved in whole-school curriculum planning, but develop their own curriculum guidelines. They also claim that these teachers participate in decisions on which classes they will teach and are consulted on issues affecting school policy. Rowe (1991) argues that effective teachers are "organised, methodical, reflective, collaborative...[and]... are willing to try new ideas and adapt". As a school's staff is charged with the responsibility for implementing the major curriculum changes and new thrusts in school improvement, it is crucial that they support the values espoused by the school and the school system.

In a market-driven educational environment, the parents as consumers are going to have a closer relationship with school-based management. The school must rely more heavily on support from its local community and the parents are important linkages in this respect. McGaw, Piper, Banks, and Evans (1992, p. 92) conclude that "if parents feel important in the education process, they can be a great back-up and support for teachers' efforts — thus they need to be constantly involved in the life of the school". Parents can be good public relations representatives and advocates. They can also provide vital financial and resource support. Of course, there are reservations about the types and levels of parental involvement. McGaw et al. (1992) suggest that "guidelines must be defined to ensure that the school is not unreasonably influenced by parent involvement or through pressure groups".

School-based management also affects students as consumers of the education product, albeit a slightly different experience to that of their parents. A school that ignores the needs of students will not be effective. McGaw et al. (1992, pp. 114-118) indicate that "students should find their experiences relevant" and "students should be motivated to learn...encouraged to take risks in order to stretch themselves in order to learn from their mistakes (and) to take increasing responsibility for their own learning". To do this effectively, students require a sense of belonging, self-esteem, development of personal and social skills and some input into the formal decision-making structures through student representative councils.

There are many issues at the core of managing effective schools. Over the next few years, the agenda will become more demanding. For instance, expectations about producing better outcomes focused on developing 'active' individuals will increase significantly (Whitaker, 1998). Reassessment of organisational processes in order to achieve the optimum in a student's ability to think and learn must be addressed. The agenda will also include marketing, parental and

community support, the need to keep staff and students motivated, the maintenance of healthy staff and student relationships, and the ability to accept and deal with change.

Leading effective schools into the new millennium is about developing a school-based management, administration and culture that focuses on its clients. These clients are teachers, students, communities and parents. These groups have always been clients of the school system but, in today's highly skilled and competitive commercial and industrial environment, they now have a new importance. They are making new demands for relevance, accountability and participation in decision-making processes. Effective schools are the ones with responsive personnel and those with the will to compete in the educational marketplace.

This study concentrates on a specific area related to the effects of the principal's style on teacher motivation that contributes to the school's effectiveness. The principal's leadership role is well documented in the effective schools' literature (see Chapter Three). This study examines the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation. Educational excellence requires administrative leaders who have the ability to motivate their teachers to change or improve themselves and who possess the ability to gain the commitment of their teachers to personal and organisational goals. This study also will identify motivational strategies that are perceived by the teachers surveyed to be valuable in improving their attitude, performance, motivation and commitment to their schools.

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Statement of the Problem

Motivation is a complex subject which has been the focus of much research in recent years. Human behaviour is of great importance in today's highly competitive and rapidly changing technological society. Theories of motivation are of interest to businesses seeking to extract the best performances from employees and to educational providers striving to influence students' learning capacities.

Teachers vary in terms of how much they do, how efficiently they do it and how much they accomplish (Monk & Jackson, 1985). Research highlights that certain teachers are more motivated than others (Wakim, 1995). However, there is much ambiguity reflected in the

literature about what motivates teachers and what keeps teachers motivated. Solutions that work in one situation may not work in another. Johnson (1986, p. 74) argues that the best ways to motivate teachers have yet to be discovered. Further, he claims that "discovering what matters to teachers and how best to motivate them for sustained and improved work is apparently a complicated puzzle, one that has yet to be solved".

There is insufficient understanding of why some people do not work to their potential and why there seems to be a continuous erosion of motivation. These enigmas about the bases of motivation framed the research problem of this thesis. Teachers within schools belonging to missionary orders are the target group. These schools were established by Christian orders in Lebanon and in Australia. On one hand, the study reveals some highly motivated teachers who continually attempt to improve their work performance, have positive attitudes and appear to be satisfied with their job. On the other hand, the study also reveals a number of teachers who only do the minimum to improve their performance, have a negative attitude and appear to be not motivated and dissatisfied with their job. Therefore, the research poses the question: Is it the leadership style of the principal that makes the difference in teacher motivation?

This study examines the theoretical bases of motivation and assesses the state of motivation within the special group of schools being investigated. Suggestions are also made about particular motivational strategies for the improvement of the educational environment in these schools. It may be possible to generalise the findings for use in a whole range of schools.

This research demonstrates that the teacher, as the deliverer of instruction, is a primary factor in a school's performance and educational excellence. Educational excellence requires high motivation from all teachers and through motivation, educational organisations can achieve their goals (Levine, 1993). The difference between an effective school and an ineffective school will depend, to a large part, on how motivated the staff are (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). Successful schools have well-motivated staff who are encouraged to explore new avenues of instruction, who welcome change and who desire to grow professionally. The most important role in a successful and effective school is that of the principal as staff motivator and catalyst for improvement (Louis and Miles, 1990; Leithwood, 1992). To be effective motivators, school

administrators must know, and be able to utilise, the fundamental theories and strategies of motivation.

Purpose of the Study

In modern, industrialised society, education and schooling play a crucial role in providing a literate and socialised workforce and community. In recent decades, the pace of technological development has considerably expanded theoretical knowledge and practical application to such an extent that different types of organisations and individuals are required to manage new techniques and ideas. The continuous nature of innovation, and consequent change of pace it causes, demands that businesses, social organisations and individuals be very adaptable and able to keep ahead by constant improvement. It also demands that they be prepared to take the necessary steps to achieve success. Educational organisations and educational administrators are a part of this setting.

In order for the contemporary school organisation to provide effective, quality education for this technological and industrial society, educational administrators will need to develop leadership skills to mobilise and motivate people, and to manage physical resources in a dynamic and positive environment. Crowther and Caldwell (1992), in their book, "*The Entrepreneurial School*", argue that leaders will need to be creative, innovative, motivated and confident.

Principals need to develop an entrepreneurial spirit and positive political skills (Block, 1987). These skills involve daring to question, to be creative, to be motivated, to be different, to take risks and be lateral thinkers. Sergiovanni (1987) reveals that leaders are initiators of new structures, procedures, and goals. To him, leadership implies change. He believes leaders are active, influential people who change other peoples' outlooks, moods and expectations. However, Starratt (1993) states that a leader with passion and intensity will risk all in order to achieve his or her goals.

The principal's role in an effective school is to reflect on the changes occurring in wider society, as well as in the school, and to turn these changes into challenges and creative opportunities.

The primary aim of the study, therefore, is to examine the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation, and to identify the motivational strategies. Everard and Morris (1996, p.20) argue that in motivating people, leaders should be concerned with the needs and potential of three parties. These are the group being managed, the individuals who make up that group, and the clients of the school or other organisation.

Such knowledge will help administrators to introduce or enhance motivational strategies that will have maximum impact on staff performance.

The objectives of this study are to:

- 1. examine if an influence exists between principal style and teacher motivation; and,
- 2. identify motivational strategies if used by the principal could influence teacher motivation.

Research Approach

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods are used. The main research instruments are questionnaires and interviews. Triangulation and correlation techniques are used to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected.

The questionnaire and interview are designed to obtain the opinions of teachers about whether the principal's leadership style has an impact on their motivation, and to identify motivational strategies. Comparative studies of schools are used as a basis for analysis of the information gathered and to validate and correlate data collected.

This study is in two stages. In the first stage, three primary and secondary schools in Australia run by Lebanese missionaries are examined. They are coded as White, Green and Yellow schools.

In the second stage, three primary and secondary schools in Lebanon belonging to the same missionary order are examined. These schools are coded as White1, Green1 and Yellow1 schools.

Research Questions

The major focus of the study is on the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation, and on the identification of motivational dimensions. A survey of literature and of previous research findings, conducted by the researcher at one of the three schools in Australia in 1995, led to development of the three major research questions of the study which are:

- 1. Is leadership style a factor in affecting teachers' motivation?
- 2. What are the needs that influence teachers to perform professionally?
- 3. What principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by schools principals to improve teacher motivation?

These research questions are addressed through the collection and interpretation of data on the experience of teachers and administrators involved in the schools under investigation. The intention is to address the organisational needs of motivation, the conclusions of which can be used to promote positive change in these schools.

Assumptions

There are three major assumptions underlying the problem of teacher motivation to be researched in this study. Firstly, that leadership style is indispensable for motivating teachers. Secondly, that teacher motivation is an important concept in the schools in the study and, therefore, there is a need to better explore it, and finally, that principals in the schools in the study consciously employ strategies to motivate their teachers.

Significance of the Study

The study is concerned with the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and the identification of motivational strategies in three schools in Australia and the three schools in Lebanon. The outcomes of this study may prove to be significant for education providers who are involved in developing and maintaining top quality staff, and the management of effective schools.

Results from this study could help principals in the schools investigated understand their personal leadership style by reflecting on the results, and the impact of their style on the perceived motivation of teachers, as well as on the missionary orders to which the schools belong. The study may also assist the missionary orders to nominate or evaluate the principals in their schools, considering the findings and recommendations of this study. This would hopefully benefit the schools, teachers, parents and students.

The study also provides crucial information that might be beneficial to educational providers in the selection of principals for schools undergoing restructuring. Restructuring increases the need for schools to be led by principals who understand how to create quality change and who are not only self-empowered, but also can create a climate conducive to the motivation of others (Norris, 1994).

Improving at times of rapidly changing educational and societal circumstances will increase school variability substantially because of the ways in which the schools will differ markedly in their ability to cope with rapid, externally-induced changes (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). This contemporary situation intensifies the need for schools to be led by principals who are capable of dealing with the culture of schools as well as with their structure. They must deal with the deep structure of values, motivation, relationships and interpersonal process, as well as with the world of behaviour. School improvement practitioners should consider the crucial factor of teacher motivation that lies behind successful improvement.

Missionary orders could use this information to design training programs that could more effectively develop principals' awareness and skills by matching leadership style to different situations and cultures.

Finally, findings from this study will indicate strategies which, when applied, may help to improve teacher motivation, to assist the improvement of school leaders and enhance the school's educational environment.

Limitations of the study

The research sought to examine the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation, and to identify the motivational strategies. In the process of pursuing this goal, a series of limitations to the study became obvious. The first is that the small sample size of three schools situated in Sydney's Western Suburbs and three schools situated in Lebanon, belonging to and managed by Lebanese missionary orders, could be considered too small to be accurate. However, as the study is focused upon schools operated by the same missionary orders, the sample of three schools in each country is appropriate. The second limitation is that the principals of the three schools in Australia were born overseas, have English as their second language. At least one of these principals is not qualified in education and is not accustomed to Australia's education system.

Definition of terms

Recognition:

The following terms are used extensively throughout this thesis and are defined below in order to provide a guide as to the context in which they are applied.

Leadership style: Different ways for a leader to approach situations in order to influence and motivate followers to achieve personal and organisational goals.

<u>Teacher motivation</u>: A complex combination of factors that energise and direct teacher behavior towards achieving the school's mission and goals.

<u>School restructuring</u>: The process of redesigning individual schools to meet the multiple needs of their communities so as to improve educational effectiveness.

<u>Teamwork</u>: "A group of people with common objectives that can effectively tackle any task which it has been set up to do". (DuBrin, 1995)

A kind of gesture or act given to a person as a reward or praise for a job well done that will encourage the person to achieve their potential.

Personal regard:

Morale gestures such as trust, respect, sympathy and understanding that influence the life of a person once they perceive these gestures as being provided freely by others, particularly from the person's peer group.

<u>Professional growth</u>: Sum of activities carried out by the school to help staff growth. It is a sophisticated process in which teachers improve their skills, beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge.

<u>Decision-making process</u>: The setting in which staff members are given the opportunity to help make decisions about their school.

Structure of the Thesis

The dissertation consists of eight chapters. Chapter One includes the background, purpose, significance and limitations of the study. Chapter Two canvasses the major theories of motivation and assesses their appropriateness to the study. It concludes with the conceptual framework for the study. Chapter Three reviews the literature related to teacher motivation. It focuses on central themes that many researchers have concluded are critical to teacher motivation. These themes include the principal's leadership style, decision-making, restructuring, teamwork, recognition, personal regard and professional growth. The research for the thesis is structured around these topics.

Chapter Four gives the context in which the study is conducted and includes a description of the six schools that belong to the missionary order. Chapter Five describes the research methodology and the two major research instruments used - a questionnaire and interviews of teachers. Chapters Six and Seven analyse the data collected from schools in Australia and Lebanon, and Chapter Eight compares and discusses the results of the studies of the schools in the two countries, and summarises the findings. It also provides strategies and suggestions to improve teacher motivation. The thesis draws conclusions and records issues that require further consideration.

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Understanding motivational bearies is very important for echool administrators because it is their role to anargine, and direct the activities of the school executive, methace, support staff and students in the organisational setting of the school. The school organisation, who its many packetpants, requires the administrator to have considerable sensitivity to this forces at work and to the nature of the interdependent relationships of individuals in the group setting - individuals are striving to achieve personal goals at the same time as organisational goals. Knowledge of motivational theories provides actival administrators with a grouter shifty to motivate a losin that has diverse work and personal goals.

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Theoretical Orientation

Introduction

Understanding motivational theories is very important for school administrators because it is their role to energise, and direct the activities of the school executive, teachers, support staff and students in the organisational setting of the school. The school organisation, with its many participants, requires the administrator to have considerable sensitivity to the forces at work and to the nature of the interdependent relationships of individuals in the group setting. Individuals are striving to achieve personal goals at the same time as organisational goals. Knowledge of motivational theories provides school administrators with a greater ability to motivate a team that has diverse work and personal goals.

As human behaviour and the factors that influence it, like the amount and type of motivation, are diverse, many theories have been constructed to account for them. Hoy and Miskel (1991, p. 168) point out that "[n]o one theory is currently able to understand and explain all of the elements of motivated behaviour". Theories of human motivation differ from each other because they are based on different assumptions about the nature of human beings.

The theoretical framework of this thesis is composed of the work of Maslow (1954), Porter (1962), Herzberg (1959), Vroom (1964), Locke (1968), Turner and Lawarence (1965) and McGregor (1960). These are of particular relevance to understanding work motivation in an educational setting, and are most applicable to this study. These theories focus on elements of work that affect an individual's willingness to perform, especially when this willingness to perform represents an obligation between employees and employers. Although many of these works were written some years ago, they are still powerful, as they yield a basic framework for examining the tasks undertaken by those in any school leadership position who might play a motivating role (Turney et al., 1992). Each theory provides leaders with a different perspective on what motivates individuals at work, and helps them to understand what factors energise and

direct employees' behavior towards achieving the organisation's mission and goals. If leaders want to influence and maximise staff motivation, they need to develop motivational systems that encompass aspects of all aforementioned theories. These theories are discussed below in greater depth.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Abraham Maslow, in 1954, proposed a theory of human motivation based on a hierarchy of needs that act as driving forces to action. Maslow (1954, pp 80 - 92) suggested that people are motivated by a number of needs and that they act specifically to satisfy those needs. This theory is composed of five sets of goals or basic needs that are operating at all times in all human These needs are: physiological, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualisation. beings. Maslow's theory (1954, p. 93 and 97) includes two additional needs, the cognitive and the aesthetic. Cognitive need is the need to know and understand. Aesthetic need encompasses a desire or need to move towards beauty and away from ugliness. These two needs generally have been omitted from Maslow's Theory as it was applied to organisational settings. One can only wonder what possibility the theory may have held for educational research if the cognitive need had been included in Maslow's hierarchy. Maslow further proposed that these needs are hierarchically related to one another and that people strive to satisfy lower order or basic needs before moving to satisfy higher order needs. Once lower needs have been satisfied, the degree of importance decreases. The process of striving for need satisfaction, accomplishing need satisfaction and movement to the next level, continues until the highest level has been reached.

Maslow originally stated that an individual moves through the hierarchy in a step-by-step manner. Once a lower level need is satisfied it ceases to act as a motivator. However, he later revised the theory to state that individuals move through the hierarchy with unfinished levels of satisfaction at lower levels. Individuals could, therefore, be working towards need satisfaction in more than one level at any given moment.

The first level, physiological needs, is the basic human necessity for sleep, hunger, thirst and taste. These needs are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory (Maslow, 1954).

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However, Maslow (1954, p. 81) argued that "it seems impossible as well as useless to make any list of fundamental physiological needs, for they can come to almost any number one might wish, depending on the degree of specificity of description". The second level, safety and security needs, relates to an individual's desire for stability, order and structure. The third level, belongingness, refers to the need for social affiliation and love. The fourth level, esteem needs, relates to an individual's desire to have a positive self-image and to receive recognition from others. These needs "lead to feelings of self confidence, worth, strength capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world". He added that "the most stable and therefore most healthy self-esteem is based on deserved respect from others rather than on external fame or celebrity and unwanted adulation" (Maslow, 1954, p.91). The fifth and highest level is an individual's desire for self-actualisation. The clear emergence of these needs usually rests upon prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs. Table 1. below describes the needs as well as psychological and physiological indicators for each level of Maslow's hierarchy.

Needs		Physiological And Psychological Indicators	
Level 5	Self-actualisation or self-fulfillment	Achievement of potential Maximum self-development, creativity and self- expression.	
Level 4	Esteem needs	Self-respect: achievement, competence and confidence/ freedom/ independence Deserved respect of others - status, recognition, dignity and appreciation.	
Level 3	Belonging, love and social needs	Satisfactory associations with others /affection Belonging to groups/ love Giving and receiving friendship/affection.	
Level 2	Safety and security needs	Protection against danger and threat Freedom from fear, anxiety and chaos	
Level 1	Physiological needs	Hunger, taste, sleep, thirst, smell, sex, touch.	

JT	Needs
	JT

Source: Maslow, A. H., (1954). Motivtion and Personality. New York: Harper Brothers. (Adapted).

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Maslow (1954) argues that, for the majority of individuals, the first three levels (physiological, safety and security, and belongingness) are usually satisfied and do not tend to motivate. However, Owens (1995, p. 48) illustrates the paradigm case of the teacher who feels physically threatened at school. This person is unlikely to be highly motivated to seek acceptance, recognition or approval by peers until the more basic need for safety has been first met. If a lower order need is left unmet, it re-occurs and dominates behavior. Owens referred to the lower four needs in the hierarchy as deficiency needs because their deficiency motivates people to meet them and, until the deficiencies are met, individuals find it difficult to respond to the higher order needs.

The fourth and fifth level needs (esteem and self-actualisation) are rarely satisfied and hence continually motivate. These are also referred to as growth needs and have the potential for generating enormous psychic energy. Maslow (1954) argues that as a person strives to satisfy the need for creativity, learning, autonomy, self-direction and self expression, their needs expand. Maslow theorises that as few as one percent of the population actually reach the fifth level, self-actualisation. It would seem that the cycle of personal growth is endless.

Research in a school setting based on Maslow's theory indicates that the largest needs deficiencies for professional educators are specifically higher level needs related to Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs (Trusty and Sergiovanni, 1966), as well as the need for autonomy which was introduced by Porter (1962).

An understanding of Maslow's hierarchy will enable managers "to create a school climate and working conditions that are responsive to the lower level needs of teachers for security, acceptance and self-esteem. In turn, this will allow staff to focus maximum efforts upon self-fulfilment through effective performance of professional tasks" (Turney et al. 1992, p. 215). This theory implies that administrators and managers can create environments that promote need fulfilment.

Little research evidence, however, exists to support Maslow's needs theory (Lawler and Suttle, 1972; Rauschenberger, Schmitt, and Hunter, 1980). Critics of Maslow's theory feel the limited support is due to lack of definitional clarity because the concept of need is so general and vague (Wahba and Bridwell, 1973). This vagueness has resulted in various interpretations and the difficulties have been compounded by measurement problems. Moreover, research reviews the evidence and concludes that although of great popularity, need hierarchy as a theory continues to receive little empirical support. Further, it highlights the available research should certainly generate a reluctance to accept unconditionally the implication of Maslow's hierarchy (Korman et al., 1977). However, despite this vagueness and criticism, Maslow's theory continues to receive greater attention in motivation studies and continues to enjoy wide acceptance in education. This theory may be useful in helping principals to identify the kinds of wants or needs which are important for the teachers motivation.

Porter's revision of Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Based upon the results of a previous study of perceived need satisfactions in management jobs (Porter, 1961), Porter modified Maslow's theory of motivation by excluding physiological needs because he felt that these needs were already met for the majority of American workers. To Maslow's hierarchy, Porter (1962) added the need for autonomy, placing it between esteem and self-actualisation. Based on this modification, Porter developed the Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ). He concluded from his study in 1962 of 2000 management personnel that an individual's position within the management structure of an organisation (lower level supervisory to presidential level) is directly related to the degree of perceived satisfaction of these needs increases with the higher level of management. For instance, lower and middle managers are less satisfied than their superiors. Porter's 1962 studies reveal that the position held within the management hierarchy is related to the degree of perceived importance of needs, that is, the psychological needs of autonomy and self-actualisation become increasingly important for higher-level managers than for lower-level managers.

Porter's studies present a hierarchy of five prepotent needs (Porter, 1962, p.375). These needs are first, the need for *security* (the lowest in the hierarchy), second, the need for *affiliation*, third, the need for *self-esteem*, fourth, the need for *autonomy* and finally, the need for *self-actualisation*. An illustration of Porter's modification to Maslow's hierarchy of needs is shown in Figure 1 on the following page.

As illustrated in Figure 1, the first level, security needs, relates to a feeling of security in a job. The second level, social needs, relates to the opportunity of getting along with co-workers in the organisation. The third level, esteem needs, refers to the feeling of self-esteem and prestige that a person gets from his or her work. The fourth level, autonomy needs, refers to the possibility of being involved in the decision making process, and the fifth level, self actualisation needs, refers to opportunity for personal growth and self development.

The most important level in the hierarchy for Porter is autonomy. As mentioned earlier, autonomy needs refers to the individual's need to participate in the decision making process that affects him or her at work, to exert influence in controlling the work situation, and to have an effective voice in setting job-related goals. On the other hand, the work of Sergiovanni and his colleagues (1973, pp. 58–59) alleges that no one can motivate insecure teachers by offering them greater autonomy, or motivate teachers seeking autonomy by offering them security. This appears as a critical situation for a principal who seeks to positively affect teacher motivation through his or her practices.

Figure 1: Hierarchy Of Work Motivation Based On Porter's Model

SELF-ACTUALISATION

Working at full potential

Feeling successful at work

Achieving goals viewed as significant

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AUTONOMY

Control of work situation, influence in the

organisation, participation in important

decisions, authority to utilise

organisational resources

Û

SELF-ESTEEM

Titles, feeling self-respect, evidence of

respect by others, status symbols,

recognition, promotions, awards, being

part of 'insiders' group

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AFFILIATION

Belonging to formal and informal work groups, friendships, professional associations and unions, and acceptance by peers beyond the immediate organisation

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SECURITY

Pay, union, seniority, retirement plan, tenure,

such legal concepts as 'due process' and

'fairness', statutory and policy protection

establishing orderly evaluation and insurance plans

Source: Porter, L.W. (1962). Job Attitudes in Management. in Journal of applied Psychology. (Vol. 46, No. 6, pp. 375 – 384. (Adapted).

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Porter's modification to Maslow's model has particular relevance to education because "teachers and students have expressed a demand for control over their work environment and, indeed, over their destiny" (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979, p.134). The contemporary organisational principles of self-government, self-direction and self-control make the addition of this need to the hierarchy most relevant.

Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

The two-factor theory of motivation developed out of early research on job attitudes and motivation by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). Two hundred accountants and engineers were asked to complete a Critical Incidents Questionnaire in which they had to describe any significant events at work that had improved and/or reduced their personal job satisfaction.

The theory of motivation that developed out of this research became known as the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. In this theory, one set of factors (motivators) act to increase an individual's job satisfaction while another set of factors (hygiene factors), if left ungratified, cause strong negative attitudes and produce job dissatisfaction. The salient point is that an absence of motivators does not alone produce job dissatisfaction, but motivators are crucial to producing job satisfaction. Work satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not in opposition, rather, they are separate and unrelated attitudes to work. Factors related to hygiene and motivators are illustrated in Figure 2 on the following page.

(1980; p. 70) suggests that the flux motivalors are related and when present, lead to personal prowith and self-actualization. Hygiene fluctors, when provided appropriately, remove dissatisfaction and improve performance up to a point, but will not produce perform leadings o high performance levels.

Richer than foculting on the extent of deticient need substaction, like Maslow, Herzberg (1966), in his motivation-tradition theory of motivation, classic emphasis on two types of human needs:

Figure 2: Job Satisfaction Continuum - A Graphical Representation Of The Motivation-Hygiene

Theory

← (-) Dissatisfaction	Satisfaction (+) →	
Hygienes (Dissatisfiers)	Motivators (Satisfiers)	
Interpersonal relations - subordinates	Achievement	
Interpersonal relations - peers	Recognition	
Supervision - technical	Work itself	
Policy, administration and supervision	Responsibility	
Working conditions	Advancement	
Personal Life / feeling of unfairness		

Source: Herzberg, F., Mansour, B. and Syderman, B.B. (1959). <u>The Motivation to Work</u>. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.(adapted).

The motivators are much more likely to increase job satisfaction than they would to decrease job satisfaction, but the factors that relate to job dissatisfaction infrequently act to increase job satisfaction (Herzberg, et al., 1959, p.80). On the one hand, the three factors, work itself, responsibility and advancement, stand out strongly as the major factors involved in producing a high positive job attitude. Their role in producing poor job attitudes is by contrast extremely small. On the other hand, company policy and administration supervision (both technical and interpersonal relationships), and working conditions represent the major job dissatisfiers with little potency to affect job attitudes in a positive direction (Herzberg et al., 1959, pp. 81–82).

Herzberg's motivators, according to Turney et al. (1992, p. 215), "are closely linked to the highest two of Maslow's needs, while the maintenance factors clearly relate to the lower levels". Miner (1980, p. 78) suggests that the five motivators are related and, when present, lead to personal growth and self-actualisation. Hygiene factors, when provided appropriately, remove dissatisfaction and improve performance up to a point, but will not produce positive feelings or high performance levels.

Rather than focussing on the extent of deficient need satisfaction, like Maslow, Herzberg (1966), in his motivation-hygiene theory of motivation, placed emphasis on two types of human needs:

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hygiene needs (potential to avoid dissatisfaction), and motivation needs (potential to satisfy). The former can be viewed in terms of maintenance needs or lower order needs; the latter in terms of higher order needs.

Lower order needs are those that are preventative and environmental (Herzberg et al., 1959). They are extrinsic, lying external to the work content itself and include factors such as supervision, company policy, working conditions, salary, working relationships, status and security. Meeting these needs can help avoid job dissatisfaction; however, increased satisfaction or motivation does not necessarily follow from having a surplus of these factors.

Higher order needs are those that have the potential to motivate people to higher levels of achievement and performance and, hence, job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). They are intrinsic factors inherent in the actual work being performed and include factors such as recognition, interest in the work, growth and advancement. The more these needs are satisfied, the greater the expected level of job satisfaction. In the conclusion to his research, Herzberg (1968, p.56), states that "motivation factors were the primary cause of satisfaction and hygiene factors the primary cause of unhappiness on the job".

Credibility in the two-factor theory of motivation is gained "from the fact that the two distinct groups of factors associated with hygiene needs and motivation correlate very closely with Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs" (Frase et al. 1982, p.68). Herzberg's theory has a close conceptual relationship with Maslow's needs hierarchy, where factors in Herzberg's model leading to positive job attitudes do so because of their potential to satisfy the internal need for self-actualisation. Similarly, the physiological needs of Maslow's model correspond to the hygiene factors, or lower order needs of Herzberg's two-factor model as illustrated in Table 2 on the following page. The two differ in that Herzberg's description of needs are not hierarchical.

	Herzberg	Maslow
MOTIVATORS	 creative/challenging work possibility of growth responsibility advancement/recognition 	 self actualisation ego/esteem
aslow's Theorem Sor vel effects such as sali	 status interpersonal relations * superiors * subordinates 	 ego/esteem social/belonging safety/security physiological
MAINTENANCE	* peers	
FACTORS	 supervision policy/administration job security working conditions salary personal life 	Seguranti and Carver (1973) i m), achievement and rocognition probility and the possibility of gro

Table 2: Comparison Between Maslow's Theory And Herzberg's Theory

Source: Turney, C., Hatton, N., Laws, K., Sinclair K., Smith, D. (1992), <u>Educational management roles and tasks</u> -<u>The school manager</u>. Sydney: Allen and Unwin, p. 216. (adapted).

As illustrated in Table 2 above, Maslow concentrates on the general human needs of the individual, while Herzberg focuses on the person in terms of how the job affects basic needs. Both Herzberg's theory and Maslow's theory provide an important basis for understanding the role of motivation in work organisations. Pinder (1984, p. 35) suggests that they have practical utility for the "... design of jobs based on responsibility, achievement and recognition...".

Applied to an educational setting, Herzberg's research has been tested by Wickstrom (1971) who reported a study of teachers in the Province of Saskatchwa, Canada. Schmidt (1976), in reporting a study of 132 high school principals in districts in the Chicago suburbs, confirmed the two different needs factors of Herzberg's model. In ascertaining which factors are most likely to motivate teachers to pursue instructional excellence, Frase et al. (1982, p. 68) state that Herzberg's "motivation-hygiene theory is the most valid source of information to work from". Other researchers (Lawler, 1986; Miner, 1980) also acknowledge the usefulness of the theory in an educational setting.

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Further research with teachers supports Herzberg's theories that extrinsic rewards are less powerful motivators than intrinsic rewards. Lortie (1975) and Kottcamp, Provenzo and Cohn (1986) find that teachers consistently rated extrinsic rewards such as money and fringe benefits as less powerful motivators than intrinsic rewards, such as knowing that students learn from their instruction. However, the complex and little understood links between extrinsic and intrinsic forms of motivation have led other researchers to doubt the usefulness of Herzberg's and Maslow's Theories. Some of the hygiene motivators, like pay and status, contribute to higher level effects such as self-esteem. Similarly, a study by Soliman in 1970 using Herzberg's model, reveals that individuals attributed positive achievement or recognition to themselves and negative incidents to the environment.

Herzberg's motivational model has been replicated by Sergiovanni and Carver (1973) in an educational setting. Their findings reveal that on one hand, achievement and recognition are crucial motivators for teachers along with work itself, responsibility and the possibility of growth. One the other hand, irritating administrative policies, poor relationships with colleagues, lunch duty and paper work are dissatisfying factors. These findings are supported by this study's findings. This differs considerably from business employees. Hygiene factors, too, were different for teachers and business employees, as there exists a different relationship between subordinates and superiors. School principals can only address hygiene issues within their control. It is not possible for most school principals to set pay rates and working conditions. Yet, fundamental working conditions like class size and composition, resources and opportunities for professional development contribute to the gratification of higher level needs (Turney et al., 1992, p. 215).

There is criticism of the method-bound characteristics of the early research supportive of the twofactor model of motivation. This is based on the replicability of the results occurring only when the critical incident technique and in-depth interview method were used (King, 1970). Other rating scales or questionnaire schemata do not support Herzberg's findings. The reliability of Herzberg's methodology is questioned, as well as the inconsistency of the theory by researchers who take account of situational variables (James, 1992). However, from a descriptive point of view, the theory gives a good indication as to what an administrator is likely to find amongst employees in terms of potentially important motivating factors. Herzberg's theory, despite the criticism, remains a powerful explanation of motivation in the workplace. Factors listed as motivators and hygienes in Herzberg's theory would be helpful in determining the effects of principals on their teachers motivation.

Vroom's expectancy model

Vroom, in 1964, formulated a theory of motivation and job satisfaction associated with work settings called the Expectancy Theory. Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation focuses on rational expectations by workers that rewards are likely to be the outcome of certain behaviors (Vroom, 1964, pp.165-167).

Vroom's expectancy theory contains three concepts crucial to understanding the essence of the theory. These three fundamental concepts are; valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Each of these concepts constitutes a belief.

Valence is defined as " affective orientation toward particular outcomes" (Vroom 1964, p. 15). Valence refers to the perceived positive or negative value, worth, or attractiveness that an individual gives to goals, outcomes, rewards or incentives for working in an organisation. It is the strength of a person's desire for a particular reward or the level of satisfaction the person expects to receive from the outcomes or rewards, not the real value actually derived from them.

Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement. It is high when individuals perceive a strong association between performance and being rewarded. Vroom suggests that individuals consider instrumentality as a probability belief linking one outcome (performance level or achievement) to other outcomes. The probability ranges from 1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome is certain if the first outcome is achieved), through to zero (meaning that the attainment there is no likely relationship between first and second) outcomes to -1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome is in no way related to the first).

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At first glance, expectancy does not appear to be substantively different from the concept of instrumentality: "An expectancy is defined as a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, 1964, p. 17). Expectancy refers to the subjective probability or degree of certainty that a given effort will yield a specified performance level. Mathematically the probability can range from zero to one. When expectancy falls to zero, the individual believes that effort is unrelated to performance and when expectancy climbs to one, complete certainty exists.

To distinguish the essential difference between expectancy and instrumentality, the following are critical: expectancies are perceived probabilities, while instrumentalities are perceived correlations. The core of expectancy theory is that individuals are motivated to work hard when they believe working hard is likely to result in desirable rewards.

An illustration of Vroom's expectancy model is presented in Figure 3 on the following page. As seen in Figure 3, moving from the top to the bottom, the force of motivation leads to an observed level of effort or behavior by the person. Efforts combine with others factors to furnish the level of performance. The probability to achieve performance is called expectancy. The instrumentality of the performance acts as data to change the force of motivation in order to attain certain outcomes (valence) that can be both intrinsically and extrinsically rewarding. In brief, force motivation equals the product of expectancy, instrumentality and valence.

needs to be done to obtain desired outcomes, and when the ledividual trais confident in being able to do what is necessary and is given the assistance needed to perform adequately (Vicom, 1964)

Since the rest 1960s, expectancy theory has occupied a disenguished place in the study of motivation at work. This expectancy model is a contingency approach to motivation that taken into account the differences in the desires and needs of teachers (Sergiovanni, 1967). Noviday (1976) found that school principals with higher expectancy metivation were more active in

Force of Motivation
$FM = E\Sigma(IV)$
\downarrow
Effort or Behaviour
\downarrow
Expectancy (E)
with the effort and performance. Another onlicity is the complication of utiliting the methodolog
Performance or Goal Achievement
Other factors: ability, task difficulty, climate
\downarrow
Instrumentality (I)
Locke's opal-solling theory
Extrinsic and intrinsic rewards with valences (V)

Figure 3: Expectancy Theory Model By Vroom

Source: Vroom V. H (1964). Work and Motivation. New York: John Wiley and Sons. (adapted).

Vroom's theory views motivation as a response to an individual's need to achieve a specific goal. Performance on the job, in his view, is a means by which the individual can achieve a personal goal. Motivation comes into existence when outcomes or rewards being offered are perceived by the individual as being desirable. It also comes into existence when an individual knows what needs to be done to obtain desired outcomes, and when the individual feels confident in being able to do what is necessary and is given the assistance needed to perform adequately (Vroom, 1964).

Since the mid 1960s, expectancy theory has occupied a distinguished place in the study of motivation at work. The expectancy model is a contingency approach to motivation that takes into account the differences in the desires and needs of teachers (Sergiovanni, 1987). Nowday (1978) found that school principals with higher expectancy motivation were more active in

attempting to influence decisions. Herrick (1973) reported that schools with high centralisation and stratification levels were staffed with teachers having low forces of expectancy theory.

Miskel, Defrain, and Wilcox (1980) conclude from their study of secondary and higher education teachers that, in order to be motivated, teachers need to believe that they will be successful in doing what is necessary to obtain desired rewards. These researchers advise administrators to provide the conditions that enhance anticipation of rewards which teachers consider important.

One of the criticisms of expectancy theory is that it is unable to explain large variations in criteria such as effort and performance. Another criticism is the complication of utilising the methodology and criteria in the process (House, et al., 1974). Despite criticism of the theory, the theory tends to have a certain significance for educational research as it is a good predicator of job satisfaction and a popular model to explain work motivation

Locke's goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory, launched by Edwin A. Locke in 1968, received considerable attention as a process model of work motivation. Three principles are consistent with Locke's goal-setting theory. The first is setting up appropriate environmental conditions to increase the possible accuracy of a particular behavior, the second principle is setting the goals so that the employee knows what is expected of them, and the third is reinforcing employees for achieving these goals. Two years later, Locke and his associates (Locke, Cartlidge and Knerr, 1970) refined the original theory. According to Locke, a goal is simply defined as what an individual is consciously trying to achieve. Locke's basic assumption is that an individual's intention to achieve a specified goal controls the motivating forces behind work behaviour. Therefore, goal-setting theory has an effect on performance. Locke et al. (1981, p. 45) allege that "[g]oals affect task performance by directing attention and action, mobilising energy expenditure or effort, prolonging effort over time (persistence) and motivating the individual to develop relevant strategies for goal attainment". Extrinsic rewards could affect the level of commitment towards an accepted goal.

Locke (1969) concludes from his studies, conducted between 1966 and 1968 with college students, that specific goals are superior to general goals and that accepted difficult performance goals lead to greater effort than easy performance goals. In other words, the more difficult the

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accepted goal, the greater the level of performance. Locke (1968) claims that the degree of goal acceptance of a specific goal may determine how easily a subject gives up when faced with difficulty, stress or lack of pressure from the outside to achieve that goal.

Using the questionnaire technique and the 21-item Likert scale, Locke's five studies (1970) of college students not only replicate the findings of his previous studies in 1968 but focus on the relationship of goals to performance and the relationship of value judgments to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Locke's studies significantly (p = .01) supported his hypotheses that firstly, the closer subjects come to achieving their desired performance goals, the more satisfied they will be with their performance. Secondly, subjects attempt to maintain performance levels that have produced satisfaction in the past and modify their performance to the degree that their past performances were dissatisfying, and finally, there is a positive correlation between goal level and subsequent performance level.

Goal-setting theory is an inviting process that has great potential when applied to organisations such as schools. In combining goal commitment with goal acceptance (that is, extrinsic factors and participation choices), the theory provides a structure that managers and administrators can put into practice to improve performance through motivation.

Goal-setting theory became increasingly popular during the 1970s as a process approach to work motivation. Some important school practices were adopted that are implicitly based on goal theory such as the modified Management By Objectives (MBO) technique (Drucker, 1954). Behavioural objectives are also frequently used to guide decisions on instructional procedures and course content. In an educational context, administrators and teachers jointly define their common goals in terms of expected outcomes. These outcomes can then be used to assess each member's contributions. This approach assumes that employees will work harder and be more effective in their jobs if they are given responsibility for developing personal goals in relation to the organisation's goals, if they are encouraged to have autonomy over achieving their goals and if they are involved in methods for evaluating their achievement.

Goal-setting theory offers powerful predictions for simple jobs with concrete, measurable outcomes. It is less effective when tasks are complex and dimensions cannot be measured quantitatively (Landy and Becker, 1987). As Miskel (1982, p.79) states "[g]oal setting techniques

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complement and enhance other theories of work motivation, including expectancy theory". Miskel's criticism of Locke's theory (1982) focuses on Locke's failure to specify what determines the degree of goal acceptance and commitment. Nevertheless, Locke (1968) simply acknowledged that the degree of commitment to a goal may determine how easily a subject gives up when faced with difficulty, stress or lack of pressure from the outside to achieve a goal.

At a different level, Steers and Porter (1987) suggest that when the set goals are unfair or unattainable, motivation may be reduced and result in poorer performance and dissatisfaction. Although, Latham and Yukl (1975) found in their study support for the notion that goals increased performance and that difficult goals, if accepted, resulted in greater performance than did easier goals.

In an educational context, principals and teachers jointly define their common goals in terms of expected outcomes. These outcomes can then be used to assess each member's contributions. This approach assumes that if teachers are given responsibility for developing personal goals in relation to the organisation's goals, are encouraged to have autonomy over achieving their goals, and are involved in methods for evaluating their achievement, they will work harder and be more effective in their jobs.

Job characteristics model of motivation

The job characteristics model is one of the more recent theories of work motivation. This extrinsic theory has its foundation in a major study by Turner and Lawrence (1965) which examines the relationship between certain objective attributes of tasks and employees' reactions to their work. This original model is based on six requisite task attributes: variety, autonomy, required interaction, knowledge and skill required and responsibility. Turner and Lawrence hold that the higher a job's standing on these attributes, the more satisfied job-holders are.

This model was revised by Hackman and Lawler, in 1971, to consist of four job dimensions rather than six task attributes. These are: variety, task identity/significance, autonomy and feedback. The model was revised again by Hackman and Oldham in 1980. It is constructed on three

concepts or psychological states found to be critical in determining a person's work motivation and job satisfaction: meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge. First, the sense of *meaningfulness* represents the extent to which an individual experiences the job as being valuable and worthwhile. For a job to be meaningful three crucial characteristics are required: skill variety, task identity and task significance. Second, a sense of *responsibility* which involves the extent to which an individual is personally accountable for the results of his/her work. Autonomy is the major job characteristic that creates a feeling of responsibility. Finally, *knowledge of results* is the extent to which an individual perceives and comprehends the effective performance of his/her work. The focal point is on obtaining direct feedback from the work. The concepts of the job characteristics model are outlined in Figure 4 on the following page.

As shown in Figure 4, the first three dimensions, skills variety, task identity and task significance combine to create purposeful work. If these three dimensions exist in a job, one can predict that the incumbent will view the job as being important. The presence of the dimension autonomy gives the job holder a feeling of personal responsibility for outcomes of the work and that, if a job provides feedback, the worker will know how effectively he or she is performing. From the motivational point of view, the model shows that internal rewards are gained by an employee when they learn (knowledge of results) they personally (experienced responsibility) have performed well on a task that she or he cares about (experienced purpose). The more these dimensions are present, the greater the employee's motivation will be. Figure 4 also shows that the links between the job dimensions and the outcomes are moderated by the employee's skills, growth need and context satisfaction. This means that employees with high moderators are more likely to respond positively to the psychological states.

According to the Job Characteristics Model, when the three psychological states an experienced, the rediction performs butter and is motivated internally. Internal work violivition occurs as a result of the positive techniqs an individual experiences from performing effectively Hackman and Chilinean (1950) find that the content of a person's job is an important critical

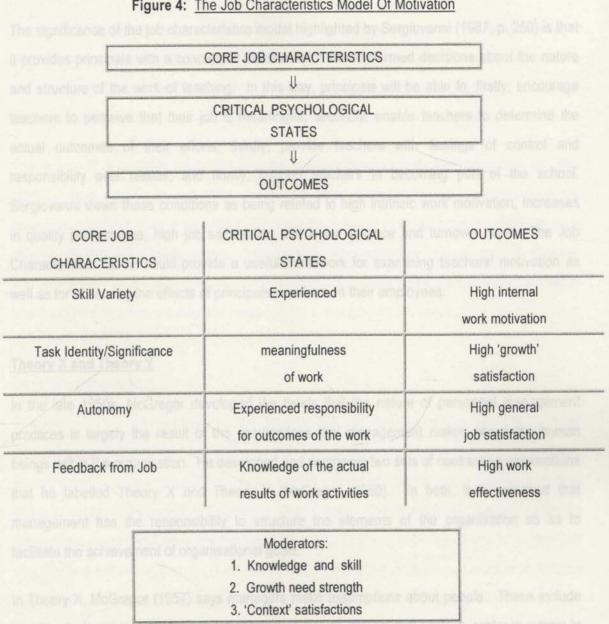


Figure 4: The Job Characteristics Model Of Motivation

Source: Hackman, J.R., and Suttle, J.L. (1977). Work redesign. In Improving Life at Work. Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Co. p. 129. (adapted).

According to the Job Characteristics Model, when the three psychological states are experienced, the individual performs better and is motivated internally. Internal work motivation occurs as a result of the positive feelings an individual experiences from performing effectively. Hackman and Oldham (1980) find that the content of a person's job is an important critical

determinant of internal work motivation. Furthermore, by improving or enriching certain characteristics of a job, internal work motivation can be increased.

The significance of the job characteristics model highlighted by Sergiovanni (1987, p. 250) is that it provides principals with a conceptual framework to make informed decisions about the nature and structure of the work of teaching. In this way, principals will be able to, firstly, encourage teachers to perceive that their job is meaningful; secondly, enable teachers to determine the actual outcomes of their efforts, thirdly, provide teachers with feelings of control and responsibility over results; and finally, support teachers in becoming part of the school. Sergiovanni views these conditions as being related to high intrinsic work motivation, increases in quality performance, high job satisfaction and lower absence and turnover rates. The Job Characteristics Model could provide a useful framework for examining teachers' motivation as well as for observing the effects of principals practices on their employees.

Theory X and Theory Y

In the late 1950s, McGregor developed the thesis that the nature of personnel management practices is largely the result of the assumptions that management makes about the human beings within the organisation. He developed and compared two sets of contrasting assumptions that he labelled Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor, 1960). In both, it is assumed that management has the responsibility to structure the elements of the organisation so as to facilitate the achievement of organisational goals.

In Theory X, McGregor (1957) says managers make assumptions about people. These include that they lack ambition, dislike responsibility, prefer to be led, are self-centred, prefer to remain in old ruts, are gullible and are less than bright. These assumptions lead to ineffective management techniques because managers are then limited to motivating people through control, salary, fringe benefits, security, threat of withdrawal or promise of increased rewards (based on an assumption of the predominance of physiological and security needs). McGregor suggests that these needs are not strong motivators because people in organisations have a higher need for their social esteem and self-fulfilment needs to be met. Therefore they feel

frustrated, discontented, alienated and poorly motivated. He advocates an alternative theory of personnel management based on different assumptions, which he called Theory Y.

In Theory Y, McGregor advocates an approach to management based on the human needs of belonging, esteem and self-actualisation. He says it is the responsibility of management to provide structures that make it possible for people to feel accepted and valued and to feel that they can best work toward their own goals by working towards organisational goals.

This approach is certainly consistent with the human resources approach advocated by Miles (1965). Both McGregor and Miles assume a broad base of human competence in the organisation which needs to be utilised. Through the process of utilising human potential, more effective decisions are implemented. Consequently better motivated and performing personnel are developed. These assumptions are particularly appropriate to the educational organisation which requires creative and adaptive responses to a changing environment.

Conceptual framework

This review of the different theories of motivation indicates that the researchers have studied different aspects of jobs from which to view motivational factors. The work of Maslow, Herzberg, Porter, Vroom, Locke, Hackman and Lawler, and McGregor provides a useful infrastructure from which to construct a conceptual framework for this study. Collectively, their theories catalogue motivational factors and advocate the need for a broad perspective when trying to understand why teachers behave as they do. From this review of the different theories of motivation, teacher motivation can best be understood within a framework of diversity. That is, consideration must be given to the way in which characteristics of the individual, the workplace and the organisation can interact to influence the motivation of teachers in the workplace.

Teachers bring to their workplace differing interests, attitudes and needs. These individual characteristics, coupled with the likelihood and desirability of rewards, can have a significant influence on work motivation. Teachers' individual preferences might influence the way in which extrinsic rewards affect their motivation, effort and performance. Teachers' attitudes therefore,

might play an important role in their motivation to perform. For example, teachers who have negative attitudes towards their work would be less inclined to perform well.

Teachers' needs are crucial elements in the determination of work motivation, effort and performance. Teachers who have a high need for achievement might be motivated to compete against others in order to satisfy their need. Moreover, teachers with a high need for achievement generally perform better than those who have lower needs for achievement. It appears that this would support a strong argument in favour of administrators creating a positive milieu that provides increased recognition, self esteem and opportunity for self actualisation for teachers, whom Herzberg labelled "motivation seekers".

The leadership style of the principal is another factor that plays an important role in teacher motivation (Mulford, 1996). Administrators, therefore, play an important role in determining the level of teachers' motivation as they control the feedback and incentives that many teachers perceive as rewards needed for their long-term satisfaction and motivation.

This conceptual framework has the potential to be used to demonstrate how a teacher's interpretation of his/her experiences of working with principals, coupled with their own individual needs can interact and influence work motivation. This conceptual framework is used to guide the quantitative and qualitative investigation of what makes the differences in teacher motivation in the six particular schools in the study.

Summary

This review of the different theories of motivation provides a background and framework for this study on the effect of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation, and the identification of the motivational dimensions. The research on motivation theory established a theoretical knowledge base from which to study the principal-teacher relationship. On examining the area of staff motivation, it is evident that much of the literature pertains directly to those factors that affect teachers' motivation. A plethora of research, particularly the research related to effective schools, concerns the role principals play in creating successful schools that are characterised

by highly motivated teachers. Many of the findings referred to in the literature discuss strategies or techniques that administrators could consider if they are to understand fully what motivates teachers and what exactly teachers value.

Interestingly any one theory of teacher motivation will fail to address all of the factors that influence the motivation of teachers. Moreover, the aforementioned theories are not in competition with one another. In fact, many of these theories presented in this chapter are complementary. However, all of the facets of teacher motivation are covered individually as each theory takes a particular perspective on motivation and then relates it to the needs of those concerned. To date, no one motivational theory incorporating all the different views has been developed. These theories served to guide the development of the questionnaire and, the analysis of data by providing a framework for examining the effects of the principal leadership style on teacher motivation and the identification of motivational dimensions.

If anything, this chapter indicates that leaders could influence employees' motivation by taking an active role in energising their staff. Four conclusions are made here. Firstly, leaders can influence the work motivation of staff by creating a positive milieu that enhances and encourages employees motivation. This reinforces the first objective for this study (Ch. 1, p.11). Secondly, leaders are required to be sensitive to a number of staff needs, by identifying the appropriate motivational strategies that influence staff performance. This, in turn, stresses the importance of the second objective (Ch. 1, p.11). Thirdly, leaders are accountable to continually monitor needs, abilities, goals and preferences of staff by establishing a solid channel of communication, and finally, leaders need to provide employees with duties that offer task diversity, challenge and various opportunities for realising their satisfaction and rewards.

In summary, the core theme of this chapter is that leaders need to be actively involved and interested in teachers work at school. If motivation is to be directed and energised, principals need to be aware of the needs, intentions, and goals of both the school and teachers and support them. Failure to do so could affect teacher motivation in a negative manner.

In the following chapter, a review of the literature related to teacher motivation is discussed with a special focus on central themes that many scholars have synthesised which are critical to teacher motivation.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

introduction

The central aim of the present study is to examine the effects of the principal's leadurship style on teacher inclusion and to identify the motivations' strategies. The Transform reviewed in this chapter examines the resparch stready conducted into leadership in organisational and educational settings. Several diverse perspectives of leadership are considered, however, there is a displayers emphasis places on the importance of the transformational leadership style and its multifunctional practices in unstable social and economic times and rapidly changing organisational environments. Also this chapter focuses on discussions affecting schools and leacher motivation in an increasingly competitive, market-based society. Dimensions included are school restrictiving, decision-making, increasion, recognition, parsonal regard and protessispel provin.

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Chapter Three

Review of Literature

Introduction

The central aim of the present study is to examine the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and to identify the motivational strategies. The literature reviewed in this chapter examines the research already conducted into leadership in organisational and educational settings. Several diverse perspectives of leadership are considered, however, there is a distinctive emphasis placed on the importance of the transformational leadership style and its multifunctional practices in unstable social and economic times and rapidly changing organisational environments. Also this chapter focuses on dimensions affecting schools and teacher motivation in an increasingly competitive, market-based society. Dimensions included are school restructuring, decision-making, teamwork, recognition, personal regard and professional growth.

A schematic diagram of the factors affecting teacher motivation as found in the literature reviewed, in this chapter, is presented in Figure 5 on the following page. As can be seen in Figure 5, the principal's leadership role is of central and critical importance for enhancing motivation in general and that there are six other major dimensions such as, decision-making, teamwork, recognition, personal regard, school restructuring and professional growth activities.

According to Figure 5 motivation can be seen to be multidimensional and bidirectional, flowing in both directions between givers and receivers and has definite outcomes for teachers in terms of affecting their motivation hopefully positively. The symbol of the circle in the diagram emphasises that none of the six major dimensions identified by the research is more important than the others and that effective motivation can only occur when all of the six major factors are in operation in the organisational environment of the school.

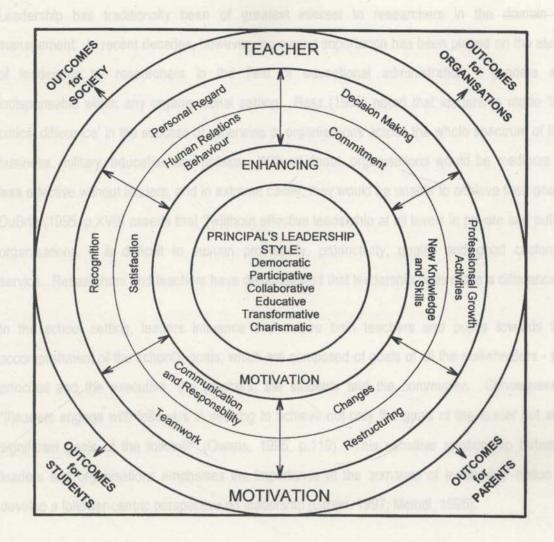


Figure 5: Factors affecting teacher motivation according to the literature review

The following sections of this chapter will consider each dimension cited in Figure 5 above and the way in which it affects teacher motivation. The motivational theories presented in chapter 2 give us some insight into how individuals' needs influence their level of motivation, whereas the literature reviewed in this chapter gives us some insights into how challenging and effective it is for organisations to use the different factors that could influence teacher motivation. The first dimension to be presented is leadership.

Leadership

Leadership has traditionally been of greatest interest to researchers in the domain of management. In recent decades, however, increasing importance has been placed on the study of leadership by researchers in the field of educational administration. Leaders are indispensable within any organisational setting. Bass (1990) noted that leadership made 'the critical difference' in the success or otherwise of organisations across the whole spectrum of life: business, military, education and politics. Without doubt, organisations would be mediocre or less effective without leaders, and in extreme cases, they would be unable to achieve their goals. DuBrin (1995, p.XVII) asserts that "[w]ithout effective leadership at all levels in private and public organisations, it is difficult to sustain profitability, productivity, quality and good customer service...Researchers and teachers have demonstrated that leadership does make a difference".

In the school setting, leaders influence and inspire both teachers and pupils towards the accomplishment of the school's goals, which are composed of goals of all the stakeholders - the principal and the executive, the teachers, the students and the community. Consequently, "[I]eaders engage with followers in seeking to achieve not only the goals of the leader but also significant goals of the follower" (Owens, 1995, p.119). This sensitive relationship between leaders and organisations emphsises the importance of the 'romance of leadership' notion to develop a follower-centric perspective on leadership (Gronn, 1997; Meindl, 1995).

Considering the effects that leaders have on the organisational performance and consequently confidence in an organisation, Meindl (1990) pointed out that it is very likely to attribute organisational accomplishment or achievement to leaders when performance is extreme, either very good or very bad. Moreover, it is more likely to evaluate organisational performance positively when it could be attribute the performance to leaders. This signifies that, in terms of the leader/follower/organisation relationship, leaders are likely to have a strong impact on both organisations and employees. The romance of leadership, which highlights leadership as a social construction, embraces the phenomenological significance of leadership to followers' organisational practices. It is about "the thoughts of followers: how leaders are constructed and represented in their thought systems. The romance of leadership perspective focuses on the

linkage between leaders and followers as constructed in the minds of followers" (Meindl, 1995, p.330).

The follower-centric social construction perspective on leadership stresses the importance of leader prototypes (Gronn, 1997). This sheds some light on the images of leaders that followers construct for one another, and take out of the forefront emphasis on the personality of the leader as a significant, substantive, and causal power on the actions and thoughts of followers. Gronn (1997) states that "leadership is an emergent, attributed status...and an influence deemed legitimate by followers and leading is a symbolic activity defined as the framing of meaning". He also argued that the romance of leadership must be culturally deep-rooted to account for organisational performance. This current study, conducted specifically in the context of religious missionary schools of the Maronite culture (Chapter 4), considers the notion of the romance of leadership specifically to determine the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation.

Although leadership is vital to all kinds of organisations and has been studied for decades, It is still as mysterious as it is a sophisticated concept (Bass, 1990). Even after hundreds of studies, there is still a lack of consensus among the researchers on exactly what leadership is and how to define it. The following section examines some of the existing definitions of leadership.

Definition of leadership

The complexity that arises when defining the word 'leadership' has amazed a huge number of scholars. The plethora of works on leadership means that a definitive definition of leadership is difficult, as leadership has been interpreted in many different ways over the years. Bass (1990, p.11) states that "[t]here are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who attempted to define the concept". However, many scholars are reluctant to define leadership as they fear that no one knows what leadership really is, so they see no point in defining it at all (Rost, 1993).

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There seem to be four common components included in the majority of leadership definitions: influence, organisational goals, vision and behavior (Burns, 1978; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988; Gronn, 1996; Parry, 1996; Caldwell and Hayward, 1998). For instance, Bass (1960, p. 447) believes that "[I]eadership is the observed effort of one member to change other members' behaviour by altering the motivation of the other members or by changing their habits". He elaborated this definition in 1981 when he revised Stodgill's *Handbook of Leadership* stating that "for the purpose of this Handbook, leadership must be defined broadly. Leadership is an interaction between members of a group. Leaders are agents of change, persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them...leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group" (Bass, 1981, p.16). More recently, there has been a remarkable emphasis on leadership as a social influence. Bryman (1986, p.2), in his review of a number of leadership definitions, noted that "the common element in these definitions imply that leadership involves a social influence process in which a person steers members of the group towards a goal".

Moreover, scholars remain divided over the definition of leadership as management. Though some consider management and leadership to be part of the same dynamic (Yukl, 1989; Duignan, 1988), others are careful to distinguish between leadership and management, as they assert that management and leadership are clearly in some ways similar...but despite some similarities, differences exist which make management and leadership very distinct (Sungaila, 1989; Kotter, 1990). However there is still ample evidence suggesting that organisational performance is best achieved by a balance of good management and good leadership (Sarros et al., 1992).

In summary, leadership definitions found in the literature are diverse and abundant but the main element to be extracted for them all is that leaders engage followers to perform to achieve the organisation's goals. Mazzarella and Smith (1989) conclude that leadership research has changed significantly over the last fifty years. While early studies concentrate on what makes a good leader and the traits of a leader, the ensuing focus is on identifying what is unique to different styles of leadership and what are the best leadership styles for different situations.

Leadership style

For several decades, the study of leadership has been a fascinating and principal part of the literature on management and organisational behavior (Yukl, 1989). In recent years, especially in 1990s, transformational leadership has become a distinguished topic for many scholars in psychology, management, sociology, and education (Gronn, 1997, 1996, 1995; Parry, 1996; Bass and Avolio, 1994, 1989; Avolio and Bass,1988; Leithwood et al., 1996; Atwater and Yammarion, 1992; Bass, 1990). Similarly, considerable research (Parry, 1993; Bass; 1990; Conger, Kanungo and Associates, 1988; Duignan and Macpherson, 1992) has been done on transactional leadership, charismatic leadership, and educative leadership. These theories enable greater integration of the leadership literature and represent a significant step in the understanding of leadership (Yukl, 1989). Nevertheless, there is a frequent overlap among these various theories, notably between transformational and charismatic leadership theories, as there is a tendency amongst scholars to consider them as synonymous (Bryman, 1992). The following section discusses the importance of these theories in greater depth.

a) Transactional leadership

A transactional leader avows employees' needs and helps them to meet these needs in exchange for enactment of work duty. By doing so, a transactional leader is able to take into consideration the employee's self-concept and esteem needs, as well as endeavouring to the employee's effort to achieve the desired performance and outcome (Yammarino, Spangler and Bass, 1993).

Moreover, a transactional leader maps for the followers the procedure to satisfy their needs by putting in place the necessary effort to complete the leader's objectives. A significant paragraph concerning transactional leadership is pointed out by Starratt (1993, p. 7):

Transactional leadership usually involves an exchange of some kind, a granted request here for a future request there; a vote on this in return for a vote on that. These exchanges are governed by instrumental values such as fairness, honesty, loyalty, integrity. The transactional leader ensures that procedures by

which people enter into these transactions are clear, above board and take in account the rights and needs of people involved.

A transactional leadership is a leader who "recognises the role the follower must play to attain the outcomes desired by the leader ... and recognises what the follower needs and clarifies how those needs will be fulfilled in exchange for the follower's satisfactory effort and performance" (Bass, 1985, p. 13). This kind of leadership also deals with followers through two components that determine their relationship (Bass, 1985): contingent reward and management-by-exception. Contingent reward is the agreement between the leader and the followers on what the latter is required to perform in order to be rewarded and praised. Podsakoff et al. (1990) highlight positive reward behavior as contingent on followers' performance leads to higher levels of followers' satisfaction and performance. Management-by-exception is a relationship between the leader and the follower in which the leader intervenes if something is done wrongly by the The leader, in this case, intervenes by either providing negative feedback or follower. alternatively using contingent aversive reward. This can take one of two forms: either in the active, in which the leader intervenes before a problem occurs in order to prevent the problem, or in the passive, in which the leader intervenes after a problem has occurred in order to rectify the problem and punish the follower (Howell and Avolio, 1993). The outcome of transactional leadership is that "subordinates learn what they must do to gain rewards and to avoid punishments through an exchange process with their superior" (Avolio and Bass, 1988, p. 30).

b) Transformational leadership

The Transformational leadership style has been widely addressed in the works of several scholars (Bass and Avolio, 1994, 1990; Gronn, 1995; Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Bass, 1995, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Hater and Bass, 1988; Howell and Frost, 1989; Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Yammarino, Spangler and Bass, 1993, Parry, 1996, 1994, 1993, 1992; Druskat, 1994). The origin of transformational leadership emerges from the writings of Max Weber (1963) on charismatic leadership and Downton (1973) on rebel leadership. Transformational leadership involves creating a vision for an organisation that embraces the values and motivations shared by both

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leaders and followers. It also involves earning the trust of followers and their motivation to share in and implement the vision. The quality of personal interactions determines the success in collaboratively achieving the mission and goals of the organisation. Starratt (1993, p.7) states:

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, seeks to unite people in the pursuit of communal interests beyond their individual interests. Motivating such collective actions are large values such as freedom, community, equity, justice, brotherhood. Transformational leadership calls members' attention to the basic purpose of the organisation, to the relationship between the organisation and the society it serves. Transformational leadership attempts to elevate members' selfcentred attitudes, values and beliefs to higher, altruistic attitudes, values and beliefs.

Transformational leadership is seen when leaders elevate the interests of their followers; when they provoke alertness and acceptance among followers of the mission and goals of the organisation; when they advance followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the organisation (Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) also describes the transforming leader as one who not only moves followers up on Maslow's Hierarchy (Chapter. 2, pp.17–20) but also moves them to transcend their own self-interests. Similarly, Bass (1985) describes transformational leaders as continually developing to higher levels and developing followers into leaders. Thus, transformational leaders motivate followers to do more than originally expected. The transcendent level of motivation is coupled to three factors of transformational leadership (Bass, 1990; Avolio and Bass, 1988; Hater and Bass, 1988).

Firstly, transformational leaders are seen as charismatic in the eyes of their followers. They have great influence and power, inspire loyalty to the organisation, impose respect, and have a vision (House, 1977). Charisma provides followers with a clear mission and encourages their response. Followers seek to identify with charismatic leaders, and have a considerable degree of trust and confidence in them. Charismatic and inspirational qualities have been tested at all levels of organisations (Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1989).

The second factor of transformational leadership is individualised consideration. The leader pays attention to followers' needs for personal growth. He or she sets a role model in order to elevate

followers' needs and abilities to higher levels. Individualised consideration is a method of communicating as well as mentoring and coaching followers. It yields for continuous follow-up, gives feedback, and combines followers' needs to the organisational mission and goals (Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1989).

Finally, transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation. The leader helps followers rethink rational ways to examine a situation. He or she arouses an awareness of their own thoughts, and a recognition of their beliefs and values. Leaders are willing and able to show followers new ways in solving problems as well as encouraging followers to be creative (Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1989).

On the one hand, the individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation dimensions of transformational leadership proposed by Bass (1985) are, to a certain degree, similar to the higher-order 'currencies of exchange' described by Dienesch and Liden (1986). They may be demonstrated to followers only when the leader receives affect, stimulation, or commitment in return. On the other hand, charisma, the third dimension of transformational leadership may not be exchange-based (Bass, 1985). Charismatic leadership involves the articulation of vision, and the sensitivity to the skill deficiencies of followers (Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Charismatic leadership will be further discussed late in this chapter.

Despite the importance of charisma for transformational leadership, it is not enough for successful transformational leadership, as Bass (1985, p. 31) precisely declared:

The deep emotional attachment which characterises the relationship of the charismatic leader to followers may be present when transformational leadership occurs, but we can distinguish a class of charismatics who are not at all transformational in their influence. Celebrities may be identified as charismatic by a large segment of the public. Celebrities are held in awe and reverence by the masses who are developed by them. People will be emotionally aroused in the presence of celebrities at all in any transformation of their public. On the other hand, with charisma, transformational leaders can play the role of teacher, mentor, coach, reformer or revolutionary. Charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership but by itself it is not sufficient to account for the transformational process.

Chapter Three

Despite the plethora of work on transformational leadership that shows that transformational leaders are "good role models to others" (Parry, 1996, p. 32), the best leaders are indeed transformational (House, Spangler and Woyke, 1991), and are highly effective in a variety of organisational settings (Bass, 1985). It is argued that transformational leadership is neither another behavioral theory, nor is it inconsistent with the concept of contingency leadership. Yet a key issue, the long-term connection between transformational and transactional leadership and performance, has been ignored. This long-term linkage needs to be examined empirically in research on transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders go beyond transactional leaders because they not only create the vision but they motivate followers to be involved in defining and implementing organisational change (Busch 1989, and Owens 1995). Therefore, transformational leadership is "qualitatively different from, and ethically superior to, what appears to be crude manipulation and control" (Gronn, 1995, p.16). The differences between transformational and transactional leadership are not going to be treated in a form of comparison between these two leadership styles, but rather according to their impact on the followers.

Impact of Transactional and Transformational leadership

As the principal aim of this study is to examine the effects of the principal's leadership styles on teacher motivation and to identify motivational strategies, emphasis needs to be placed on the effects of the transactional and transformational leadership on followers, rather than to stressing the distinction in practices and factors between both of them. Nevertheless, it is crucial to mention that Burns (1978) was the first researcher to specify the distinction between transactional and transformational leadership. He claimed that transactional and transformational leadership. He claimed that transactional and transformational. Bass (1985) disagreed with Burns on this point and instead considered these two styles of leadership as being somewhat complementary, and that both can be manifested by the same leader. Moreover, Conger, Kanungo and Associates (1988) suggest that both transactional and transformational leadership could have the effect of motivation on followers. Compatible with this view, transactional leadership is seen by

Bass (1985) as being extended by transformational leadership in its effects on performance. That is, the base for the expected level of performance is arranged by transactional leadership, while transformational leadership is established upon that base performance beyond expectations.

According to Bass (1985), these two forms of leadership have slightly different effects on followers. Transactional leadership relies on contingent reward to get followers to achieve the negotiated level of performance. In this case, the two parties, the leader and followers, reach an agreement concerning what the followers are going to receive in return for achieving the negotiated level of performance. Rewards are therefore provided when the agreement is satisfactorily accomplished, and the relationship between the leader and the followers is likely to be continued as long as the exchange is mutually rewarding. Some research (Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Podsakoff and Schriesheim, 1985) has shown that leadership style based on contingent reward can positively affect followers' satisfaction and performance. Yet, other research (Yammarino and Bass, 1990) has shown that the impact was negative in certain circumstances.

At the opposite pole, contingent reprimand or management-by-exception, has a definite negative impact on the satisfaction and performance of followers, especially if the leader lets problems explode before taking any necessary action (Bass and Yammarino, 1991; Waldman, Atwater and Bass, 1992). Contingent aversive reward serves to clarify roles for followers and, in this way, represents an important feature of leadership (Yukl, 1989).

In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership would result in a positive feeling in followers that excites them to perform beyond the expected level of performance, as a direct consequence of the leader's influence (Bass, 1985). This occurs through the followers' extra effort due to their commitment to their leader, their intrinsic motivation, and the sense of mission that drives them to excel beyond the standard limits. By paying attention to followers' self-interests and needs as well as their shared values, transformational leaders can motivate followers to maximise their performance for a higher collective purpose, mission, ideal and vision (Parry, 1994). Evidence about the effects of transformational school leadership has been

provided by a number of scholars (Bass, 1985; Koh, 1990; Leithwood et. Al., 1996), some of which have been highlighted by Leithwood et al.,(1996, p.820) who grouped them into "effects on perception of leaders, effects on the behavior of followers, effects on followers' psychological states, organisational level effects and students effects". These effects will be explained more fully later in this chapter.

The research into the relationship of followers' satisfaction and leader effectiveness to transformational and transactional leadership has shown that followers are more satisfied when led by a transformational rather than a transactional leader (Bass, 1985; Ross, 1990; Yammarino, Spangler and Bass, 1993). While both transactional and transformational leaders are focused on achieving goals, the process by which this is done is completely different. Burns (1978, p.20) suggests that "[I]eaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation". Transformational leadership is a successful training tool for all kinds of management (Bass and Avolio, 1990). However, charismatic leaders are also able to motivate, influence and inspire followers in different organisational settings as will be discussed next.

c) Charismatic leadership

There exists considerable debate whether charismatic leadership is a distinct and separate transformational leadership behavior. Bass (1985) proposed that the important dimension of transformational leadership is charismatic leadership. Charismatic leaders are perceived as trustworthy, highly confident and worthy of respect (Avolio and Bass, 1990). Under charismatic leadership, followers are inspired to higher levels of motivation and performance in support of organisational goals. Bass proposes that charisma is an essential transformational leader behavior. An alternative view is that charisma is an attribute followers make of their leaders (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

The concept of charismatic leadership was introduced by Max Weber (1924/1947), who was the first scholar to use the term charisma in order to describe a kind of social authority (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Weber (1978, pp. 241–242) defines the term charisma as:

A certain quality of an individual's personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities.

According to Weber (1978) charisma is not internal in leaders; it is more about how the follower relates to those leaders with regard to charismatic authority. Similarly, Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 24) state that "charisma is believed not to reside solely in the leader and his or her personal attributes but rather in the interplay between the leader's attributes and the needs, beliefs, values, and perceptions of followers". Charismatic leaders inspire in their followers unquestioning loyalty and devotion (Bass, 1985). They have "extraordinary influence over their followers, who become imbued with moral inspiration and purpose" (Bass, 1990, p. 184). However, Avolio and Bass (1988) make the point that a purely charismatic leader may keep his followers from personally growing as individuals. A purely charismatic leader may not want followers to question what the leader says, while a charismatic leader who is transformational will. That is why Yukl (1989, p. 226) raises the point of the "dark side of charisma". Another criticism of the early work on charismatic leadership is that the explication of it lacked specificity. Few attempts have been made to develop and test specific charismatic qualities such as vision, acts of heroism, and the ability to inspire (Willner, 1984).

Several scholars (House, 1977; Bennis, 1984; Conger and Kanungo, 1988) attempt to identify the personal characteristics of charismatic leaders. Conger and Kanungo (1988) highlight a number of these characteristics: being radical, unconventional, risk-taking, visionary, entrepreneurial and a role model. House (1977) identifies three: extremely high confidence, dominance, and strong convictions in his or her beliefs. Nonetheless, among those elements allied with charismatic leadership, two appear to be fundamental. "The first is the pattern of abilities, interests and personal traits that is common to most charismatic leaders. The second is the strong desire by followers to identify with the leader" (Bass, 1990, p. 188).

Yet, commentators notice the tight association of vision with charismatic leadership. It is argued that the first point in exercising charismatic leadership is practising a shared vision of what the future could be. Next, the visionary charismatic leader links followers' goals and needs to

organisational goals. Conger and Kanungo (1988) allege that the charismatic leader evokes a vision that the followers view as worthwhile his or her effort, which in turn increases their commitment and motivation. Sashkin (1988) highlights three critical factors for visionary leadership. Firstly, leaders possess cognitive skills that are necessary to originate a vision. Secondly, leaders need to be aware of the essence of an organisational vision. And finally, leaders need to have the ability to articulate the vision. This model of visionary leadership means that followers, being a part of an organisation, are like clients who must want to buy the leader's vision and translate it into practice.

A model of four stages of charismatic leadership was constructed by Conger and Kanungo (1988, pp. 27–28). In the first stage, the charismatic leader discovers deficiencies and unexploited opportunities in the organisation and formulates an idealised strategic vision of what the organisation needs to do. Leaders who propose small changes, however, may be effective but would not be described as charismatic (Yukl, 1994). In the second stage, the charismatic leader communicates the vision, indicating how it will move the organisation beyond the status quo and motivates subordinates to commit themselves to the vision. In stage three, the charismatic leader builds trust and establishes credibility in her or himself. Often, such leaders use highly unconventional behaviors to achieve their vision. And, in stage four, the charismatic leader shows the followers how to achieve the vision through empowering the followers and by being a role model of the new non-conformist way of performing.

The charismatic leader uses praise and recognition to instill followers with the belief that they can achieve the vision. Two factors seem critical for this success: the first is personal identification, that is, the followers want to adopt and follow the leader, and the second is internalisation, that is, the adoption of the leader's values in such a way that he or she establishes the norms for individual behavior (Yukl, 1994).

Research by Bass and his colleagues reveals that charisma is an important component of transformational leadership (Yammarino and Bass, 1990). However, in different circumstances, charisma has been distinguished from transformational practice, the reason being that transformational leadership develops followers into becoming leaders rather than exciting them,

as charismatic figures are inclined to do (Avolio and Bass, 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1990). Studies show that charismatic leadership is a relevant predictor of leader effectiveness (Seltzer and Bass, 1990), the work performance of managers (Hater and Bass, 1988), and business unit performance (Avolio and Howell, 1992; Howell and Avolio, 1993). Therefore, in this study charismatic leadership is included as a component of the principal's leadership style. This leads me to look carefully at one of the theories that directly concerns the leader of an educational organisation setting, that is Educative Leadership.

d) Educative leadership

With regard to educative leadership, Duigan and Macpherson (1992, p.4) put forward a practical theory which is holistic and able to include the abstract concepts of ideas and reflection. They say that this kind of leadership is necessary in educational institutions which have been subjected to dramatic and sometimes traumatic reforms in recent years. They state that:

Educative leadership must closely respond to the cultural context, be critically aware of the long-term practices of participants in the educational process...The educative leader is one who communicates a sense of excitement, originality and freshness in an organisation. We believe that an educative leader is a person who challenges others to participate in the visionary activity of defining 'rightness' and preferred ways of doing and acting in education.

In addition, Duignan and Macpherson (1992, p. 47) also suggest that:

Leadership in education should contribute understanding of and respect for genuine differences in needs, problems and opinions. It should facilitate the learning that leads to such understanding within decision-making about education as much as in classroom teaching and learning. Leadership in education should be educative.

Therefore the educative leader is one who takes the initiative by creating opportunities to allow participants in the change process to be reflective and to develop a personal understanding of what change means for them; by encouraging stakeholders to form social groups to provide

mutual support during the change process; by providing opportunities for positive feedback; and, by being sensitive to possible outcomes and providing mechanisms for follow-up.

Regarding the rationalisation of educational servies, Petit et al. (1990) recommend that educative leaders accept three main responsibilities. Firstly, they should provide the processes whereby educators can accelerate "double loop learning" (Argyris, 1982, p.162). Secondly, educative leaders should provide the support services that help ameliorate the radical change (Macpherson and Vann, 1996). Finally, educative leaders must also provide appropriate leadership services at each stage of reorganisation.

The importance of this leadership style to this study is that educative leadership theory developed in educational organisation settings, and the organisations that are being investigated for this study are educational settings. Thus, the common ground between this study and the educative leadership style is the educational settings as well as the impact or role of leadership. This theory leads me to look at Sergiovanni's leadership model which was also developed in an educational context.

e) Sergiovanni's leadership model

Leadership involves a combination of five forces according to Sergiovanni (1987, p. 66) who recognised the need for these to be present in the role of the principal, especially if he or she wants to make a difference to the life of teachers and to improve an organisation setting (Sergiovanni, 1987). These five forces are firstly, *technical talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should be competent managers who can provide planning, organising, co-ordinating and scheduling and are skilled at manipulating strategies and situations to ensure optimal effectiveness; secondly, *human talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should be competent at leaders for leadership in schools - educational leaders should be competent at leaders for leadership in schools - educational leaders should be competent at leaders social and interpersonal potential using human relations skills and knowledge of how to appreciate and use the difference and diversity in the people with whom they work; thirdly, *educational talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should have expert knowledge in education and schooling; fourthly, *symbolic talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should have expert knowledge in education and schooling; fourthly, *symbolic talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should have expert knowledge in education and schooling; fourthly, symbolic talents for leadership in schools - educational leaders should have expert knowledge in education and schooling; fourthly, symbolic talents for leadership in schools - educational leaders should have the ability to maintain the focus and

purpose of their school; and finally, *cultural talents* for leadership in schools - educational leaders should be able to build a unique school culture.

In his leadership model, Sergiovanni (1984) distinguishes between strategic and tactical aspects of leadership with a specific emphasis on tactics to highlight the effectiveness climate, and this raises the concern of overlooked values and purposes. He also emphasises the relevance of the symbolic talents that involves greater visibility on the principals' part, associated with cultural force which together create a special vision for the school as well as a special school culture.

Pertaining to this study, the human force of Sergiovanni's leadership is more relevant as, at this level, the leader could establish a positive relationship with the staff, and good interpersonal human skills to positively influence his or her followers. As the main aim of this study is to examine the effects of the princiap's leadership style on teacher motivation, this level of force associated with the others will be given special attention to examine the effects of the principals on teacher motivation in the chapter eight. Particularly, principals at schools have greater scope for leading than most managers do (Yukl, 1989) because they can appeal to the values, mission, goals and the ideals of those in the organisation setting.

Principal's leadership role in teacher motivation

The next factor to be examined is the role of the principal as the possible key to creating the conditions for teacher motivation and satisfaction. Morris (1981, p.1) reports that teachers are more motivated as well as satisfied with their work when principals have "...a firm sense of professional autonomy and regard their staff members as competent, independent professionals". The complexity of the role of the principal is a theme that is pervasive in the literature (Chapman, 1991; Fullan, 1993; Webb and Vulliamy, 1996; Ehrich, 1998). This complexity has been due in part to a range of pressures associated with increasing demands for public accountability, diminishing resources and new sets of administration, and management responsibilities (Chapman, 1991).

Chapter Three

Educational researchers such as Conger et al. (1988), Sergiovanni (1987) and Starrat (1993) argue that the role of the principal can be applied to improving schools and the quality of education as well as teacher motivation. Studies of leadership style and its effect on teacher motivation (Hallinger and Heck 1995; Murphy and Beck, 1995) show that the behaviour of the leader is an important factor in group effectiveness. This behaviour is defined by Simpkins et al. (1987) as the principal providing his or her staff with opportunities to experience a sense of achievement, recognition for their efforts, and opportunities for responsible advancement.

The principal's leadership role is well documented in the literature of effective schools (Andrews and Soder, 1987; Glasman and Heck, 1992; Hallinger, 1992, 1995). However, the conceptualisation of principal leadership has evolved considerably over the last two decades (Hallinger and Heck, 1996). Predominant notions of the principals' role have emphasised the instructional role of the principal (Scott and Teddlie, 1987; Hallinger and Murphy, 1986). Concerns, however, were raised by a number of scholars regarding the concept of instructional leaders (Hallinger and Heck, 1996). Moreover, the focus of attention has shifted greatly following a number of recent studies on principal leadership by Leithwood and his associates (1990, 1992, 1993), Leithwood (1994) and Silins (1994). These latter studies examined the transformational and transactional leadership style of principals, and provided evidence that the form of leadership perceived as most helpful by teachers involved in educational change is transformational leadership, which has also been identified by a number of scholars as the kind of educational leadership necessary to take schools into the third millenium (Fullan, 1991; Leithwood, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1990). The influence of principal transformational leadership practices on teacher commitment, for instance, through vision-creating and goal consensusbuilding is stated by Leithwood (1994, p.93):

Our study draws attention, in particular, to how defensible are the school's goals in the minds of teachers as well as how compatible are such goals with teachers' own personal/professional goals. Also crucial, however, are teachers' views of the school culture...Leaders should make use of those cultural-changing strategies that are now becoming evident in recent research...these strategies include, for example, selecting staff whose values reflects those considered

important to the school, telling stories that illustrate shared values, using rituals to express cultural values, and sharing power and responsibility with others.

Yet, the importance of principal transformational leadership is evident through his or her perceptions of leaders, on followers' behaviours, on organisational-level effects, and on students (Leithwood et al., 1996, p.820-27). The effects on perceptions of leaders are most strongly related to "charisma/vision/inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and contingent reward" (Leithwood et al., 1996, p. 822). The effects on followers highlighted by Leithwood and associates (1996) are commitment, developmental press, control press, and satisfaction while Helm (1989) pointed out the aspects of principal leadership contributing to teacher morale including warm, informal positive relationships between principals and teachers and the creation of opportunities for shared decision-making. With respect to organisationallevel effects Leithwood and associates (1996, p. 826) mentioned several factors about tranformational principal leadership that were helpful in fostering organisational learning. These factors are, particularly, "vision building, individual support, intellectual stimulation, modelling, culture building, and holding high performance expectations". The contributions of transformational principal leadership to the organisational climate and culture have been studied by several scholars (Vandenburghe and Staessens, 1991; Sashkin and Sashkin, 1990) who claimed that transformational leadership contributes to more desirable school cultures and climates. Little evidence has been reported concerning the effects on pupils, except the mediated effects by teachers on students (Leithwood et al., 1996, p.827).

The success of school leaders, according to Ackerman et al. (1996, p. 1), relies on "...their ability to see clearly the school's core functions, to evaluate events in light of these functions and to help the members of the school community conduct their work and their relationships in ways that serve these core functions". Bailey and Adams (1990, p. 28) assert that effective principals have to make a conscious choice for leadership. They note that techniques for developing non-bureaucratic leadership have to be identified and used on a daily basis to achieve a "...higher level of educational excellence". Pellicer et al. (1990, p. 21) highlight the need for a strong, collaborative leadership practice linked to advisory groups, and consider leadership in education as "a shared responsibility", whereas, Sergiovanni (1996, p.173) argues that leadership for

meaning is important. He states that "schools need a leadership that enhances meaning and a leadership that helps people solve the vexing problems schools face. Leadership for meaning is important because it provides the connections that enable parents, teachers and students to know better who they are, and how they fit into a larger web of meaning and significance".

Research by Sergiovanni (1987), Conger et al. (1988), Crowther and Caldwell (1992), and Starrat (1993), with regard to the princpals' leadership role in motivating teachers, shows that a principal can be an effective motivator of teachers by following certain methods. These are, for example, understanding his/her own values, strengths and needs which are then used to set personal goals. This will confirm his/her own motivations and self-concepts providing the strength necessary to properly fulfil his/her challenging assignments. Displaying enthusiasm for his/her work contributes to sustaining teacher motivation as well as maintaining and actively exercising all channels of communication used by the school network of interpersonal relationships: Understanding staff values - what is important to them professionally, collectively, individually and if necessary personally; being able to identify the need levels at which each staff member and the staff collectively are functioning; and finally, synthesising all of the above and becoming involved with individual staff members, school departments and the school as a whole as a catalyst in the goal-setting process. Goals must be realistic, must consider individual and staff values, must utilise individuals' strengths, and be aimed at the fulfilment of both individual and school needs (Mulford, 1994). Furthermore, Hatton and Sinclair (1992, p. 221), in their chapter on the motivating role, in The School Manger highlight four tasks as a model that is crucial for principals in order to motivate teachers. The first is "encouraging involvement", that is, principals are a key players in ensuring that teachers are involved in working towards the achievement of school goals. The second is "enhancing teaching conditions" which includes meeting basic needs by addressing hygiene factors as well as meeting the motivator factors (see Chapter 2, p. 24) that will improve the working conditions in the school as they provide practical support. The third is "supporting individuals and groups" as principals have a responsibility not only to share their vision with their staff, but also to provide encouragement, support and help with problem-solving (Fullan, 1993). The final is "fostering climate and morale", that is, principals recognise that it is relevant to work with staff in order to create a good school climate.

Particularly, there is an agreement in the literature that staffing stability contributes to a positive school climate, which in turn can result in an increased commitment among teachers (Watson, 1989).

One of the principal's roles in motivation in the effective school is to reflect on the changes occurring in the wider society and to turn these into challenges and creative opportunities for motivation (Crum, 1995). "[p]rincipals are expected to be expert human relations practitioners who know how to handle people by pressing the right psychological buttons to get the job done, while keeping morale up" (Sergiovanni, 1996, p.11). But motivation is one of many tasks the principal must perform as a leader.

According to Sergiovanni (1996, p.158), "...effective leaders practice enlightened human relations leadership that is sensitive to the needs of teachers and others and that would then motivate them to accept and implement the desired changes". Therefore what teachers do depends on what leaders do to them and on the interpersonal human relations practices of the leaders. As a strong and effective motivator, the principal is "...characterised by a strong desire for responsibility and task completion, vigour and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decisions and actions, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay to be able to influence another person's behaviour and have the capacity to structure interaction systems to the purpose at hand" (Hoy and Miskel, 1991, p. 254).

As I mentioned earlier, the role of the principal is becoming more complex, due to many factors. One of these factors is the recent movement in educational change that began to involve changing schools as organisation settings (Joyce, 1990). Improvement of an organisation involves restructuring, and this requires the acceptance of new ideas and new ways of acting (Heck, 1991). Also, research into motivation reveals the importance of factors additional to leadership and the principal's role. Inclusion in the school's activities is also very important to teachers (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). The different ways teachers can be included have been well researched over the years and contribute to a better understanding of teacher motivation. One type of inclusive activity is decision-making.

Decision-making

The best way to improve schooling is to improve the process of decision-making, an inherent aspect of which is the enhancement of the capabilities of staff at the school itself (Dimmock, 1993). Therefore, principals should encourage and facilitate the skills of teachers in decision-making. Teachers will view their place of work more favourably and then create similar conditions of positive involvement for their students. This finding is supported by Czubaj (1996, p.378) who asserts that "when the working conditions of teachers remain conducive to the interactive, dynamics of motivation, highly motivated teachers teach students to become highly motivated themselves, repeating a positive, productive cycle". Once principals and teachers are empowered to make decisions about how they will do their assigned work, they will be more motivated, committed and satisfied.

Principals who include teachers in making decisions in schools will help those teachers to have a sense of ownership as a result of their involvement in the decisions as Duttweiler (1986) states. He suggests that once shared decision-making is the norm, principals will have a lighter workload, fewer staff problems, less stress, and a smoother running school. In addition, Hitt (1988) stresses that it is necessary for a principal to share power in order to gain power. Sharing power has significant implications for principals. Nothing motivates an individual quite like a sense of power over their own personal and professional life (Curtis and Rasool, 1997). Thus, giving teachers some kind of power in the decision making process, especially those that relate directly to their practices in classrooms, could boost their enthusiasm and motivation. Yet, Czubaj (1996) highlights the importance of this power status by stating that when teachers are not committed to the teaching profession, most leave the field, and one of the reasons given by these teachers for not wanting to return to the profession is powerlessness in the decision-making process, particularly in regard to important decisions.

However research into shared decision-making responsibility reveals some important provisos. Firstly, the amount and frequency can have the opposite effect of that desired. Lipham (1981, p.11) finds that "...excessive involvement causes frustration, whereas under-involvement creates hard feelings. The sensitive principal strives for a condition of equilibrium". Secondly, other researchers report that participative decision-making may not suit every occasion and that the more autocratic approach may be more effective in certain circumstances.

Involvement in decision-making generally has a positive effect on members of an organisation (Chapman, 1990), because it increases productivity and enhances the feeling of ownership of organisational goals (Adler, 1997). It also generates, as Adler (1997) states, a sense of team spirit and the motivation for making better decisions for the organisation. In contrast a complete lack of participative decision-making creates lower staff morale and poor decisions (Firestome and Pennell, 1993). Teacher participation in decision-making has been advocated over many years as a way of improving teacher satisfaction and the quality of decisions. Mohrman, Cooke and Mohrman (1978) found that in an educational setting, the multi-dimensional approach to involvement in decisions across all aspects of school activities resulted in greater extrinsic and intrinsic teacher satisfaction and less role ambiguity. It can be concluded that teacher satisfaction depends on the nature of the decisions being made, and the fact that the method is participative.

Participating in the decision-making process can take place using different methods. For example, Owens (1991, p. 227) suggests that participation is "mental and emotional involvement" and "ownership" or "buying into" decisions, "it is genuine ego involvement not merely being present and going through the motions". This involvement motivates the participant and thus releases his or her own energy, creativity and initiative and this is what distinguishes participation from mere consent. The use of participative decision-making has two major benefits: better decisions are made, and the growth and development of the individual teacher is enhanced. These two benefits boost teacher motivation in that they may be better able to accomplish their tasks effectively. Teachers, especially those who have the opportunity to participate regularly and actively in making decisions, are much more likely to be enthusiastic about their school systems than those who have limited opportunities to participate (Turney et al., 1992). Thus, it can be argued that participation in decision-making increases a teacher's level of motivation and satisfaction and his or her enthusiasm for the school system.

Chapter Three

Specialists in the field of decision making have developed several ways of dealing with different types of decisions. For instance, four types of decision-making Everard and Morris (1996, p. 45) have identified are: autocratic, persuasive, consultative and co-determinate. The autocratic decision is taken without consultation, then others are informed of what is to be done and what is expected of them; the persuasive decision is taken before consultation and then sold to others, in the consultative decision the views of others are sought and taken into account before a decision is taken; and finally, co-determinate decisions are taken on either a consensus or a majority basis. While the four types are broad, they point out the importance of differentiating between each type of them. Obviously, problems arise in organisations where leaders expend much time and effort to choose which decision type they should apply in their practices. Everard and Morris (1996, p.40) list the problems involved in participative decision-making as: change; conflicts; the risk of being wrong and being called to account; and, having to cope with a bewildering number of facts and alternatives. Thus, sometimes this results in the total failure to make a decision, and colleagues and subordinates are left frustrated and virtually paralysed by such inaction.

Research into effective schools, however, shows that effective principals have supportive staff and they have faith in the competence of their staff (Stoll and Fink, 1994). With the regard to the area of participative decision-making the research also reveals that support for the principal and school is enhanced when the staff play some part in making decisions that affects their work (Townsend, 1994). Hence, to solidify any decision collaborative work within an organisation seems crucial for the successful implementation of decisions. Therefore, the next important factor to be examined is teamwork.

Teamwork

The concept of working in teams has developed with the new style of corporate management which has swept the business world in the last twenty years (Sundstrom et al., 1990). It is central to the new type of organisation which is not hierarchical in structure but forms a cluster or constellation around a central core of senior managers with a strategic focus. This core is connected to peripheral units which are self-directed teams who relate to the core and each other in a network (Stewart and Manz, 1995). This type of organisation is organised so that

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information flows among sections through the network of teams, and not up and down the hierarchy of managers, so that there is a more egalitarian approach to work. The work itself is achieved through a team effort by a sharing of skills in a collegial atmosphere. The self-directed team functions under its own dynamics created by the team members who set aims, goals, priorities, times, focus, outcomes and review, and evaluate the performance of individual team members (Dunphy and Bryant, 1996).

Previous research on teams has focused on establishing how teams affect behavioral factors such as job satisfaction, morale, and producativity (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Reich, 1987). Theoretical argument is often made in this research literature that these behavioral effects should improve team performance. However, few studies measure the link to performance directly. Yet, organisational performance is the ultimate criterion by which the utility of teams must be judged (Dunphy and Bryant, 1996). In essence, it may be argued that for a more differentiated model of team development and team performance measurement, a new agenda for future research on teams is needed.

In educational settings, teacher teams provide new dimensions for managing school organisations and for motivating and involving staff in the activities of the school community (Evans, 1998). Teachers are partners in the school organisation and their effective motivation is crucial to improving the quality of student outcomes (McGaw et al., 1992). The quality of team activities, therefore, must be examined to determine how teamwork contributes to the motivation of teachers. What follows will be an argument on the effects and influence of teamwork on teacher morale and motivation.

Teams may provide an answer to the isolation experienced by classroom teachers. While the day-to-day role performance by teachers may take place in relative isolation, "for many teachers, the character, content and quality of this performance are directly related to the organisational group life" (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1979, p. 181). Organisational culture is what holds the school together as an effective unit and gives it a distinct identity (Hoy and Miskel, 1991). Hoy and Miskel (1991, p. 249) allege that the functioning of the work group within this culture is crucial to its being positive and progressive due to "its high degree of trust and esprit and low

disengagement". In this climate the "teachers work well together and are committed to the task at hand".

The more collaboration that occurs among colleagues in setting goals and discussing curriculum and student behaviour, the more shared ownership evolves within the team (Turney et al., 1992). Everyone has a sense of ownership, each team member becomes committed to the success of the team and no one works in isolation. Simpkins (1982) argues that the sense of achievement which comes through co-operative teamwork leads to justifiable cohesive pride. This in turn confirms job satisfaction and sustains the overall morale of teachers. Thus, cooperative teamwork seems to be another factor that adds to enhance teacher motivation and performance.

It was suggested by Turney et al. (1992, p. 229) that "[t]hose in managerial positions in schools need to have first hand contact with staff team members working on particular projects". Bates (1983) and Watson (1989) also suggest that when teachers work together successfully on tasks, they experience an increased sense of commitment and are likely to stay longer as members of the staff of a school. Then the school can avoid the dilemma of high turnover of teachers and, consequently, school can benefit from them to yield greater education for students.

Teams are an essential part of modern organisations, especially those undergoing rapid change (Adler, 1997). Most schools operate with an administrator at the top and with a team of teachers below, this provides the obvious place to improve effectiveness. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979, p.189) discuss group effectiveness in an educational setting. They say that group effectiveness comes about because the members of the group interact well and are competent to undertake the group's tasks. Therefore, interactive effectiveness and task effectiveness are both necessary to ensure job satisfaction and to provide the kinds of rewards that will nourish professionals.

While teams can be a positive influence on morale and creativity within the organisation, they can also produce a negative effect. Merenbloom (1996) and Trimble and Miller (1996) point out that putting people into teams can disrupt the harmony and equilibrium of the work environment and cause tension in the group. Teams can also waste time if the group is not focused on a goal or have not been properly trained on how to go about teamwork. To avoid this negative possibility, some techniques were suggested. Firstly, team members need to learn to think and

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function as a unit. Secondly, teachers must be given time for both team planning and in order to fully implement the team process. Thirdly, a "block-of-time" schedule must be set aside for team meetings, and a core and elective members must meet on a regular basis. And finally, teachers need training in conflict resolution (Merenbloom, 1996, pp. 51-53). These suggested techniques were not the ideal solution, because they ignored the role the principals play to avoid a crisis between teamwork members. Other scholars provide different methods that can be useful for principals to empower and sustain effective teamwork. Some of these methods suggest that the principal needs to be prepared to share authority with team members. This, in turn, requires a strong team leader with a variety of skills and talents, in order to train team members in effective techniques (Trimble and Miller 1996, pp. 37-39). Especially, any team established by an organisation is or should be established for a purpose and should have a clear mission and have tasks clearly definied (Bass and Avolio, 1994). If the team does not have a clear and accurate understanding of its tasks, purpose and mission, then the team leader (in schools the team leader is usually the principal) must take steps to clarify them.

The role of team leader is to get the team excited about its project, to explain individual team members' roles, and to model the standards of participation (Grier, 1996). In the role of team leader, the principal is responsible for determining and communicating what the project team must accomplish. Principals should understand that there is usually a period of conflict as team members begin working together. During this period, they are responsible for restating goals, managing conflicts, and reassuring members of the team.

It was declared that "[m]any principals make a mistake by assigning staff members randomly to project teams. Not everyone is suited to team play. Forcing people who work more effectively alone into groups can negate their productivity as well as that of the team" (Grier, 1996, p. 99). It is preferable that team members have an interest and some expertise in the project at hand. The principal should play a key role in making the best choice of team members for each project. Especially, "[w]hen very clever people are put together, they tend to suffer from 'analysis paralysis'; anyone putting forward an idea finds it gets hacked to bits by his or her colleagues and no progress is made" (Everard and Morris, 1996, p.158). The best teams have a mixture of mental abilities. However it is not always easy to bring the most suitable people together into teams, despite what the literature suggests that teams can provide a number of benefits such as

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a better quality or working life for workers (Walton, 1977), increased job satisfaction, and reduced absenteeism and turnover (Aquilano, 1977).

The important aspects of teamwork are: openness and trust among team members; quality leadership; use of resources; clarity of tasks and decisions; communication; the extent to which values are explicit and shared; and the degree of commitment (Everard and Morris, 1996, p. 166). Despite the many benefits of introducing teamwork that have been examined, I agree with Sinclair (1992) that the costs associated with introducing and maintaining groups have been almost universally ignored. Sinclair (1992) also argues that there has been a great deal of research about teamwork and that, by and large, it supports the notion that the team structure is good and yet, she finds it disturbing that there is little acknowledgement of the inequities, costs and risks that often accompany team structures.

Regular and clear communication is the key to teamwork success (Kaye, 1994). Communication is arguably the basis of achieving all other goals of an organisation (Pace and Faules, 1994). In school organisations, "the effective sharing of messages and information among administrators, teachers, students, parents and members of the wider community is essential" (Turney et al., 1992, p. 148). The team must have adequate background information, access to relevant data, an adequate budget and a strong communication system. To achieve this, the principal needs to provide in-service training for the team members before they begin their work.

Research on the topic of teamwork indicates that it is not enough for principals to create teams and then abdicate responsibility, or to push management functions from himself or herself onto the teams of teachers. Effective teams have to be selected, trained, organised and led. The principal has to remove barriers, support the team, provide incentives for participation, set up communication channels, and resolve conflicts. Effective team participation may motivate teachers and provide job satisfaction by achieving the organisation's goals and recognising the effort of every team's member. The next factor to be treated is the role of recognition factor in motivation of teachers.

Recognition

An effective school attracts and retains high quality teachers (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993), and its administrator knows how to support and motivate these teachers so that they perform well and contribute to the school's goals (Reynolds, 1997). Teachers' successes in their professional lives also contribute to school effectiveness (McGaw et al., 1992). Professional success is so valuable it should be acknowledged and appreciated (Mortimore, 1995). Thus the essence of this section is that: a school culture where achievements and contributions in whatever form are recognised can lead to motivation and job satisfaction.

A review of the literature on recognition should reveal how important this factor is in the motivation of teachers. Recognition is one of the motivators in Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954 and 1970; for more information see Chapter 2, pp. 17-20), which is a component of the second highest need, that of self-esteem. While the highest need is for self-actualisation, the need for a positive self-image and to receive recognition from others are the next most important needs. If these needs are not met, then individuals cannot achieve their highest potential for self-development, creativity and self-expression. Thus, recognition is an important motivator in this theory and is a need of a higher order, which has the potential to motivate people to higher levels of achievement and performance.

When Porter (1962) modified Maslow's hierarchy (see Chapter 2, pp.20–23), he placed selfesteem, which includes recognition, self-respect, awards and being part of an insiders' group, below self-actualisation and autonomy. Porter regards autonomy as the most critical factor in motivation which leads to self-actualisation. Recognition is midway on the hierarchy, above affiliation (belonging) and security (pay, tenure, fairness, conditions). But it is still important nonetheless.

Studies of the motivation of teachers show that achievement, recognition and the work itself are factors that lead to teacher satisfaction (Savage, 1967), though good interpersonal relations with students is also an important factor as well. Research in Alberta, Canada, reveals important differences in the nature of satisfaction derived from elementary, junior high and senior high school teachers (Holdaway, 1978). Overall job satisfaction is greatest at the elementary level

and lowest among junior high teachers. The following factors are related to overall job satisfaction: salary, sabbatical leave, involvement in decision-making, the quality of substitute teachers, the ability of students, societal attitudes and in-service education. These factors decreased with an increase in school grade level. Holdaway's study also attempts to determine the relationship between the teachers' overall job satisfaction and certain facets of their jobs. He finds that overall satisfaction is most closely related to achievement, career orientation, recognition, stimulation and working with students.

Campbell and Pritchard (1976) find that there is a close match between performance goals and the actual performance. Ironically, teachers feel higher levels of job satisfaction if they are able to lower the performance expectations they hold for themselves. To some extent, this appears to happen during the first few years in the classroom. Blaze (1980) finds that individuals who begin teaching with high ideals soon learn to temper their expectations in order to more closely match the realities they deal with on a daily basis.

Recognition from others is a strong source of satisfaction (Maslow 1954), whether the recognition comes from the principal, other teachers or parents (Sergiovanni, 1967). While achievement, recognition and responsibility are statistically significant contributors to teacher satisfaction, the absence of these factors does not contribute to dissatisfaction. The factors important to teacher dissatisfaction include interpersonal relations with subordinates, supervisors and peers as well as with technical supervision, school policy, administration and personal life (Sergiovanni, 1967).

A productive work environment with respect to teacher satisfaction and recognition, as maintained by Seyforth (1991), includes four features: first, supportive administrative leadership; second, collaborative working relationships among teachers; third, opportunities to influence school policy, curriculum and instruction; and finally, adequate facilities and resources. Furthermore, Seyforth suggests that when one of these conditions is missing, teachers are less likely to be able to carry out their work successfully and hence are not as likely to be motivated and recognised.

Positive motivational strategies, including providing incentives, recognising achievements, fostering self-image and dealing with anxiety, are discussed by Turney et al. (1992, p. 228).

Recognising teachers' achievements not only in teaching but in all their sporting, cultural and personal pursuits is an important motivational strategy. Wilson and Firestone (1987) argue that teachers who take on onerous tasks or innovative approaches should be offered an appropriate incentive for their willingness and application. Maslow (1970) and Herzberg (1959) stress that all people strive for success and competence and try to avoid failure. In schools, a positive self-image will encourage a teacher to tackle tasks or to be innovative.

Teachers commonly complain that even though they are working harder, they are receiving less and less appreciation for their efforts (Sparks 1983). Teachers who are suffering from excessive stress and anxiety will not be motivated to perform well (Brown and Ralph, 1994). Teacher burnout is a serious problem for administrators that must be addressed (Turney et al., 1993). While recognition is important, it is not enough to prevent the negative personal and organisational effects of high work-related stress levels (Russo, 1995).

Being recognised for their accomplishments is crucial to teachers' motivation (Fox, 1986). Principals must praise teachers for the quality and significance of their work, and by so doing, teachers may strive to improve their methods of teaching as they realise that their efforts do not go unnoticed. However, recognition by the principal must be sincere and based on actual teacher performance. The principal must be respected by teachers as one who recognises and values excellent teaching, and by extending recognition to the teacher, the principal is contributing to teacher motivation by communicating to everyone his or her respect for the teacher.

Recognition indicates that the principal is aware of the quality of the teacher's work and that the work is valued. The greater the recognition given, the greater the teacher's motivation is likely to be. The awareness of the importance of the recognition leads to another important factor that can be used by principals to affect teacher motivation: personal regard which is presented next.

Personal Regard

Research acknowledges the teacher's importance in bringing about change and improvements in education quality (Maeroff, 1988; McGaw et al., 1993). Teaching is not just the technical skill of imparting knowledge but of being a role model and a moral influence on future generations. Alongside parents, teachers are the most important influence on the life and development of children (Eltis, 1995). Therefore, for teachers to be truly effective in their work, they need to be treated with the level of respect and honour that such a responsible social position demands (Turney et al., 1990).

Over recent decades, society has increased the responsibilities given to teachers for the social and emotional development of children. As society has become more complex and demanding of individuals, teaching roles have had to therefore encompass wide areas of social education. Teachers also have to bear the brunt of more social problems spilling over from the wider society into the school arena. It is not uncommon for teachers to be blamed for all the problems that students experience as they are growing and endeavouring to fit into society. As the object of such condemnation, it is difficult for teachers to hold themselves and other teachers in high personal regard.

The teaching profession demands a great deal of a person (Turney et al., 1993). More than any other professional, it may be argued that the teacher has to be many people. The teacher instils knowledge, is a welfare officer, counsellor, administrator, health adviser and organiser. Teachers are expected to acquire skills for handling all the problems of a society undergoing rapid social and economic change. They do this not because they are obliged to but because they know these skills will enable them to be better teachers. Interests beyond teaching must be recognised. "In our enthusiasm to involve staff more and more in the life of the school, and to commit them to change within it, we should not forget the other legitimate calls on their time and commitments which in the long run may well make them better people and teachers for it" (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992, p. 40-41). This is because teachers are highly trained professionals who normally operate from a broad base of experience. They are also able to solve problems, make decisions and control situations. Additionally they are held accountable

for the outcomes of the teaching activities. Therefore, the principal needs to respect teachers and to show concern about their personal feelings and needs (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Such behaviour may be motivational through its influence on teachers.

McGregor's Theory Y approach to management (see Chapter 2, p. 37) which is based on the human needs of belonging, esteem and self-actualisation, reflects the responsibility of management to provide structures which make it possible for people to feel accepted and valued and to feel that they can best work toward their own goals by working towards organisational goals. Thus, principals are required to develop close knowledge of their staff, and to express their consideration and support for each individual of their staff. Also, the human talents of principals, as Sergiovanni (1987) highlights in his leadership model, are crucial in playing a positive role in the dimensions of personal regard of each follower (see Sergiovanni leadership model mentioned earlier in this chapter).

Both Theory Y and the Sergiovanni leadership model assume a broad base of human competence in the organisation which needs to be utilised for staff to be motivated. Better performing personnel are thereby developed, and these ideas apply to the teaching profession as well. Every teacher has a base of competence which is useful to the school. The principal should identify this competence, recognise it and value it. In this way the teacher will know that he or she is held in good regard and likely to be motivated to perform as a result. However, this is not good enough for teachers who either seek further education or look forward to updating their knowledge. Hence, another factor seems relevant for them to continue in their profession, - principals can facilitate it – and this is called professional growth.

Professional Growth

As already noted, teachers are expected to play an ever-increasing role in the development of children who need to acquire complex skills and dispositions for fitting into a rapidly changing and technologically demanding society. It is expected of teachers that they will acquire the knowledge and skills to be able to create highly effective individuals. This can only be achieved in an organisational environment where professional development activities are given a high

priority. In this way, the principal can provide the means and the stimulus for teachers to upgrade their skills, strengthen their motivation and commitment, and increase their excitement about their work.

Professional development is defined by French (1997, p. 39) as "more than training in new knowledge or instructional procedures. High quality professional development enables teachers to move to the next level of expertise and ability. It stimulates their willingness to make changes that will improve students' learning. True professional development is self-motivated, collegial and a voluntary process of learning relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes". In addition, staff development is an effective strategy for implementing new programs (Bradshaw, 1997), and it is concerned with changes in people, which may include changes in knowledge, behaviour, understanding and attitude (Duke, 1987).

Satisfaction among teachers results from achievement, recognition and responsibility according to Sergiovanni (1992). The requirement for teachers to satisfy their needs for achievement is accomplished by having opportunities to attend in-services where they learn new skills and innovative methods of teaching. He describes teachers as self-directed learners who constantly seek current research and practices to improve their teaching and learning in their classrooms. They are committed to their peers and to sharing knowledge and expertise to help others become successful. Because they devote their lives to education, teachers understand the importance of their own learning and strongly desire to improve their own knowledge and effectiveness (Kincheloe, 1991).

There is support in the research literature for involving teachers in the planning of their in-service experiences as an antidote for low morale and job-related burnout. Liebes (1983) reports that teachers feel increasingly motivated when they are asked to take part in decisions about their training needs and concerns. Moreover, by enabling teachers to determine their own educational needs and to participate in organising their own training experiences, teachers are able to effectively help students identify their own areas of need (Fullan, 1991). Staff development is an important consideration when implementing any innovation.

Review of Literature

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Professional development plays a leading role in encouraging and motivating staff to work collectively to achieve the school's goals (Adey and Jones, 1997), and it must enable teachers and administrators to see the relationship between what they are learning and their day-to-day activities and problems (Wood and Thompson, 1993). However, professional development is not an easy task for both principals and teachers and, therefore, principals and teachers should work collaboratively to make the professional development activities become part of the school's

routine. This could happen when principals encourage teachers to reflect on their own practice, and when they acknowledge that teachers develop at different rates and that, at any given time, are more ready to learn some things than others (Sergiovanni, 1996, p. 142). Professional development requires energy, commitment and the ability to think strategically. In some cases however, professional development is problematic. Sometimes, teachers regard time as the most significant barrier to professional development activities (MacBeath et al., 1996). Fullan (1991, p. 315) records that "[n]othing has promised so much and has been so frustratingly wasteful as the thousands of workshops and conferences that led to no significant changes in practice when teachers returned to their classrooms". Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that

at least a few members of any relatively large faculty will be opposed to, or at least apathetic toward, any staff development plan (Duke, 1987).

School principals play a crucial role in staff development. As Duke (1987) states leaders must play an active role in initiating, guiding and supporting staff development if it is to succeed. Since professional development is an ongoing need for every school, and scarce resources and human limitations do not permit simultaneous growth in all areas of educational practice, it is expected that school leaders create plans to facilitate professional development. Also, if a school wants to improve teaching and learning, it should allow teachers to control their professional goals (Manz and Sims, 1990). Therefore, the principal has a major role to play in

teachers' professional growth; he or she can help raise the quality of teaching by inspiring teachers to keep current in their field and assisting them in organising and administrating their own professional development (French, 1997).

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If teacher professionalism is to be increased, there is an urgent need to enhance the principal's understanding of how it is developed, to build upon what they already know and to improve the way in which teachers' professional knowledge, skills and understanding are developed throughout their careers (Helsby 1996).

Research in the literature demonstrates considerable evidence that principals who seek to release the potential of teachers need to provide opportunities for teachers to feel more adequately prepared as professionals. In order for teachers to be adequately motivated and competent they need to participate in a variety of professional development activities on a regular basis.

School Restructuring

Considerable research has focused on the importance and effects of the movement in educational reform throughout the world (Fullan, 1993; Mitchell and Beach; 1993, Dalin, 1998). Schools, like all organisations that contribute to the development of society, have to change as society changes. Over the last twenty years, society has become more competitive, more dominated by economic considerations, more skills-oriented, and more influenced by information technology and the philosophy of individualism (Whitaker, 1998). Consequently, schools have to produce global citizens capable of developing with this culture and the forthcoming new millennium.

Like all organisations in today's society, schools need to improve the quality of their students just as companies must improve the quality of their products (McRae, 1994). Hence, a group of scholars has developed a pragmatic definition of school improvement which comes close to the McRae perceptive (Hopkins et al., 1994, p. 3):

[we] regard school improvement as a strategy for educational change that enhances students' outcomes as well as strengthening the school's capacity for managing change. In this sense school improvement is about raising student achievement through focusing on the teaching-learning process and the conditions which support it. It is about strategies for improving the schools' capacity for providing quality education in times of change.

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The theme of change and adapting to a continuous change process is discussed by Fullan who commenced research on change in an educational setting in the early 1980s. Fullan's contributions seem to be a useful blend of reflections upon change, with an attempt to tease out some of the psychology of change as experienced in educational organisations by teachers, principals, students and parents, as well as reflecting upon the nature of change. It also offers a simple model for encouraging change. The four-stage model of initiation, implementation, continuation and achieving outcomes is seen as bi-directional, reflecting the more fluid view of change that Fullan holds.

Complexity is raised in Fullan's model when he considers the factors at play in each of the first three phases. These factors can be a helpful check-list. In applying this model, it may be necessary to reflect on other factors, in particular schools which could be added to the list of factors provided by Fullan. Change seems to have been viewed as almost a problem solving process in Fullan's work of the early 1980s. By the 1990s, Fullan (1991,1993) seems to have shifted in his conception of change in that he holds a more positive view of it, for instance, that change is not response or reaction but a proactive initiative which is integral to effective organisational functioning.

A clear message from the literature on the management of change in schools seems to be that the principal as leader is a key part of the change process. Fullan (1982, 1993) highlights that some principals may be reluctant to embrace change, especially when external pressure may be the source of change. However, Fullan's model can assist principals to view change as fundamental and inevitable, and this will contribute to their effectiveness as the main initiators of change in their organisations.

In addition, research highlights the importance of principals in the achievement of school improvement and restructuring (Fullan, 1993; Mortimore, 1988). These reformers show the vital contribution made by leadership to school improvement and reform. The challenge of the role of effective school leaders leads one to question whether all school leaders are capable of performing the reform adequately, especially since the restructuring process requires hard complex work that could create a dilemma (Dimmock, 1996). The reason for stressing the

dilemma is twofold: First, people learn more about themselves and others when they face times of crisis or extremely challenging situations (Argyris and Achon, 1978); and secondly, a key undergirding aim of restructuring is the improvement in school performance. No matter how important the improvement of school is, it unlikely to be secured unless school leaders manage to cope with and to involve teachers in the process (Dimmock, 1996).

Consequently it can be argued that restructuring is a systematic approach to change that is much more complex and critical to success than any other factor. Milstein (1993, p.7-8) states that "[r]estructuring has the potential to improve the education of students in ways that enable them to cope more successfully in a rapidly changing world. It also has the potential to increase on educator's sense of job satisfaction and feeling of professionalism and to enhance the likelihood of positive partnerships between schools, parents and the general community".

In summary, school restructuring leads to a transformation in the nature and style of both principals and teachers. Restructuring teacher work can urge some "transforming attitudes, and increased skills as well as teacher motivation and empowerment" (Mitchell and Beach 1993). Moreover as the principal is the catalyst for the changes (Simpkins et al., 1987), the teachers have the responsibility for participating and making the changes happen. A schematic diagram of the literature reviewed in this chapter was presented as Figure 5 at the beginning of this chapter.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter covers the main factors impacting on teacher motivation in today's turbulent society and rapidly changing organisational environments. Based on this literature it can be argued that there is neither one unique way to influence teachers' motivation, nor one single factor affecting their level of motivation. Rather, motivational dimensions in a school setting are more likely to differ from individual to individual and even likely to differ within the one individual from one situation to the next. A reflection on the literature reviewed has led to a number of conclusions that directly affect this study. One conclusion drawn is that despite the immense scope of literature on the topic of leadership there is no clear evidence of what it

means to lead and what it means to follow (Gronn, 1996). Transformational leadership remains the most encouraged style in educational organisations and is the most successful in influencing teacher motivation. In particular, the evolution of leadership styles over the years has led to the present day conclusion that leaders need to use more than one leadership style to be effective and to foster teacher motivation. This matter, however, is a subject of argument and continues to divide scholars.

The second major conclusion to be drawn is that school restructuring is having a major influence on the type of organisational environment in which teachers now have to perform. Other motivational factors, such as the principal's style, decision-making processes, teamwork, recognition, personal regard and professional growth, are also covered in the literature, and in each instance the research indicates that these factors contribute to the level of teacher motivation.

The literature reviewed provides the researcher with a solid framework on which to base and design the questionnaire (Appendices 1 and 2) and the interview questions (Appendix 3), which was used to survey teachers at the six schools chosen for this thesis (Chapter 1, pp. 11; and for more information see Chapter 4). The literature reviewed also provides the researcher with different perspectives from which to view the dimensions of motivation, and their direct effects on teachers who participated in this study.

This endeavor proposes to add to the existing knowledge of the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation, as well as to add another perspective on a number of motivational dimensions. Such knowledge can help in the understanding of teachers' needs and principals' styles in the six schools surveyed for this study. A thorough review of the context of the study follows in Chapter Four.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

introduction

This chapter contains an historical background of the Lebanese missionary schools, their educational philosophy and their aducational adigmetration, a detailed description of the six schools involved in the study located in Australia and in Lebanon, and a comparative analysis of the Australian and Lebanese action systems. Appendices 6 and 7 contain an historical background and detailed description of the Australian and Lebanese school systems.

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Chapter Four

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This study examines the effects of principal's leadership style on teacher motivation in six missionary schools belonging to the Maronite Catholic Church. To better understand the culture of the six studied schools, I will summarise the history of the Maronite Catholic Church with special emphasis on its educational mission and philosophy.

Maronite Catholic Church

The Maronite Church is one of the largest Eastern-rite communities of the Roman Catholic Church, prominent mainly in Lebanon, and belonging formally to the Syro-Antiochene rite (Mahfouz, 1987). It is the only Eastern-rite church that has no non-Catholic or Orthodox counterpart. The Maronites trace their origin to Saint Maroun, of the late 4th and early 5th centuries, who was ordained as a priest before he became a hermit (Mahfouz, 1987), and to St. John Maroun, the patriarch of Antioch in 685 – 707, under whose leadership the invading Byzantine armies of Justinian II were routed in 684, making the Marounites a fully independent people (Mahfouz, 1987).

Traditionally, the Maronites were always proud to be in communion with the Roman See, through their immediate religious leader, the Patriarch of Antioch and All the East. As a symbol of this close relationship, and in order to foster it, Pope Gregory XIII in 1584 founded the Maronite

College in Rome. The college flourished under Jesuit administration into the 20th century and became a training center for Maronite clergy scholars and religious leaders. This College had a great influence on the Maronite culture as most of the Maronite's religious leaders were trained there. Based on this influence, the administrative system in the Maronite church is very hierarchically structured. On graduation, most of the students from this college were nominated as teachers and administrators in the Maronite schools in Lebanon (Lebanese Synod, 1736, p. 536).

Throughout their history, the Maronites valiantly preserved their Catholic faith, liberty and folkways in front of many dramatic changes in politics and religions that have swept the Middle East. Under the rule of the Ottoman Empire, the Maronites maintained their customs, culture and faith under the protection of France. Following the destruction of the Ottoman Empire in 1920, the Maronites, still under French protection, became self-ruling, thus explaining the strong influence of the French culture on the Maronite society (Mahfouz, 1987). Between 1920 and 1943 the French system of education was strongly implanted into the Maronite schools as well as into the whole nation. Consequently, the system of educational administration strongly followed the traditions of the French system (Wakim, 1995). As with the French system, the administration thus came to be characterised by a high degree of centralised control, and a clearly defined hierarchy of authority. Since the establishment of the independent Lebanon in 1943, the Maronites have constituted one of many major religious groups in that country (Mahfouz, 1987).

The Maronites also immigrated during the 19th and 20th centuries to many foreign countries (Mahfouz, 1987) including Australia. Rather than losing their identity, however the Maronite liturgy and culture were kept alive by the clergy, who accompanied the Maronites abroad. Thus, neither their native country nor their native language has diminished in the hearts of the Maronites (Mahfouz, 1987). Schools that were established by the Maronites missionary order also played a significant role in the survival of their culture, and tradition survived by providing their children with opportunities to learn about their religion, traditions and culture.

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When the Maronites first arrived in Australia in 1854, they had to follow the Latin rite because none of the Maronites priests had yet arrived in Australia. Several years later, the patriarch, John Peter Hage, sent two Maronite priests to Australia. They opened a church in Redfern in January 1897. Seventy years later, the number of the Maronites in Sydney has increased greatly, indicating that the Maronite church has also grown. The Maronite community bought many properties for the Maronite church in different areas in Sydney. In 1973 the first Maronite Bishop in Australia was appointed to the new St. Maroun Diocese of Sydney. Since then, the Maronite Diocese has achieved many successes, including the construction of several schools (St. Charbel's College, 1994).

With respect to the educational mission of the Maronite church, there is, unfortunately, no recent written record of the mission or philosophy except for the one brought up in the Lebanese synod in 1736. The mission, vision and philosophy which have been carried by tradition to the present day Maronite educational setting, therefore, exist only orally. However, nowadays some of the congregations in the Maronite church have made a modest attempt to write their own mission and philosophy on the condition that they are compatible with the Maronite tradition and with the Catholic church's mission and philosophy of education.

The main reason behind establishing Maronite schools was declared by the Lebanese Synod 1736, in which they state that, "we order the establishment of schools near the monasteries in the villages and towns in order to educate the youth and to encourage them to join the religious congregation and to foster their vocations" (Synod 1736, p. 527). In terms of curriculum, the Synod articulates the framework of the curriculum, and decides the subjects that should be taught.

We require the monks and priests who have been chosen for the teaching profession by the monastery superiors and bishops, to teach the youth in schools first of all, reading, and writing in both languages Arabic and Syriac, then, the psalms, then the book of serving the mass, then the book of daily services, then the New Testament. And if the teachers discover some talented students, they should teach these talented students grammar, Arabic and Syriac literature, and the sacerdotal music and liturgy. And if the teachers find that these students are extraordinarily talented they should teach them Mathematics skills, philosophy, and the canon law, as well as the exegesis and the moral and dogmatic theology ...teachers should encourage these students to attend mass daily, and should instruct them with the appropriate catechism (The Lebanese Synod, 1736, pp.535 - 536).

The Lebanese Synod added that it should choose the most intelligent students to send to the Maronite College in Rome, in order to learn the Latin language (The Lebanese Synod, 1736, p. 537). However, the Lebanese Synod does not mention the method of promotion of students to a higher level, or on what criteria teachers should base their decision as to which student is brighter than the others. Two factors worth noting can be inferred from the Lebanese Synod quotation. The first is that the teacher will decide who will go to Rome to pursue their higher education. The second is that there is no mention of females being permitted to attended the schools at that time.

From the aforementioned it can be concluded that the Maronite education system and culture is religiously oriented, highly masculinised, and strongly centralised. However, some of this information and instruction are no longer valid, as we can see from the six Maronite schools that have been chosen for this study. These schools are co-educational, and are well structured, as they have to follow the national education structure and curriculum (see Appendices 6 and 7).

Lebanese missionary order schools

In 1695 four young men came from Aleppo (Syria) to Lebanon where they established a Lebanese missionary order within the Maronite Church. Since they were highly educated, they established schools next to the monasteries to teach the two languages: Syriac and Arabic, as well as Mathematics and Religious Studies (Bleybel, 1924 and 1925).

The first school was set up in the monastery of the prophet Elijah. This was followed by school of al-Lwayziyah in 1757 (Abu Abdo, 1996). The number of schools within the monasteries then increased and their aims were to educate the youth, preserve the manuscripts and the heritage, and spread their religious teaching.

In 1736 the Lebanese synod took place in the school of al-Lwayziyah, and its most important decision was the decision relating to education which stated as follows:

We command that schools for the youth be established and that the bishops, priests and those in charge of the monasteries (Father superiors) oversee these schools by assigning teachers where there are no teachers and record the names of the youth who have the capacity to learn or acquire knowledge and command their parents to lead these youth to school even if they hate it (The Lebanese Synod, 1736, p.530).

This decision strengthened the monks' endeavour to develop their educational activities. The monks, therefore, opened many schools. The number of these schools increased to 13 schools over a period of 50 years and were distributed as follows: school of St Elijah in Bechare in 1696; school of St John in Rashmia in 1756; school of al-Lwayziyah in Suq Massbah in 1757; school of Saints Peter and Paul in Karim at-teen in 1712; school of Tamish in 1728; and school of Jaltoun in 1753; school of Dayr al-Qamar in 1759, to name some of their early endeavours (Abu Abdu, 1996, p.450 - 451).

The educational mission of this Lebanese missionary order today is confined to the administrative division of educational institutions such as: the University of the Holy Spirit, Kaslik, school of 'Achache, North Lebanon College, school of Shikka, school of Mayfouq, school of Markaziyah, school of Himana, school of Mashmousheh, school of Jiyah and other schools outside Lebanon (Rizk, 1998).

The aims of these schools are not clearly defined but most of them share the following principle: looking after the students' spiritually and educationally thereby leading to the development of the human being in a society which has its own specific domain, structure and constituency, and in accordance with the students spiritual, physical, intellectual and emotional abilities (Abu Abdu, 1996, p.450-451).

The education system in the Lebanese Maronite Order has changed dramatically since the beginning of the 20th century. The latest regulations and constitutions of the 1973 Order have dedicated two chapters to the educational mission of the Order and the job description of the

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principals of its schools. The constitutions and regulations of the 1973 Order state under the title *educational mission* (p. 10) that in each of the schools, there be three monks responsible for the running of the school. One should work as the principal, another should work as the curriculum coordinator, and the third should work as the religious coordinator to ensure the implementation of religious education programs, including Bible study, and to discover the students' religious vocations and offer them guidance. Under the section *school principal* (Constitution, 1974, p. 56) there is a brief job description. Article 264 states that the Abbot, after consultation with his assistants and the local superior, should nominate a qualified monk for the position of school principal for a three year term (Constitution, 1974, p. 56). The duties of the principal as the rules state are to be the primary accountable figure for the school, and to work closely with the superior, However, the latter should not interfere directly in the running of the school. Other duties include ensuring that the appropriate moral and religious education programs are being implemented in the school, employing new teachers and terminating those who do not perform well, preparing the school budget and cooperating with the central bureau of education in the Order.

It is evident that, first, the Constitution ignored many of the important roles needed to be assumed by school principals, and second, the Constitution and regulations do not reflect, nor have they determined, the school mission, vision or philosophy. However, the aim of this section was to introduce to the reader the educational system of the Order, rather than criticise the Constitution and regulations.

Schools' principals in this study

The six schools studied, in the two countries and within a particular religious context, are run by clergy principals, most of whom have qualifications in theology but few of whom have any qualifications in education. The Australian principals are newly appointed between one to two years in their position as revealed in Table 6, p. 118. At least one of the Lebanese principals is newly appointed in his position as shown in Table 17, p. 158. The data reveal that some of the Australian principals are educationally unqualified and inexperienced (see Chapter 6, pp.135-136). The nomination of that kind of principals contradicts the Orders' Article 264. Also, some of

the principals of the Australian schools are not familiar with the Australian educational system (see Chapter 6, p.136), which could create many difficulties for both teachers and principals, especially for the teachers who are familiar with the system, curriculum issues, industrial relations issues and so on (chapter 8, p. 196). The data reveal that there is no long term stability in the position of principals as every few years the principals move on and are replaced by others, and that *makes it difficult for teachers to work in a good unified system* (see Chapter 7, p.170). Evident from the Australian data is that there is a problem of language barriers (Chapter 8, p.196), with its source the fact that these principals were born overseas, and have English as their second language. The Lebanese data reveal that the principals deal with problems created by the social strife following the civil war (Chapter 8, p. 210). Also, the Lebanese data reveal that some of the principals are lacking appropriate educational skills and knowledge in education (see Chapter 7, p. 171). However, the presence of these principals in their schools promotes the spiritual practices and moral values as they celebrate the mass and other sacraments weekly for the students, and orient them spiritually and socially.

Description of the schools in the study

This study is based on data collected from six schools that have been run by the Lebanese missionaries in Australia and in Lebanon. From the focus of data collected, a general overview of these schools will assist the reader to place the study in its correct perspective.

The culture at these six schools has evolved from the shared experiences of its teachers and administrators. The three schools in Australia work within a set of environmental conditions unique to their specific ethnic culture as a migrant community. Their initial population was derived from families newly arrived in Australia who had to overcome both financial and language barriers. The three schools in Lebanon work within a different set of environmental conditions derived from their religious culture and history. These three schools are located in three different areas of Lebanon, however, these areas, classified as middle to lower class, are not socio-economically diverse. These conditions have the potential to affect all of the teachers and schools in some way.

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The six schools were visited by the researcher who spent more than three days in each school completing in-depth interviews and informal talks with some of the schools' staff, students, parents, and principals. During the three days spent in each school, the researcher closely observed the daily routines of all within these schools. The purpose was to probe further into the data that were collected by the questionnaire and interviews. The visits enabled the researcher to describe accurately the physical conditions of the schools. They provided useful additional data about the schools' history, nature and process of schooling. In short, the visits enabled the researcher to learn more about the schools and their cultures.

It is crucial to mention that, the researcher is familiar with the context of some schools surveyed in both countries. The researcher had been headmaster at one of the schools surveyed in Lebanon for one year. Similarly, the researcher is familiar with the context of one of the schools surveyed in Australia as he lives in and works for its parish. This familiarity provides the opportunity for the researcher to understand the core of these schools, and their administrative functions, and through them the understanding of the broader educational system in both countries. What follows is a description of the six schools, from what qualitative researchers have called an 'insider perspective' (Ntshingila-khosa, 1994, Sato, 1990).

The Three Schools in Australia

The three missionary schools in Australia, coded Yellow, White and Green, have a total student population of approximately 2,500 and a total teacher population of approximately 140. The schools are all located in the same region: the Western Suburbs of Sydney. Two are combined primary and secondary schools; the third is a primary school with a pre-school. The pre-school was not included in the study. The majority of the students live in the same region and come from the same ethnic and religious background. The data reported in the following sections are collected from the schools' handbook, and information offered from the principals. The researcher decided to not use references in order to maintain the confidentiality.

i) The Green school

The Green school was established in 1970 with 180 students. By 1971, the number of pupils reached 320. There were ten lay teachers and three religious staff working as administrators. In 1988, the Green school was transferred to more spacious grounds in the same area and currently has an enrolment of approximately 500 students. Students who attend this school come from various ethnic backgrounds and have a variety of religious beliefs. The current number of lay teachers is approximately 25 and there are four religious people who run the school. Most of the teachers are Australian, a few have Lebanese backgrounds. It is a co-educational primary school.

ii) The Yellow school

The Yellow school was opened in 1984 as a primary school. In 1991, the secondary school was established in a separate block. The school currently consists of approximately 877 pupils, and the current teaching body comprises 45 teachers, with two religious people working as administrators. The principal is assisted by two deputy principals, and several departments heads. The Yellow school comprises three buildings: one dedicated to the infants and primary schools, another to the high school and the last to administration. The high school and primary school are combined and co-educational. The majority of students are from one ethnic group and religion. The teachers are different nationalities, but most of them were born in Australia.

iii) The White school

The White school was originally opened in 1973. It began with an initial enrolment of 115 pupils. After exhaustive investigations, the Australian Schools Commission declared the school "disadvantaged" in 1977 which allowed the release of funds for carpets, playground equipment and the installation of other amenities. The White school comprises two campuses: one for administration as well as the infants and primary schools; the other for the high school. The school currently caters to approximately 1,100 pupils, and has a teaching staff of approximately 70, with four religious staff working as administrators. The primary and high schools are

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combined and co-educational. The majority of teachers are Australian, several with Lebanese backgrounds. The majority of students are from one ethnic and religious group.

A reflection on the visits to the three Australian schools and on the data presented earlier has led the researcher to highlight the following. All three of the Australian schools have a high level of community involvement and support. One problem the researcher noticed during the observation period in these schools was that, parents' interests do not always coincide with those of teachers, and neither do teachers' interests always coincide with those of students. Also, there is a cultural problem between the principals and teachers. When I asked why this might be the case, a few teachers from Yellow and White schools answered similarly: there existed several culture clashes between principals, just recently arrived from Lebanon, and the teachers who were born in Australia and were used to a different culture and tradition practices. The teachers further stated that *it is quite difficult to work in a different cultural climate*. Despite the clash of interests, these Australian schools rarely have problems dealing with the students, enforcing strong discipline, and encouraging a strong catholic climate. One of the strengths that I have noticed in these schools is the discipline, and the emphasis on the cultural factors. The schools are also well resourced, and have nice newly constructed buildings and facilities.

There are noticeable divisions among staff, especially in White and Yellow schools. In these schools there even exists two different staff rooms, catering to two different factions, based on primary and secondary, among the staff. In informal discussion with the principals of these two schools, the principals justified there being two different staff rooms to cater to two different sets of teachers: one for the primary teachers and the other for the high school teachers. What is disturbing about this division, according to the teachers, is that they feel a barrier to the communication between primary and secondary schools teachers, communication which they feel to be important for the discussion of educational issues. A further exploration of these issues will be embarked upon later in this chapter.

The three schools in Lebanon

The following three schools in Lebanon belong to the same congregation. They have a total student population of approximately 1200 students and a total teacher population of approximately 120. The schools are located in different regions. Two combine primary, intermediate and secondary schools. The third is a primary and intermediate and a technical school is not included in the study. These schools are managed by clergy who are the administrators.

i) The Yellow1 school

The Yellow1 school was established in 1897 as a primary school. In 1948, the school became a boarding school for boys. The school then developed into a secondary school in 1963. In 1995 a new section was established for teaching the English language. At present the school teaches three languages in addition to the official curriculum: Arabic, English and French. The school has 600 students and 50 teachers. Students who attend this school come from various religious backgrounds. The primary, intermediate and high schools are combined and co-educational. This school suffers from a lack of facilities and resources.

ii) The White1 school

In 1947 the White1 school was established as a primary intermediate and secondary school. In 1982, the secondary school was closed down and replaced by a technical school. This technical school is not included in the study. Today, the primary and intermediate schools are co-educational, they cater to 200 students and the teaching body comprises of 22 teachers. The school is subject to appalling conditions due to the socio-economic area in which the school is located, as well as a lack of facilities and resources. Given that White1 school is a primary and intermediate school, it has very minimal discipline problems to deal with among the student body. However, this school experienced ongoing disruptions to the schooling due to the violent war in its surrounding area during the war period 1975 - 1990.

iii) The Green1 school

In 1980, the Green1 school was established to provide students with English as the official teaching language. The school also teaches Arabic and French. This school comprises primary, intermediate and secondary schools and it is co-educational. It has a student population of 500 and a teaching staff of 50. In addition to the academic schools, there is also a technical school specialising in decoration and commerce, and an institute of languages. The building of this school is very modern and well planned, but it is not well resourced. It should be noted that teachers have difficulty trying to prevent students from leaving the school grounds during and after breaks despite the existence of a fence around the school. One way in which the school tries to cope with this problem is by allocating teachers to the responsibility of blocking the school exits. Despite this problem the administrator said that discipline no longer appears to be a major problem in the school due to the stability of the surrounding situation.

A reflection on the visits to the three Lebanese schools and on the data presented earlier has led the researcher to highlight the following conclusion. All three Lebanese schools experienced problems specific to the surrounding area within which they operate, especially during the war period. They contend with problems related to ongoing political acts of violence which inevitably affects their schools' climate. The problems experienced by students outside of the schools filter into the schools and become the schools' problems to deal with. These factors, in particular the violence experienced during the war period, disrupted to a large extent the process of regular schooling. The situation of these schools has slightly changed after the war period. Nowadays, however, these schools face increasing financial problems, due to the economic crisis in the country, that affect issues of curriculum development, and the obtaining and distribution of resources. They deal with pupils who come primarily from the middle to low socio-economic classes.

Physical forms of discipline are coupled with regular assessment of student performance. Monthly tests are regularly administered, the marks of which go towards the student's yearly report. These tests also serve the purpose of streaming students within the school during the year. Also, these schools attempt to enforce tight control and discipline on the students, especially in the post war era. All the schools drastically lack important educational facilities such as physics and chemistry laboratories, and sports equipment.

The culture of these six schools

What is unique about these six schools is their culture. Culture grows out of a group experience, it is shared between members of the same society and it is learned by the next generation (Robertson, 1987). It can be thought of as a society's whole way of life (Spradley, 1972). This definition of culture can be taken further to say that the way of life defines the appropriate or required modes of thinking, acting and feeling (Chinoy, 1973). A way of life can be divided into material culture – all the physical objects humans create, and the non-material culture – all the abstract human creations such as language, values, activities, ideas, beliefs, rules and customs (Robertson, 1987). The activities associated with the culture include: Articulating school mission and purposes, socialising new members to the school, telling stories and maintaining myths, traditions and beliefs, and developing and displaying a system of symbols (Sergiovanni, 1987). From Sergiovanni's point of view on culture and the others scholar mentioned earlier, an attempt will be made to describe the culture of the six schools chosen for this study.

According to the culture research mentioned above, when one sits and reflects on the culture characteristic of the Maronite education and particularly of the culture of the six schools studied in this research, it is easy to see what is valued and what is important. The purpose of these schools, which are constructed next to the parish church in Australia, and next to the monasteries in Lebanon, is very clear.

Parents, including the students, highly value the place of religion, and maintaining one's cultural identity. The cultural aspect of these schools is obvious in all facets of schools' life. In both countries, the welcome ceremony at the beginning of the school year is opened by either a prayer or a mass. Afterward comes the singing of the Lebanese national anthem and school anthem with the addition, for the Australian schools, of the Australian national anthem. For the three Australian schools, this is not only a beginning of the school year ceremony, but also a

weekly event. After the singing, the principals, as the leaders of the schools, welcome everyone back and articulate the schools' mission and motto for the current academic year.

The culture of these six Maronite Catholic schools is also expressed in everyday rituals from a communal school prayer, to the teaching of religion and the Lebanese Maronite traditions and values, and through the ceremony of reconciliation and the first communion programmes, which are given high priority, and the encouragement of students to join organisations such as the Legion of Mary, or a religious congregation in order to foster potential vocations according to the principals. Moreover, a number of days are also set aside each year in these schools for a religious retreat. This activity which lasts about two or three days gives the students opportunities to immerse themselves in prayer, religious reflection, spiritual exercises and the reading of religious works. Thus it is evident that these schools devote much time not only to academic pursuits, but also to the spiritual growth of students. This is one of the many reasons that makes parents eager to send their children to these schools either in Lebanon or in Australia.

Symbols play a relevant part of the culture (Duncan, 1998). The crucifix, the icons of Saints in every classroom, and the Lebanese flag in all six schools with the addition of the Australian flag in the three Australian schools are some of the symbols reflecting the culture and values of the Maronite Catholic schools. Statues of Saints and dedications to Mother Mary around the schools also show the deep respect for religion.

As I have noticed while I was visiting these schools, the presence of the religious people amongst the students in the playground during recess and lunchtime is very high. The researcher argues that they teach the students certain values by their good example.

During my visit to the three Australia schools it was noticed that the schools strive to keep their religious and ethnic identities alive, and to emphasise the Maronite Catholic ethos among students. The pupils are encouraged to be proud of their culture and religion. They learn about their culture in numerous ways such as the weekly mass and sacrament programmes, and the study events in the Maronite Catholic calendar. These cultural factors prompt parents to send their children to these schools.

Language itself is an important cultural element (Duncan, 1998). The Maronite culture is also enhanced by using and teaching in the Arabic Language. Thus, it constitutes part of the core philosophy of the cultural basis of the three schools in Australia. As one teacher from White school stated it is the Arabic language and the Maronite culture as well as the religious ethos that underpins all that we do, and the beliefs and practices of the Maronite Catholic religion both add a particular flavour to the life of our school.

It is fitting to mention the role of the principals of these six schools who play a large part in fostering the culture of the schools. The principals build the culture by showing a concern for values, beliefs and expectations (Duncan, 1998). The principals of the six schools articulate a strong pride towards school goals, values and expectations by reinforcing to the pupils and staff how fortunate they are to be part of these organisations. However, some staff in these schools do not share the pride of the principals.

While the principals obviously enhance the culture in some ways, according to my observation, they contradict it in others. From my observation and the reports of many teachers, especially those in Australia, the principals fail to induce clarity, consensus, and commitment among staff and students to the schools' basic purposes. For instance, principals need to clearly state what they want and then adhere to it. Several teachers on several occasions reported to the researcher during observations that such clarity is missing from their schools. The lack of clarity could affect the fostering of the culture. And as I mentioned earlier in this chapter a few teachers found it difficult to work with the principals whose culture differed from their own. This means that the principals fail somehow to articulate to the teachers the mission of the schools and the role that the Maronite culture plays in it.

It is possible that the teachers' negative feedback on certain cultural aspects of the schools could well reveal the need to re-ritualise or build up the culture of the schools if the schools are to maintain and strengthen their Maronite tradition and culture. For the schools to build up a culture strong enough for it to be readily identified as Maronite Catholic there must be an appropriate leadership style exhibited in the school. Such a style has been found to involve leadership activities associated with a cultural view (see Sergiovanni leadership model, Chapter three).

A cultural critique of the six schools can be conducted by analysing all the tangible aspects of the Maronite Catholic culture and checking for congruence between each element and the values they reflect. Such a critique may indicate the need to revitalise, re-ritualise or even to rebuild the schools' culture, especially the three Australian schools, in order to make the Maronite culture more understandable and accessible to both the teachers and the students who were born in Australia.

Although there may be variations in the way in which individual Maronite schools are organised, there is a philosophy of the congregations that the six schools in this study belong to. Again, the following information is taken from the school handbooks and information obtained from the informal discussion with the principals, thus there will be no references made in order to maintain the confidentiality of the schools. All of the six schools draw their philosophies from two main sources. First, the Christian message as revealed in the Scripture, in particular, the New Testament; second, from recent Roman statements about Catholic schooling. The major topics encompassed in this philosophy are faith education, community orientation, personal development of students and intellectual goals. The vision statement of these schools can be summarised as follows: Maronite schools are dedicated to the task of developing in the children a love of God and neighbours and an abiding attachment to their Maronite faith and heritage. The missions of these schools are to be rich in Lebanese tradition that will help the children to appreciate their history and the past and future glories of the Maronite community.

To conclude, the culture of the Maronite schools encourages the pursuit of the ideal in terms of morality, humanity and society, and also fosters the development of a discerning appreciation of spiritual expression.

Comparison of the Australian and Lebanese education systems

In order to highlight similarities and differences between the two educational systems within which the six schools exist, some important information on the national context of the two systems follows.

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The Lebanese system of education, promulgated in 1945, declares the structure of the school as follows: six or seven years in pre-school and primary school. Four years in complementary school and three years in secondary school (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sport, 1995). As this system was badly damaged during the civil war between 1975 and 1991, the Republic of Lebanon launched into the educational restructuring of schools and curriculum with the purpose of developing a new Lebanese citizen for the post war period (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sport, 1994; 1995). Consequently, since 1995, Lebanon has a new education system and school structure which encompasses pupils from the age of four to The new structure consists of four stages: kindergarten, elementary, eighteen years. intermediate and secondary school (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sport, 1995). Despite the new reform, the system remains centralised in the capital, Beirut, and is administered by regional and local offices. This system is open at all levels to both boys and girls. Coeducation was avoided in public schools and in many private schools, nevertheless, under the influence of modernisation, co-education is becoming more widespread in both private and public schools.

With regard to the Australian system, clearly, it is beyond the scope of this section to provide an historic overview of the system's development, so the researcher will outline the main features of the system. Responsibility for education is mainly a state responsibility, although the commonwealth government also plays a role. Schools are required to meet state requirements in relation to curriculum and other issues, especially at the secondary level. Schooling is compulsory from age six to fifteen in most states (Turney et al., 1993). Primary schooling has a duration of either six or seven years, while secondary education consists of five or six years, depending on the law of the state concerned. The majority of government secondary schools are co-educational but a significant number of non-government schools are single sex (Turney et al., 1993). In terms of school-centered management in Australia, there is a great argument about the efficiency of the devolution movement in educational administration (Whitehouse, 1993). Some critics have responded with alarm, and warn of the perils of following the agenda of the new right. Other issues such as quality assurance, and quality management in education are also the subject of great debate among the Australian educators (Cuttance, 1995). It is worth

Government for recognition as part of official examinations outcomes. In Lebanon, the school's assessment of students does not contribute to the results of official examinations.

- 6. The Australian school structure is composed of two levels: primary and secondary. There can exist in the primary schools in the different States distinctive categories such as kindergarten, infants, lower and upper primary, however, not all the states make these divisions. The same is true for the secondary schools in the different states. There can be different categories such as junior and senior, or junior, middle and senior. In Lebanon, the school structure is kindergarten, elementary school, intermediate school and secondary school with no variations.
- Australian non-government schools have considerable and increasing funding from the Commonwealth and State Governments in addition to students' fees. In Lebanon nongovernment schools are funded by students' fees alone and this results in a lack of financial resources for these schools.

Summary

As a background to the research undertaken for this thesis, this chapter briefly described the context and the culture of the six schools, and the education systems in both Australia and Lebanon. There are many points of similarity and difference and these must be taken into consideration when examining the results of the data collected for this study. From the content of this chapter the researcher has come to the conclusion that there is a need to research the nuances and differences between the schools in contexts, diversity of the school actors' perspectives and interests, and the plurality of conflicts or tensions in the social relations surroundings of the schools. This enables one to capture the complexity of everyday school realities and the impact of either the richness or weakness of their portraits. It also enables to the investigation in depth of the precise nature of the interactions which take place within the schools, revealing the varying ways in which the schools cope with complex differences. Finally, the information gathered for this chapter is also important for determining the research issues applicable to this thesis. These points will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Gradenter Pieta

RESEARCH ISSUES AND STRATEGIES

One of the many error of research into educational administration is to enable aducators to have access to a sound base of knowledge which can sid society and educational leaders to make encroprote decisions and opticies.

The nature of the school, as an organisation, has fundamentally changed over the last 20 years. Bears (1989 p. 14) ways that "jejducation is being larged to adopt the modes of organisation which appear to be successful in the business or private auctor". The post-industrial, informationbased economy a spowning non-business or private auctor". The post-industrial, informationbased economy a spowning non-business and individual schools are now being forted to adopt the fluid, entrepreseural, organisational patterns which characterize the new power school (dependence). (e)ducation systems and individual schools are now being forted to adopt the fluid, entrepreseural, organisational patterns which characterize the new prowth since of the scanoors" (Bears, 1969 p. 16). These patterns include stati working in anti-ducated teams operating within a network, collegial relationships first a, hierarchical, sports, deal, statistation descenter, not employees, fees by service, (e) ways for the power power that relate their specialist skills, and an emphasis the efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and productions

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and the networks phonomenological mode". The empirical tradition uses quantitative research methods based on positivist methodology which "assumes social multiple objective and external to the individual". The interpretive opproach to research "emphasizes the external to the individual" as well as "the importance of sublicitive reponence of individuals with a form on

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Research Issues and Strategies

One of the many aims of research into educational administration is to enable educators to have access to a sound base of knowledge which can aid society and educational leaders to make appropriate decisions and policies.

The nature of the school, as an organisation, has fundamentally changed over the last 20 years. Beare (1989 p. 14) says that "[e]ducation is being forced to adopt the modes of organisation which appear to be successful in the business or private sector". The post-industrial, informationbased economy is spawning non-bureaucratic forms of organisation responsive to the need for rapid changes in strategic direction, constant innovation, entrepreneurship and local, selfdirected management. "[e]ducation systems and individual schools are now being forced to adopt the fluid, entrepreneurial, organisational patterns which characterise the new growth areas of the economy" (Beare, 1989 p. 15). These patterns include staff working in self-directed teams operating within a network; collegial relationships not a hierarchical system; staff as stakeholders, not employees; fees for service, not wages for time spent; generalist rather than specialist skills; and an emphasis on efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and productivity.

Given these new directions in education, educational research needs to tackle problems that will inform and guide educational administrators in these different tasks. It is necessary to ascertain the type of research approach applicable to the new emphases in administration. Since the 1970s, research as a disciplined inquiry or a systematic investigation to find answers to problems has undergone a shift away from the traditional, objective, scientific method. Burns (1995, p. 2) states "[a] strong move towards a more qualitative, naturalistic and subjective approach has left educational research divided between two competing methods: the scientific empirical tradition; and the naturalistic phenomenological mode". The empirical tradition uses quantitative research methods based on positivist methodology which "assumes social reality is objective and external to the individual". The interpretive approach to research "emphasises the external to the individual" as well as "the importance of subjective experience of individuals with a focus on

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qualitative analysis. Social reality is regarded as a creation of individual consciousness, with meaning and the evaluation of events being a personal and subjective construction". This is called ideographic/anti-positivist methodology.

On the one hand, quantitative research seeks causal explanations and aims to predict, manipulate and control through generalisations which lead to theories (Burns, 1995). It uses formal instruments such as sampling strategies and experiments, reduces data to numerical indices and reports using abstract, mathematical language. It also deals with numbers, percentages and priority ranking. The role of the researcher is to observe and measure from a vantage point of impartial detachment in order to achieve objectivity.

The problems with the quantitative method stem from the fact that educational research, like all social research, is interactive, reflexive and influenced by the theories, assumptions and biases of the researcher (Smith and Hope, 1992 p. 19). The fundamental characteristics of quantitative research such as objectivity, precision, verification, brevity of explanation, empiricism, logic and prediction are problematical for the social sciences.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, aims to "deal with multiple, socially constructed realities or 'qualities' that are complex and indivisible into discrete statements" (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992, p. 6). The researcher's role is to understand and interpret how the various participants in a social setting construct the world around them. The researcher is the main instrument as he or she observes, questions and interacts with the research participants. The researcher is empathic and has personal involvement with the research subject.

Qualitative researchers depend on a variety of methods for gathering data. Three broad techniques are among many used in gathering data: participant observation, interviewing and document collection (Smith and Hope, 1992). The work of qualitative researchers in education can also include ethnography, phenomenology, ethnomethodology, educational criticism and symbolic interactionism (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). These approaches to qualitative research study direct experience at face value, seek to understand how people make sense of their everyday world and focus on the interaction and dynamic activities taking place between people.

For educational researchers whose topics of research include human characteristics such as achievement, intelligence, leadership styles, group interaction or performance, qualitative analysis offers research instruments which are sensitive to subtle, hard to categorise dimensions of social life. Kincheloe (1991, p. 29) argues that "the empirical research instruments which are capable of assessing particular factors are inappropriate for assessing other factors...the traditional empirical research instrument may have no use for the atypical situation because it does not fit the categories delineated". He suggests that extensions of human daily activity such as listening, reading, watching and speaking can offer a "path to a new level of understanding of the effect of a curriculum on a community" (Kincheloe, 1991, p. 29).

Criticisms of qualitative research methodology are, according to Cohen and Manion (1995), problems of relativism and building a comprehensive body of knowledge when researchers and research participants can only know a sector of society in a partial manner. The qualitative educational researcher has "difficulties associated with defining the research focus, creating collaborative groups where no formal organisation exists and knowing when and how to leave or end the research project" (Glesne and Peshkin 1992, p. 12). The overall problem seems to be that if meanings are negotiated, and in every situation power relationships exist, there is an unanswered question about the value to be placed upon research findings.

Being aware of the complexity and importance of choosing the appropriate research methods to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected for this study, I have decided to use both quantitative and qualitative methods which consist of questionnaires, interviews, and observation techniques. These techniques give me the opportunity to collect accurate information that will result in appropriate findings that reflect the effects of the principal's leadership styles on teacher motivation and to identify motivational strategies. By studying the topic from more than one perspective by making use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, I am given a greater opportunity to map out, or interpret more fully, the richness and complexity of the impact of the principal's leadership styles on teacher motivation.

A major consideration for any educational research that must inform the choice of research method is ethics, because everyone, simply as human beings, has certain rights which

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researchers need to be sensitive to and which need to be respected (Cohen and Manion, 1995). When people are seen as objects serious ethical questions arise (Kincheloe, 1991). Tuckman (1988, p. 14) asserts that ethics are important for educational researchers because "research may embarrass, hurt, frighten, impose on, or otherwise negatively affect the lives of the participants to the research". He says the fundamentals of ethical research include the right to privacy or non-participation, the right to remain anonymous, the right to confidentiality, and the right to expect experimenter responsibility.

As a researcher, I am aware of the sensitive ethical aspects of my study. Therefore, I ensured that all participants knew that their involvement in the project was strictly voluntary, that they knew they would remain anonymous and that they knew all their responses would be treated confidentially. For the surveys and interviews, teachers do not mention their names or identify their schools. The data for the study remain anonymous and confidential.

Method of collecting data

For the collection of data I took into consideration the suggestion of Rist and Joyce (1995 p. 131) that the new types of organisational structure focus on a flexible and changing environment and required the use of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. This study employs both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Using these two different techniques of collecting data, a more representative picture of the respondents' orientation to the research problem is obtained. This method ensures that the principle of triangulation applies to the work by using more than one method of data collection.

Questionnaire design and structure

The questionnaire, in this study, is designed to achieve the research objectives, specifically to identify the factors that affect teacher motivation. The questionnaire was developed with knowledge gained from the motivational theories (see Chapter 2) and the literature review (see Chapter 3). The factors identified by researchers and discussed in the literature review were then used to organise the main areas of research from which the questions were developed.

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The questions and statements were based on theories of motivation and were designed to identify principals' leadership styles, school restructuring, teamwork, recognition, decision-making, personal regard and professional growth. The questionnaire requested respondents to indicate on a five-point Likert scale whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were undecided, disagreed or strongly disagreed with statements made. The statements took into consideration two relevant dimensions: teacher satisfaction and teacher motivation. The responses to these statements were then analysed using the SPSS 6.0 statistical package. Means were calculated for each individual item. Open-ended questions and interviews were used to provide more information to support and expand the quantitative data.

Teacher satisfaction statements were designed to solicit the level of teacher satisfaction. Respondents were asked whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied about their workplaces and their jobs. From the mean scores of these responses, it was possible to determine how satisfied teachers were with aspects of their work environment and their work itself. Responses to questions and statements which related specifically to the main factors in motivation were able to be measured for their satisfaction rating. The three Australian schools and the three Lebanese schools were then able to be rated according to the amount of satisfaction teachers gained from the principal's leadership style, involvement in decision-making, recognition received, personal regard experienced, teamwork participation, and professional growth activities available.

Teacher motivation statements were designed to extract knowledge about how aspects of their workplaces and jobs affected teachers' motivation. Respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with statements about their workplaces and jobs. From the mean scores of these responses, it was possible to determine what factors teachers found most motivating. The differences in responses from the three schools in Australia and the three schools in Lebanon were revealed.

The questionnaire was approved by the Human Ethics Committee of the University of Sydney. Prior to finalising the questionnaire, a detailed discussion regarding the nature of questionnaire was conducted by the researcher with several of the teachers who participated in the study to see how they reacted to the questionnaire, whether it was clear and sufficient in their opinion;

whether they had any difficulty understanding the questions and statements; or whether any of the questions were confusing. These teachers were also asked to suggest improvements for the instrument. Subsequently, modification and revision were incorporated into the final questionnaire based on the opinions of these teachers and on further discussion with the supervisor. The questionnaire was then distributed to three schools in Australia coded "White", "Yellow" and "Green" schools.

A sample of the questionnaire and cover sheet are found at Appendix 1. Official University letterhead is used with the heading *Subject Information Statement*. This summarises the subject and aim of the study, gives instructions about how to complete and return the questionnaire, and provides contact names and telephone numbers. The questionnaire comprises four sections: demographic data, teacher motivation and satisfaction, principal style and general questions:

- Demographic data are designed to elicit demographic information such as gender, age, number of years taught at the school, whether the respondent is a primary or secondary teacher, number of years under the present principal, and teaching qualifications.
- Teacher motivation and satisfaction elicit responses to 45 statements recorded on a Likert five-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and very satisfied to very dissatisfied.
- Principal's style elicits respondents' perceptions from 24 statements and the responses were scaled on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *always* to *never*.
- General questions require yes/no answers and responses to open-ended questions. This
 part enabled me to collect more information about the research problem in the three
 schools.

The questionnaire data used in Australia was redesigned to suit teachers in Lebanon. The questionnaire distributed in Lebanon was written in both Arabic and English to avoid any ambiguity in understanding and to cater for the ability of some Lebanese teachers to comprehend the two languages. Due to the short duration of my stay in Lebanon, I was not able to discuss the questionnaire with any of the Lebanese teachers before I distributed the

questionnaire. However, after collecting the questionnaire, I had the opportunity to ask few teachers whether the questionnaire was clear enough for them. Their responses were positive.

The Lebanese questionnaires contain a brief summary of the purpose of the research on the cover sheet in addition to contact names and telephone numbers. A sample of the questionnaire and cover sheet is found at Appendix 2. The questionnaire comprises five sections: demographic data, teacher motivation, teacher satisfaction, principal style and general questions.

- Demographic data are designed to elicit demographic information such as gender, age, number of years taught at the school, whether the respondent is a primary or secondary school teacher, number of years under the present principal, and teaching qualifications.
 - 2. Teacher motivation elicits teacher perceptions from 17 statements. Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*.
 - Teacher satisfaction provides teachers with the opportunity to express their feelings about their present job by responding to 21 statements. Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from very satisfied to very dissatisfied.
 - 4. Principal Style elicits respondents' perceptions of their principal's style. Responses to 17 statements were scaled on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *always* to *never*.
- General questions require yes/no answers and responses to open-ended questions.
 This sections enabled me to draw out more information on the research questions in the Lebanese situation.

The questions for Australian teachers were the same as these for the Lebanese teachers. The only difference in the structure of the questionnaire between the two groups was that the questions on teacher motivation and teacher satisfaction were separated into two sections in the Lebanese questionnaire.

Questionnaire distribution and response

After permission was obtained, a total of 130 questionnaires were given to the principals in three Australian schools who then distributed them to the teachers. A prepaid self-addressed envelope was attached to each questionnaire for return mailing, in order to maintain confidentially and to help facilitate responses being returned to the researcher by the deadline of 9 December 1996. I made follow-up telephone calls to principals in order to remind the teachers who had not yet met the deadline. While the number of the teaching body in the three schools is 140, ten teachers are casual and are therefore not included in the study thus bringing the total number of questionnaires sent out to 130. Rather than distributing the questionnaires directly to the teachers, they were given to the principals because when asking for permission to conduct the survey, the principals agreed on the condition that it be they who distribute the questionnaires. To respect their wishes I gave them the questionnaires, all the while being anxious that this method of distribution might impact upon the research. My concern turned out to be justified. After receiving a low return rate at two of the schools, I was told by deputy principal and coordinator that the teachers were a bit hesitant in answering the questionnaires as they believed that the researcher was acting on behalf of the principal, despite the clear message on the cover sheet of the questionnaires explaining the purpose of the study. The low rate of return therefore reflects the tension and disharmony between the teachers on one side and the principals on the other. It also indirectly reveals the negative effect of the principals' leadership styles on teacher motivation. Despite the low return rate, I do not believe that this has significantly affected the research findings due to my having used two different methods and different data collection techniques. Despite the unrepresentative sample, in two schools, resulting from the low rate of questionnaire return, the qualitative data supports and reinforces the quantitative data, as can be seen in Chapters Six and Seven. The data also reflect my impressions and observations after having visited the schools and having spoken to the different people such as principals, teachers, parents and students.

The final return rate was 23 % for White school, 44 % for Green school and 28 % for Yellow school. Three additional surveys were received by the researcher after the statistics were

compiled and analysed. These three surveys were not used in the statistical analysis or included in the percentage of return rate of the surveys.

The distribution of the questionnaires in Lebanon followed a slightly different procedure because of circumstances. I travelled to Lebanon on 17 July 1997. A few days after my arrival, I telephoned the principals of the three schools, Yellow1 School, Green1 School and White1 School, to ask for permission to distribute the questionnaires and to interview four of their teachers. I provided a letter from my supervisor explaining the research project.

While the principals were eager to help me, all of the teachers were away on their summer vacations, which disrupted my data collection procedure. However, I took advantage of organised staff meeting days, the dates of which were given to me by the three principals, where I distributed the questionnaires to teachers and conducted interviews with the four teachers from each school. On 25 August 1997, I distributed 70 questionnaires to Yellow1 School and Green1 School. On 10 October 1997, I distributed 40 questionnaires to White1 School. During this time, I visited the schools to collect returned questionnaires. Of the 110 questionnaires distributed, I received 67 back while still in Lebanon. The principal of White1 School promised to send the outstanding questionnaires to me in Australia once they were completed. These have never been received. I decided, therefore, to analyse the data that I had brought back from Lebanon without waiting any longer for the other questionnaires to be returned.

Interview procedures

Categories of interview

There are three categories of interview according to Burns (1995, p. 278): first, unstructured or open-ended - oral or life history, in-depth interviews, clinical interviews and group interviews, second, semi-structured interviews - survey interviews, group interviews and in-depth interviews; and finally, structured interviews - standardised interviews, survey interviews and clinical history taking.

Structured or standardised interviews are used predominantly in surveys and opinion polls with subsequent quantitative analysis. Every interviewee received the same questions in the same order. A conversational approach is minimised and the questions are close-ended so that the respondent is forced to select their answer from a limited set of responses previously established by the designer of the questions. There is no flexibility or latitude allowed to either interviewer or respondent (Burns, 1995).

The semi-structured interview uses an interview guide which gives direction to the interview so that the content focuses on the crucial issues of the study. This type of interview allows greater flexibility for both interviewer and interviewee to bring new perspectives into both the questions and the answers provided (Burns, 1995).

The open-ended or unstructured interview takes the form of a conversation between the researcher and the informant. It is free-flowing and relies heavily on the quality of social interaction between the two participants, but it is always controlled by the researcher to ensure the focus stays relevant (Burns, 1995).

In this present study, questionnaire responses are used to develop eight categories of interview questions and then an interview guide (See Appendix 4 for details). I used the semi-structured interview to explore the relationships that may have existed among teachers and principals in the schools in the study.

Stages of interview

There are three stages to using the interview as a research technique (Cohen and Manion, 1995, p. 284). Stage One consists of determining the purpose of the research such as to explain the theoretical basis of the study, to outline its broad aims, to explain why the interview approach is appropriate, and to translate the general goals of the research into more detailed and specific objectives. Stage Two involves setting up and conducting the interview, and collecting the data. Stage Three involves coding and scoring the data into specific categories for the purpose of analysis, and analysing and interpreting the data in light of the research objectives.

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The interviews for this thesis are structured and semi-structured using Cohen and Manions' stages and were all conducted during Term 2 of the 1997 Australian academic school year, and in Lebanon during the 1997 academic school year between August and September. A small volunteer sample of four teachers from each of the six schools participated in the interview. They were informed of the need for four volunteer teachers to be interviewed by a note placed by the principal on the bulletin board in the staff room after permission had been granted by the principals to conduct the interviews. Those who wrote their name were subsequently interviewed. Only four teachers from each school were necessary to collect the qualitative data according to both the researcher and his supervisor.

The interview sessions were mutually agreed upon by myself and the teachers who consented to be part of the study. The interview process was relaxed and friendly and held in a congenial atmosphere. Interviews took approximately 30 to 40 minutes to conduct and all took place at the schools. Also, the interview guides were given to the teachers 10 minutes before the appointed interview time as preparation for the interview.

Problems and issues

An important issue concerning the appropriateness of the type of interview to be used for research and the role of the interviewer is that there are benefits in the different approaches. The structured approach and the unstructured approach both have benefits. The structured approach provides the basis for coding and scoring in a systematic way, while the unstructured approach allows the interview process to elicit highly personal data and deeper perceptions from the interviewee with reduced opportunity for interviewer bias (Burns, 1995).

In the same way, the natural curiosity of the interviewer to pursue a line of questioning which evolves out of the interview process can provide useful information to the research being undertaken. If the interviewer's role is constrained by the structured approach to being a collector of data, then natural human traits such as empathy and curiosity are curbed and the interview process may not reveal as much information as it could have (Keats, 1988).

In this research, the semi-structured approach was used with a set of carefully designed single topic questions which allowed for the further development of a thought or an idea. I found it necessary during the interview to rephrase the questions to ensure that my meaning was made clear. I tried to establish a rapport with my interviewees and to encourage free communication. I believe I succeeded in this because even after a telephone interruption, it was not difficult to continue the interview.

Every interview subject was particularly important for me. It was necessary for me to make sure that each interviewee felt confident to discuss the topic of my research honestly and openly, given that some of the information being provided was very sensitive. Issues of confidentiality regarding identification of the interviewee and the school involved were important as it would be unprofessional for recriminations to result from my research project. I also had to be confident that the interview subject was able to answer the questions with a reasonable degree of professional competence.

Others issues to be considered were the choice of interview subject and the knowledge of the interviewer. Berdie et al. (1986, pp. 6-7) say that researchers need to "gather as much information about the subject matter as realistically possible". They also say that "...careful researchers will make every possible effort to know the population to be surveyed and will design the study accordingly. The interviewer must be thoroughly acquainted with the topic of the research interview. This enables the interviewer to categorise, review and evaluate the responses to the questions as the interview is progressing". My knowledge of the research topic allowed me to gauge whether the interviewee had understood the questions enough to provide answers of value to my research.

Obtaining the respondent's participation in the interview is essential (Keats, 1988, p.54). There are many factors that influence the level of cooperation of the interviewee. Keats (1988) lists those positively affecting interviewee cooperation as: explaining the procedure, even doing a 'trial run'; explaining the purpose of the study, and what will happen to the interview information; keeping the physical location of the interview private, quiet and interruption-free; arranging an appropriate time for both interviewer and interviewee; keeping to the schedule; and, not allowing

note pads, tape recorders or cameras to dominate the proceedings. Thus, I endeavoured to meet these criteria to the best of my ability in order to maximise interviewee participation and cooperation.

For this study, I paid particular attention to the time of day for the interview because of the need to be aware of fatigue of the interviewee; the location, which was the choice of the interviewee; and the physical environment, which ensured comfort for both parties, clear vision, good hearing and seating on equal levels. I found that non-verbal communication and gestures gave much insight into the interviewee's reactions to questions as well as attitudes and levels of emotions attached to particular topics.

The "interviewer age, the size of the interviewing assignment and interviewer expectations" strongly affect the cooperation of the interviewee (Singer et. al., 1983, p. 68). Weeks and Moore (1981, p. 247) discuss the "effects of race-of-interviewer" on the interviewee. In some cases, a man will not respond to questions put by a woman or cultural beliefs dictate that a woman cannot be interviewed alone in a room with a man. Similarly a white person may not wish to co-operate with a black interviewer. There has to be a reasonable degree of mutual respect between interviewer and interviewee which allows for the free expression of information. In my research, both interviewer and interviewees came from similar social backgrounds and I was able to gain full co-operation from the interviewees.

My interview experience provided me with many insights into issues and problems associated with conducting educational research and indeed sociological research in general. The particular roles of both interviewer and interviewee are critical to the success of the interview as is the choice of interview approach. I found the semi-structured approach to be effective for my project. The interview in associated with the questionnaire technique was also effective in eliciting the type of information I required. Its advantage is that it can help to overcome the problems of language such as the gap between speech and meaning (Mishler, 1986). The precision of question construction is crucial to the validity of the study which must accurately test the research questions. In the interview situation, the interviewer has the opportunity to immediately gauge the respondent's level of understanding of the question (Berdie et al., 1986).

This can also help with the reliability of the interviews' results. The ability to correct misunderstanding ensures that the interviewee is providing answers which have real value.

It was particularly important for me to be aware of ethical problems such as the need for confidentiality and anonymity, given that the interview situation encourages openness and frankness in discussion and the possibility of repercussions for the interviewee should the information elicited be handled inappropriately. I asked the interviewee not to mention the name of the school or his/her name in order to maintain a high level of confidentiality. The level of rapport and trust established meant that the interviewee had expectations about my behaviour as a researcher, that I would be responsible with the information supplied, and that I would follow due process with regard to the findings and reporting.

Data analysis and coding procedures

This topic will be covered in detail in the next chapter. However, at this stage, it is appropriate to state that the interviews were all taped and transcribed in order to refer back to them as necessary during the analysis of the data. I made copies of all the transcripts and then the responses to each question were grouped by question. After I examined the responses to each question, I found that many of the responses could be used in more than one category. Upon completion of all the coding and sorting, I re-read all of the data and found I had to re-group the data and separate some of the categories.

This procedure helped me to categorise the factors that affected teacher motivation. I then examined the data and looked for possible relationships between the motivation factors and considered whether the conceptual framework helped to explain teacher motivation. Upon completion of the analysis, my interpretation was written in a descriptive format that compared the three schools in Australia and the three schools in Lebanon.

Summary

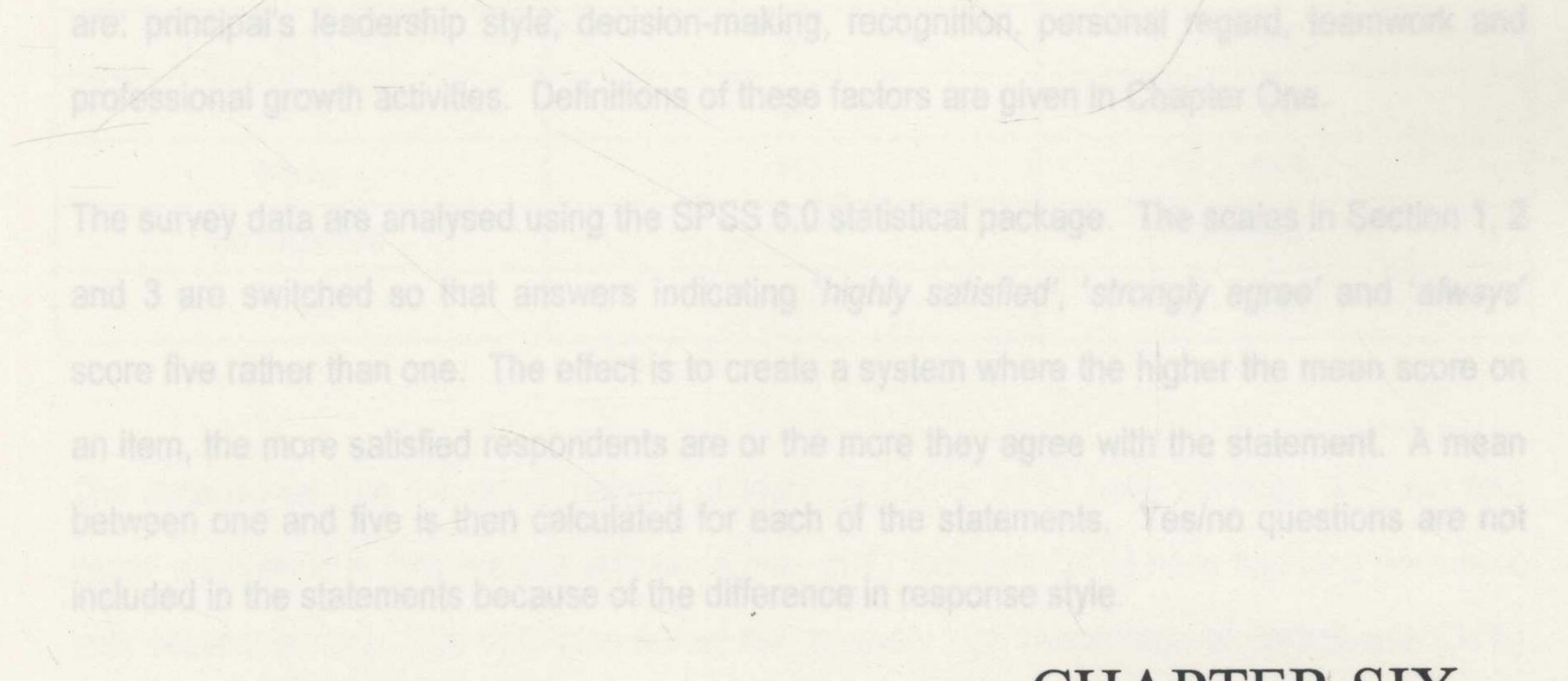
This chapter examined the types of research methods appropriate for a sociological research project, such as that which has been conducted for this thesis. It examined both quantitative and qualitative methods, and the choice made for the study. It also examined the sensitive ethical issues involved in this type of research.

Additionally, the chapter gave details about the questionnaire used in the study and the interview techniques considered appropriate. A full analysis of the data collected by these methods is discussed in Chapter Six for the three Australian schools, and in Chapter Seven for the three Lebanese schools. In Chapter Eight, the Australian and Lebanese results are compared and discussed.

DATA ANALYSIS AUSTRALIAN SCHOOLS

This chapter presents an overview of the demographic information of the participants in this sludy, and an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected, by both the questionnaire and interview research instruments, for the three Australian Schools coded Yellow. White and Green. The individual schools are not analysed separately for the quantitative sections due to the small percentage of questionnaires returned of some of the individual schools. The open-ended questions and the interview data are analysed for each school under six different motivational themes in order to provide more information to support and expand on the quantitative data.

The six different motivational themes based upon the elements identified in the Elerature review



CHAPTER SIX

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In order to completely understand the data review and analysis, and therefore the results of this research, it is necessary to examine the characteristics of the target population. While the teachers who did not respond to the questionnaire can also be considered important in terms of The Effects of the Principal's Leadership Style on Teacher Motivation: Page 115

Chapter Six

Data Analysis - Australian Schools

Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the demographic information of the participants in this study, and an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected, by both the questionnaire and interview research instruments, for the three Australian Schools coded Yellow, White and Green. The individual schools are not analysed separately for the quantitative sections due to the small percentage of questionnaires returned of some of the individual schools. The open-ended questions and the interview data are analysed for each school under six different motivational themes in order to provide more information to support and expand on the quantitative data.

The six different motivational themes based upon the elements identified in the literature review are: principal's leadership style, decision-making, recognition, personal regard, teamwork and professional growth activities. Definitions of these factors are given in Chapter One.

The survey data are analysed using the SPSS 6.0 statistical package. The scales in Section 1, 2 and 3 are switched so that answers indicating '*highly satisfied*', '*strongly agree*' and '*always*' score five rather than one. The effect is to create a system where the higher the mean score on an item, the more satisfied respondents are or the more they agree with the statement. A mean between one and five is then calculated for each of the statements. Yes/no questions are not included in the statements because of the difference in response style.

Demographic data

In order to completely understand the data review and analysis, and therefore the results of this research, it is necessary to examine the characteristics of the target population. While the teachers who did not respond to the questionnaire can also be considered important in terms of

the questions raised about their motivation profile, no effort was made in this study to address those concerns.

In the demographic section of the questionnaire, subjects at the three schools are asked the following: number of years of teaching experience at current school, gender, age, primary or secondary school teacher, number of years teaching under this principal and highest level of education attained. The following tables illustrate the demographic data provided by respondents and reveal information useful to analysing research results.

Years' teaching at present school

Table 3 below reveals the number of years the teachers have taught at their present schools.

Years at Current School	Number	Percent
1-2	12	34%
3-4	6	17%
5-7	3	9%
8 plus	eton of pa 11 cents in the	31%
No response	3	9%
Total	35	100%

Table 3: Years Of Teaching Experience At Present School

The data reveal that the small majority of teachers (18 or 51%) have between one and four years' experience in their present school. A core of 11 teachers (31%) have had long periods at their present school. The data also reveal the relatively high percentage of participants (34%) who have been at their schools for only 1 to 2 years.

Gender

The gender distribution of the participants in the survey is shown at Table 4 below.

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	9	26%
Female	23	66%
No response	3	8%
Total	35	100%

Table 4: Gender of Teachers

As shown in Table 4, the number of female participants (23 or 66 %) is much higher than the number of male participants (9 or 26%). Three (8%) of the participants, did not respond to the demographic section.

Type of teacher

Table 5 below presents the distribution of participants in this study working at the primary and secondary levels in the three schools surveyed.

Table 5: Type of Teacher

Type of Teacher	Number	Percent
Primary School	16	46%
Secondary School	16	46%
No response	3	8%
Total	35	100%

Table 5 shows an equal number of participants working at primary and secondary schools as shown with 46% of the teachers work at the primary school level and 46% at the secondary school level. Therefore, the study results will apply equally to both levels of schools.

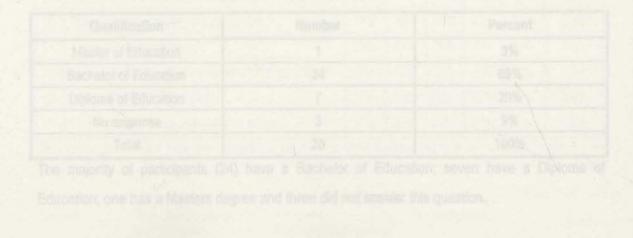
Years taught under current principal

Table 6 below indicates the number of years the participants have been working under their present principal.

Years Under Current Principal	Number	Percent
1-2	29	83%
3-4	a agos and distributed fairly	3%
5 plus	2	6%
No response	3	8%
Total	35	100%

Table 6: Number Of Years Participants Under This Principal

As shown in Table 6 above, the majority of participants (83%) have one to two years' experience under the current principal. This can be explained by all three principals having only recently been appointed to their positions. And If one or two years' experience may be regarded as adequate for understanding a leader's style, all teachers, therefore, have had adequate time to become familiar with the leadership styles of their principals.



Age

Table 7 below displays the age group distribution of teachers who participated in the study.

Age	Number	Percent
20-25	9	26%
26-30	7	20%
31-41	15	42%
42 plus	2	6%
No response	2	6%

Table 7: Age Of Teachers

Table 7 also reveals that respondents' ages are distributed fairly evenly between the groups 20-30 and 31-41. Two of the respondents (6%) did not provide their age. Acknowledging the low impact of aging on teacher motivation (Krupp, 1987), the researcher does not focus on these factors in the context of this study.

Qualifications

The highest level of education attained by the participants is indicated in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Highest Level Of Education Attained

Qualification	Number	Percent
Master of Education	1 206 439	3%
Bachelor of Education	24	68%
Diploma of Education	7 28 43	20%
No response	acheel 3 175 200	9%
Total	35	100%

The majority of participants (24) have a Bachelor of Education; seven have a Diploma of Education; one has a Masters degree and three did not answer this question.

The demographic information shows that participants from the three missionary schools in Australia generally: have adequate educational qualifications (Table 8), have taught at their present schools between 1 to 2 years (Table 3); and have taught under their current principals between 1 to 2 years (Table 6). These figures provide a useful context in which to understand the participants' perceptions of how their motivation are influenced by the leadership styles of their principals.

Analysis of teacher motivation - the workplace

This section describes how the teachers feel in their work place. Table 9 below summarises the responses teachers gave to statements about their workplace.

No	Items	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean
1	Professional environment	17%	54%	9%	17%	3%	3.66
2	Earned respect	31%	49%	11%	6%	3%	4.09
3	Treated as a professional	17%	54%	6%	17%	6%	3.14
4	Opportunity for professional growth	20%	37%	11%	17%	14%	3.31
5	Earned respect of colleagues	25%	63%	6%	0%	6%	4.03
6	Students come first	34%	29%	17%	20%	0%	3.77
7	Principal solicits my advice	14%	31%	20%	23%	9%	3.21
8	Feel content under the leadership of the principal	17%	31%	26%	17%	6%	3.38
9	Teachers and school personnel solicit my advice	17%	54%	17%	6%	3%	3.79
10	Make decision about new programs	11%	40%	11%	23%	11%	3.18
11	I am making a difference	29%	43%	26%	0%	3%	3.94
12	I support the principal because s/he supports me	14%	40%	34%	9%	3%	3.54
13	I like working in this school	29%	43%	9%	14%	3%	3.82
14	Other people like working in this school	17%	26%	23%	26%	6%	3.24

Table 9: Teachers' Feelings Towards The Workplace

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend:

SA = Strongly Agree D = Disagree A = Agree SD = Strongly Disagree U = Undecided

To analyse the data, the *strongly agree* and *agree* categories on the five-point scale have been collapsed into the agree category and analysed together. Similarly, the category *strongly disagree* has been collapsed into the disagree category. The reasoning behind collapsing the two categories into a single category is to strengthen the analysis of the data.

Observing the means listed in Table 9, it can be seen that Items 2 and 5 related to the personal regard factor have the highest means of 4.09 and 4.03 respectively. These results may indicate that 'respect' is a crucial factor needed by teachers in order to feel positive towards their workplace as this factor has a major effect on their self-esteem. From the table it can also seen that Item 3 has the lowest mean, 3.14. This indicates that a lack of professionalism in managing and administrating the schools exists, and that leaders need to pay more attention to improving professionalism within the schools as one of many steps towards creating an effective school with a motivated staff. Overall, the means indicate that the teachers in general have moderate to positive feelings towards their workplace.

One important finding of the analysis in Table 9 is revealed to be Item 5: respect received from colleagues. Eighty-eight percent of respondents agree with the statement: "I have the respect of my colleagues". Another notable finding, related to the principal's leadership style, is that only 45% of respondents agree with the statement: "My principal solicits my advice" (Item 7). In addition, 45% of respondents agree with statement 8, "I feel content under the leadership of the principal", whereas 26% are undecided and 23% disagree. In regard to Item 12 which was designed to examine whether the teachers support the principal because he or she supports them, the findings reveal that 54% of the respondents agree with the statement sagree with the statement, whereas 34% are undecided and 12% disagree.

Seventy-one percent of respondents indicate that they are functioning in a professional environment, whereas 20 percent of the respondents disagree (Item1). The finding of Item 13 shows that 72% of the respondents agree with the statement "*I really like working in this school*" (item 13). However, only 43% of the respondents agree with the statement: "*I believe most other people really like working in this school*" (Item 14). A significant number of teachers surveyed (80%) agree that they earned respect at work (Item 2). This reflects the importance of respect as

an element in boosting teacher motivation and it also reflects the professional environment in which the teachers work.

Self-fulfillment and status are considered by Maslow (Table 1) to be amongst the most important needs for motivation, and advancement is seen by Herzberg (Figure 2) as a major motivational factor. A notable finding, related to status, is that 71% of respondents agree with the statement "*I am treated as a professional*" (Item 3). In addition, a small majority of respondents (57%) agree with Item 4 " *I have the opportunity for professional growth*", whereas 31% disagree and 11% are undecided. This may indicate that the absence of opportunity for professional growth hinders self-fulfillment, and affects the level of professionalism among teachers in their schools.

Another important factor is revealed to be Item 9: Communication between teachers and school personnel. Seventy-one percent of respondents agree with the statement "teachers and school personnel solicit my advice". Another notable result, related to decision making, is that a small majority of respondents (51%) agree with the statement "I make decisions about the implementation of new programs in the school" (Item 10). This may create frustration among teachers and consequently may affect their motivation since as many as 91% of respondents believe that their involvement in the decision making process improves their attitude towards their work (Table 12, Item 2).

Reflecting on the findings presented in Table 9 which reveal the feeling of the participants towards their workplace, one can conclude that overall the participants demonstrate a moderately positive feeling towards their workplaces.

Analysis of teacher motivation - the work

The responses shown in Table 10 below reflect the teachers' level of satisfaction at the current school. On a five-point scale that gauges respondents' reactions to items measuring degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, 1 signifies that the issue is very dissatisfying, 2 indicates some degree of dissatisfaction, 3 indicates that an issue is neither satisfying nor dissatisfying (undecided), 4 indicates some degree of satisfaction, and 5 indicates that an issue is very

satisfying. Categories 4 and 5 have been collapsed to give one satisfied category and categories 1 and 2 have been collapsed to give one dissatisfied category.

No	Items	VS(5)	S(4)	U(3)	D(2)	VD(1)	Mean
1	Keeping busy	51%	43%	6%	0%	0%	4.46
2	Working alone on the job	29%	43%	20%	9%	0%	3.91
3	Doing a variety of activities	29%	43%	17%	9%	3%	3.86
4	Being someone in the community	17%	51%	17%	6%	9%	3.63
5	The way the principal handles the workers	14%	29%	29%	23%	6%	3.23
6	School policies put into practice	11%	34%	14%	31%	6%	3.15
7	Freedom to use own judgement	29%	31%	23%	11%	6%	3.66
8	Working conditions	14%	29%	23%	29%	6%	3.17
9	Co-workers get along	14%	46%	26%	6%	6%	3.59
10	Praise received	11%	40%	20%	20%	9%	3.26
11	Working according to own conscience	40%	43%	9%	3%	6%	4.09
12	Competence of my supervisor in making decisions	14%	40%	34%	9%	3%	3.54
13	Doing something makes use of my abilities	40%	43%	6%	9%	3%	4.09
14	Pay and amount of work I do	9%	40%	9%	31%	11%	3.91
15	Feeling I get from the job	31%	43%	14%	9%	3%	3.91

Table 10: Teachers' Feelings About Their Present work

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend: VS = Very Satisfactory S = Satisfied U = Undecided D = Dissatisfied VD = Very Dissatisfied

As revealed in Table 10, the level of satisfaction shown by the overall sample is neither extremely high nor extremely low. This indicates that the sample is generally satisfied with some areas of their jobs but is dissatisfied with other areas. Across the different questions that measure satisfaction a wide range of scores are found. The item related to satisfaction with school policies has the lowest mean score, 3.15 (Item 6), followed by the item related to working

conditions with a mean of 3.17 (Item 8). This indicates that teachers are least satisfied with the way school policies are put into practice and with the working conditions at their schools. The issues which teachers are most satisfied with are: not having to do things that go against their consciences, 4.09 (Item 11); the chance to do something that makes use of their abilities, 4.09 (Item 13), and always being kept busy all the time, 4.46 (Item 1).

- Item 2 Seventy-two percent of respondents indicate that they are satisfied when given the chance to work alone on the job, 9% are dissatisfied and 20% are undecided. This suggests that teachers will be most satisfied when given the opportunity by principals to work independently at times.
- Item 4 A significant number of teachers surveyed (68%) are satisfied with the chance to be someone in the community of the school while 15% are dissatisfied. Being given the chance to be someone in the community is a factor that would help the teachers grow in the school setting and therefore enhance motivation.
- Item 5 A number of teachers (29%) show dissatisfaction about the way in which their principal handles the staff. Forty-three percent are satisfied, while 29% are undecided. Work motivation becomes problematic when staff are not satisfied with the way in which the principal deals with them which consequently reduces the teachers' desire to perform well.
- Item 7 The freedom to use their own judgement makes 60% of the teachers satisfied, while 17 % report dissatisfaction. An evaluation of the responses indicates that teachers appear to be more motivated when given a certain amount of autonomy or freedom when they teach. The importance of this autonomy is highly stressed by Porter in his revision of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory.

- Item 9 Satisfaction with co-workers is high with 60% of the teachers responding that they are satisfied, 12% are dissatisfied and 26% are undecided. From this it can be argued that teachers can be more motivated when working together in a group setting.
- Item 10 Praise is welcomed by a small majority of teachers 51% report being satisfied when praised, 29% report being dissatisfied, while 20% are undecided about the extent to which praise leads to personal satisfaction. Observing the teachers' responses it appears that the teachers can be highly motivated when they receive praise from their leaders.
- Item 13 In reference to Item 13 which represents the responsibility factor of teachers, 83% of respondents are satisfied, while 12% are dissatisfied. This finding indicates the importance of giving teachers responsibility for work assignments as a source of satisfaction and motivation.
- Item 15 In relation to the achievement factor which is represented by Item 15, 74% of the respondents are satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment they get from their job, whereas 12% are dissatisfied. This finding indicates that a significant percentage of the participants are satisfied with their achievement on the job. Achievement is a source of motivation highlighted by Maslow as being among the psychological indicators of motivation at level 4, that is, Esteem needs (Table 1, p. 19).

The analysis of open-ended questions shows the existence of some differences between the schools studied. Firstly, teachers from White school often fail to list three aspects they dislike about their school, while teachers from both Yellow and Green schools provide more criticism. Secondly, the types of criticisms made by the teachers of the three schools differ. Teachers from Yellow school often mentioned they dislike the lack of professional growth activities and that they have problems with their leader. The comments from Green school teachers focus on the lack of harmony in the workplace together with little communication. Teachers from White school, however, appear to mainly criticise the facilities of the school, mentioning the need for grassed

areas and cooler classrooms. Clearly they are problems, but they appear not to be at the same level as those revealed by the other two schools. These findings, therefore, back-up the survey results that show teachers from the three schools are moderately satisfied in their work.

Analysis of teacher motivation - specific factors

The items in this section of the survey were designed by the researcher to gain information about the relationship between specific strategies used by the principal and teacher motivation. The first five items in Table 11 on the following page are designed to determine the extent of opportunities for teacher motivation. The remaining items are designed to gain information related to teacher motivation. An analysis of the results of each item in Table 11 is presented below.

- Item 1 The principal has been identified as playing a pivotal role in teacher motivation. Opportunity for teacher participation in the decision-making process as well as in shared decision-making will increase with encouragement from the principal. The responses for Item 1 indicate that 23% of teachers report strong disagreement with the statement: "I am encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in this school". Fourteen percent of the respondents indicate that they are encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process. This result clearly indicates that principals need to encourage their staff to participate in the decision-making process, in order to keep the staff motivated when implementing any decision.
- Item 2 Participation in the decision-making process is one of the most important elements of teacher motivation reported in the literature. Forty-eight percent of the respondents agree with the statement: "Regular staff meetings and/or grade level meetings are held in this school and all teachers are able to participate in the decision-making process". Thirty-seven percent of the respondents disagree. This result, in turn, reinforces the literature reviewed and the result of Item 1.

No	Items	SA	A	U	D	SD	Means
1	Principal encourages me to participate in decision- making.	14%	26%	14%	20%	23%	2.88
2	Staff meetings and decision-making shared	17%	31%	11%	20%	17%	3.12
3	Administrator makes most decisions	31%	23%	14%	20%	9%	3.50
4	Staff collaboration encouraged	6%	37%	11%	29%	14%	2.91
5	Teachers work harmoniously	11%	57%	14%	14%	3%	3.60
6	Motivated by satisfaction of working with colleagues	20%	54%	6%	11%	6%	3.74
7	Motivated by recognition from principal	11%	31%	14%	29%	11%	3.03
8	Motivated because of participation in decision-making	6%	31%	11%	31%	17%	2.76
9	Motivated because administrators make decisions	0%	11%	17%	46%	23%	2.18
10	Motivated by collegial atmosphere and equality	6%	29%	26%	26%	11%	2.91
11	Ability to participate in decision-making	14%	36%	17%	11%	14%	3.27
12	Motivated by the satisfaction received from working with students.	37%	51%	11%	0%	0%	4.26
13	Conversation among staff focuses on professional issues relating to teaching	6%	40%	17%	29%	9%	3.06
14	Motivated by the knowledge that I am empowered to make job-related decisions	9%	49%	23%	11%	6%	3.44
15	Motivated because I make a difference in my students	40%	51%	3%	0%	3%	4.29
16	Motivated because I have control over what takes place in my classroom	20%	49%	14%	6%	6%	3.76

Table 11:	Teacher	Motivation	Responses	

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend:

SA = Strongly Agree D = Disagree A = Agree SD = Strongly Disagree U = Undecided

Item 3 This item is included in the survey to cross-check other items related to the decisionmaking process. Agreement on this item is perceived by the researcher as indicative that a principal's style acts to inhibit teacher motivation. Fifty-four percent of the respondents agree that the principal is the prime decision-maker in their schools.

- Item 4 Collaboration among staff members is another element that the principal could utilise to enhance teacher motivation. Collaboration is a way in which teachers are able to share their skills and expertise in a professional manner, while helping to combat the isolationism that is characteristic of the teaching profession. One of the roles of the principal is to enhance the collegial and collaborative spirit among the teachers. Only forty-three percent of respondents agree that administrators encourage staff collaboration by providing the time and resources for educational projects.
- Item 5 Harmonious cooperation within a team is an important indicator of a school where teacher motivation is facilitated. Sixty-eight percent of respondents to Item 5 report agreement while 17% report disagreement with the statement that: "Teachers in this school work together harmoniously".
- Item 6 Traditionally, teaching is a profession that does not provide many opportunities for collegial interaction, either socially or professionally. Item 6 is designed to determine whether or not working with colleagues is a source of motivation for teachers. Seventy-four percent of respondents agree that they are motivated by the satisfaction they receive from working with colleagues (Item 6).
- Item 7 Theories of motivation presented in Chapter two indicate that recognition is an important motivator. Encouragement by the principal to participate in the decision-making process is one of many strategies the principal can use to recognise his/her teachers. Item 7 shows that 42% of the total respondents agree that recognition from the principal is a crucial source of motivation for them. Likewise, 40% of the respondents report that they are encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in the school (refer to Item 1). That less than half of the participants feel encouraged to participate in decision-making reflects a problem with the level of recognition offered.
- Item 8 The opportunity to participate in decision-making is reported to be a source of motivation for teachers and this is confirmed by the data collected in the interviews. The responses to Item 8 show that 37% of teachers agree that they are motivated

because they participate in the decision-making process. This result may indicate that teachers are motivated when they participate in the decision making process, however, they are not encouraged by the principals to do so (Item 1). These results reveal a problem in the decision-making procedures of the schools.

- Item 9 This item is designed to determine whether there are teachers who are motivated because they do not participate in decision-making. None of the respondents strongly agree that they are motivated because, as 54% reported, administrators make most of the decisions in their schools (refer to Item 3), and 69% disagree with the statement: "I am motivated because administrators make most of the decisions in the school".
- Item 10 Equality and participation in the life of the school are relevant to teacher motivation. Item 10 is designed to determine whether a collegial atmosphere is perceived as a source of motivation. Thirty-five percent of the respondents indicate that a collegial spirit among all staff members is a source of motivation and they are motivated because of the collegial atmosphere in their workplace. Thirty-six percent disagree and 26% are undecided. This contrasts with responses to Item 5 where 68% report that teachers in their school work together harmoniously. The data collected in the interviews indicate that this discrepancy between the scores of Item 10 and Item 5 can be attributed to a principal's leadership style where teachers are treated unequally and where the principals fail to encourage teachers to share in the life of the school.
- Item 11 Participation in decision-making is one of the central elements of teacher motivation and is the focus of many of the survey items. The responses to Item 11 indicate that 51% of teachers believe that being able to participate in the decision-making process is a source of motivation, thus confirming previous item responses.
- Item 12 A significant number of teachers (88%) are motivated by the students themselves. This is entirely in keeping with the expected level of professional involvement and enthusiasm that teachers bring to their work.

- Item 13 Little's work (1982) on collegiality in the school setting suggests that conversation among teacher in effective schools is focused on professional matters and the sharing of ideas. The nature of teachers' conversation with one another is indicative of professionalism. Forty-six percent of the participants agree with the statement "conversation amongst staff members frequently focuses on professional issues related to teaching". Thirty-eight of the respondents disagree, while 17% of the respondents remain undecided. These results do not meet the level of collegiality that Little (1982) mentioned in his work, therefore, teachers need to bear in their mind the importance of discussing professional matters related to teaching as that could assist in boosting teacher motivation to perform better.
- Item 14 Being able to participate in work-related decisions is cited in the literature as a potential source of teacher motivation. Item 14 was designed to determine whether there was link between empowerment and teacher motivation. Fifty-eight percent of the participants report that empowerment in work-related decisions is a source of motivation to them. Twenty-three percent of the participants are undecided, while 18% disagree.
- Item 15 Sense of achievement is one of the chief motivators reported by many theories of motivation (Chapter 2). Item 15 was designed to assess teachers' sense of achievement with regard to their students as a source of motivation. Ninety-one per cent of the respondents agree with the statement "I am motivated because I make a difference in the lives of my students". This significant result is compatible with the result of Item 12 that indicates working with students is an important factor for teacher motivation and satisfaction.
- Item 16 Autonomy in the job is relevant to employees' motivation as reported in Chapter 2. Item 16 was designed to determine whether an association exists between autonomy in the classroom and teacher motivation. Sixty-nine per cent of the respondents indicate that having control over what takes place in their classroom is a source of motivation, whereas a small minority (11%) of the respondents disagree.

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From further analysis of the data presented in Table 11, the following important findings are observed. Students are the main motivator for the participants, as for Items 12 and 15, the means of 4.29 and 4.26 respectively, are the highest in Table 11. This is followed by the autonomy factor in the classroom which appeared to be a strong motivator with a mean score of 3.76. Other significant motivating factors that were revealed include the existence of harmony among teachers, and working with colleagues, with mean scores of 3.60 and 3.74, respectively. Items 1 and 8 relating to decision making have the lowest mean scores of 2.88 and 2.18 respectively, which indicates that participants are not motivated by decision making as they are not involved in the decision-making process. The result of Item 1 clearly stresses the need to encourage teachers to participate in decision-making.

Yes/No questions analysis

The answers to the yes/no questions give a clear idea about the factors that work as a catalyst in enhancing teacher motivation. Involvement in decision-making and a reasonable amount of recognition appear to be factors likely to ensure a positive working environment in which teachers can be highly motivated. Table 12 on the following page, shows the percentage of responses to the yes/no questions.

The larger 'no' responses indicate areas of possible improvement: 74% of the respondents feel that they need more professional growth activities offered at school; 64% of the teachers are not pleased with the amount of recognition they receive from their administrators; 86% of the teachers do not see their principal as the main motivator in their daily work. The larger 'yes' responses, on the other hand, reveal some interesting factors in operation. For instance, 74% of teachers acknowledge that the amount of recognition they receive improves their attitude and commitment to the school, thus there is a clear call for more recognition from the principal and/or colleagues. Another interesting factor is that while 86% of teachers are not motivated by their principals, 80% are motivated by their students. This could explain why, even with the low input of principals to teacher motivation, 71% of teachers feel included in the life of the school. I suggest that, without this important balance, the schools would be ineffective organisations.

No	Items	Yes	No
1	Does your principal involve you in decision-making at your school?	54%	43%
2	Do you feel your involvement in the decision-making process will improve your attitude and commitment to your school?	91%	9%
3	Does your administration offer you professional growth activities?	51%	46%
4	Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you?	26%	74%
5	Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your classroom?	49%	49%
6	Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from your administration for the job you do?	34%	64%
7	Do you feel the amount of recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?	74%	26%
8	Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?	11%	86%
9	Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job?	80%	17%
10	Do you think you feel included in the life of the school?	71%	20%

Table 12: Responses To Yes/No Questions

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Factors relating to teacher motivation

This survey and subsequent interviews provide a firm basis to assist the schools involved to identify and utilise motivational strategies effectively. The responses to the questionnaire and interview research instruments indicate likely, practical motivational strategies which can be utilised by principals to enhance teacher motivation. The research focuses on the central factor of leadership style and five of the six major factors involved in the motivation of teachers surveyed at the three schools: decision-making, recognition, teamwork, professional growth and personal regard. These categories are not listed in order of priority or importance and should not be considered as distinct and separate.

Leadership Style

These questions presented to participating teachers describe some of the possible characteristics of leadership that their principals may demonstrate. The questions, concentrating

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on the behavior of principals as key motivators towards their staff are important because they reveal information about the leadership style most valued by teachers. Adoption by the principal of the valued characteristics (listed in Table 13 on the following page) may enhance teacher motivation and morale. At the same time, teachers will achieve a high level of self-esteem and self-actualisation as proposed by Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

The responses related to leadership are rated on a five-point scale. On one hand, a high score, closer to five, indicates a very encouraging and motivating principal style with the principal playing a positive role in motivating teachers in their work. On the other hand, a lower score, closer to one, suggests that the principal's leadership style is not contributing to teacher motivation because teachers are not being involved in the school and/or support is not being provided to the teachers when requested. This reveals a lack of awareness of the motivational requirements of the teachers.

Table 13 reveals the percentage and the means of responses for items related to leadership style. By far the largest number of responses to most questions are in the *sometimes* category with a rough balance between *rarely* and *often* with exception of questions number 2, 8, 12, 17 and 23. Questions 14, 15, 18, and 24 have percentages that differ remarkably between the *often* and *rarely* categories. A notable finding appears for question 14, where the lowest mean score of 2.67 (Table 13), indicates that the principals' ideas do not force teachers to rethink some of their own ideas. This may reveal a lack of intellectual challenge between the principals and their staff. Another notable result is that of question 1, which has a mean score of 2.77. This low score indicates that the principals do not make much effort to find out what their teachers want and try to help them. Another low mean score of 2.77 was found for question 11, indicating that the principals in the three schools surveyed are not highly regarded models for the participants to follow.

No	Principal Style	Always	Often	Sometime s	Rarely	Never	Means
1	Finds out what I want and helps me	9 %	14 %	40 %	20 %	17 %	2.77
2	Is a good team player	14 %	17 %	26 %	29 %	9 %	3.00
3	Spends time talking	17 %	20%	31 %	23 %	9%	3.14
4	Finds time to listen	23 %	17 %	27 %	20 %	9%	3.26
5	Looks out for welfare of individuals	23 %	26 %	31 %	11 %	9%	3.43
6	Keeps the school informed	23 %	23 %	29 %	17 %	6 %	3.14
7	Keeps the school working together	17 %	20 %	37 %	17 %	6 %	3.26
8	Makes everyone enthusiastic	14 %	23 %	26 %	26 %	9 %	3.09
9	Motivates me to do more	11 %	17 %	34 %	17 %	17 %	2.88
10	Makes me sacrifice my own self- interests for the good of the group	14%	17%	31%	23%	9%	3.06
11	Is a model for me to follow	9%	14%	40%	20%	17%	2.77
12	Is an inspiration to us	11%	29%	29%	17%	11%	3.12
13	Makes me proud to be associated with him/her	20%	23%	37%	11%	6%	3.41
14	His/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my ideas	9%	20%	14%	34%	17%	2.67
15	Encourages me to express my ideas	20%	23%	17%	23%	17%	3.06
16	Encourages understanding of points of view of others	9%	23%	40%	20%	3%	3.15
17	Maintains definite standards of performance	26%	31%	23%	11%	6%	3.62
18	Is willing to make changes	17%	40%	20%	20%	3%	3.49
19	Lets school members know what is expected of them	37%	17%	31%	9%	3%	3.79
20	Is available for assistance when needed	17%	31%	37%	11%	0%	3.56
21	Seeks opinions concerning issues	20%	23%	20%	23%	9%	3.24
22	Is protected from disruption	20%	23%	29%	14%	3%	3.48
23	Conducts meetings efficiently	17%	34%	31%	9%	6%	3.50
24	Communicates openly and frankly	29%	29%	23%	14%	3%	3.68

Table 13:	Principal's	Leadership	Style	Responses
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NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

The discrepancy in percentages among the five categories indicates that there were few issues for which respondents felt the principals to be either completely good motivators or utterly poor

motivators. Rather, the principal's leadership style was found to be midway between the two extremes. The data collected from the interviews clearly reinforce the previous analysis.

For instance, when teachers from the Green school were asked the open-ended survey question: "What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated in your work?". Their responses included factors such as: Supportive administration (principal) all the time; support from the principal in my work and acknowledgment of it; positive reinforcement from the principal; and effective leadership.

Teachers of Yellow school do not mention the principal's existing role in their work motivation. One teacher of Yellow school states that:

It disturbs me greatly how our school can possibly grow to its full potential, with leader(s) who lack a strong educational background, needed for such an important leadership position, and that is why we have a high rate of teacher turn over.

Other teachers from the same school state that:

The people in charge (principal) are too inexperienced. They have not experienced other schools and this has made a big difference. The principal is rarely seen on an educational basis, and the principal runs the school in an unprofessional manner.

In answer to the question; "What three things would you like to change in the school?" a teacher from White school states that "the principal should be more informed to create a better environment".

It must be recalled that support for the negative answers to questions about leadership style comes from the fact that 86% of teachers answered '*No*' to the question: "*Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work*?" (Table 12, Item 8).

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The interview data analysis is further reinforced by the teachers' interview statements. For example, teachers from Yellow school say:

T.1. I think the principal is the key to running this school. If the principal is running this school well, then the teachers are certainly motivated towards the school and surely they perform much better.

T.1. I think if you've got a very strong leader, an enthusiastic leader, of course, yes the students and the staff are well motivated.

T.2. He (the principal) can be very positive if he gets more involved, but, there is a problem of communication where the language is a major barrier, and this causes many problems for teachers, and makes it difficult for them to approach the principal regarding educational issues as a wrong message could be received.

T.2. If the principal is very enthusiastic, very keen, knows what he's doing, I think it motivates - it motivates the teacher to do the same.

T.3. The principal should be more involved in day-to-day things around the school, such as leading the morning prayer, being more among the staff. This would be motivating for students and staff.

T.4. I don't think the principal is knowledgeable enough. The principal should know what is going on in the school then he would know what the teachers needed ... but because he's not really knowledgeable about what's going on and because he's not familiar, he does not really run anything worth being run.

In White school, teachers stated that:

T.1. The principal's role is a big role that's the driving force behind the school and you know if the principal approves of it, you know you're doing the right thing.

T.2. The principal should be the one to inform the rest of the team of the changes that go on or anything to do with educational matters. Unfortunately, this is not the case here...so the principal should be more looked upon as a leader leading the staff, rather than someone appointed to lead the staff.

T.3. It is nice to know the principal is with us - not above us. But sometimes there is a little problem of communication as the English language of the principal is not that good, therefore I avoid discussing matters with the principal to avoid any misunderstanding regarding issues, and that really frustrates me.

T.4. The leader should be an active leader - she doesn't seem to be so much a part of that.

T.4. I think having a sound educational background is important... I don't think the principal has this educational background. This can reduce teacher motivation.

The teachers in Green school allege that:

T.1. If the principal, you know, is really easy going, then you work better.

T.2. I find the principal is the voice of the school. The principal voices what the ethos of the school is.

T.3. If the principal is a facilitator rather than a dictator, this can affect my work motivation. I'd like to be guided rather than told, as well.

T.4. I think if the principal's fairly rigid in their control, nothing will be done. I don't think my principal is rigid in her control.

Due to the lack of principals' adequate qualifications in education, experience and awareness of the Australian system the principals of the three schools surveyed may be open to manipulation through relying on a small group of advisers. Consequently this could affect the trust of teachers

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in their principals and damage the communication channels in some cases. As two Yellow school teachers state, some instances where manipulation can occur includes:

T.1. Staff appraisals, information relayed through the executive team whereby staff may not always be objective or biased. Information of benefit to an individual could be withheld. And professional development opportunities can be allocated on bases other than merit.

T.4. Regarding the recruitment, the manipulation emerges when the principal is not familiar with curriculum requirements, questioning and participation in the interview process is minimal. And when the principals is not able to discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate potential and therefore is not able to make informed decisions.

White and Yellow schoolteachers mentioned the disadvantage of having a principal who is not familiar with the Australian education system is that he or she can be taken advantage by teachers close to them who can manipulate the timetable and some decisions by influencing the principals. As expressed by the Yellow school teacher:

T.4. Timetabling, The allocation of classes and subjects can be influenced by those closest to the principal. The placement of teachers on the timetable can be organised to benefit those select few. The time allocated to Key Learning Areas can be determined by those with the ability to influence the principal.

A White schoolteacher highlights the following regarding the subject selection:

T.2. The ability of some teachers to influence the principal's decisions about the suitability of subjects to be offered to students and the budget allocation for those subjects. The principal's control over costs and the allocation of departmental costs to student ratios can be influenced by staff with the ability to exert power over the principal.

Reflecting on these quotations from the interview data, it appears that teachers are concerned about the negative effect of manipulation on their performance, and the way their schools are being run, as they expressed a desire to see the schools run in a more professional manner. It appears that their motivation is reduced because they perceive their principals to be lacking educational and pedagogical knowledge, enthusiasm and active participation in the life of the school. The next factor, which may affect teacher motivation to be examined is decision-making.

Decision-making

Participation in decision-making can be a strong motivator and can also significantly improve teacher satisfaction (Chapman, 1990). Table 11, Item 8 shows that 40% of participants disagree with the statement that they feel "motivated because of participation in decision making", whereas 37% agree. From this it can be argued that teachers may be more motivated when involved in the decision making process. Moreover, Table 11, Item 1 shows that 23% of the respondents express strong disagreement with the statement: "I am encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision making process in this school". In addition, Table 9, Item 10 reveals that only a small majority of respondents (51%) agree with the statement "I make decisions about the implementation of new programs in schools". These findings indicate a problem in the decision-making procedures of the schools surveyed.

Answers to open-ended survey questions reveal that teachers from White and Green schools are critical about the level of decision-making in their schools. Some teachers from Green school answer the question, "What three things would you like to change?" with "More input into decision-making". Other teachers from Yellow school answered this question with: "To be involved more in school matters and decision-making". In addition, some teachers from Yellow school comment that; "decisions are slow to be made", that there is a "lack of autonomy in making decisions", and that they are "not able to make decisions. At the same time the principal is against teachers' involvement in decision-making as he believes that teachers should only concentrate on their teaching in the classroom". These answers provide evidence that problems concerning decision-making appear to be a serious issue within the three schools, in particular within Yellow school. These answers also reflect the importance of the involvement of teachers

in the decision making process, in order for them to feel a part of the schools and consequently so that they become more motivated to put any decisions made into practice.

Moreover, Table 12, Item 2 shows clearly that 91% of the respondents feel that to be involved in the decision-making process in the school will improve their attitude and commitment to the school. These findings support Chapman's perception cited earlier. In Yellow and Green schools, staff indicate that greater involvement in decision-making is of importance to them in response to the survey question: *"What three things would you like to change in this school?"*. This is reinforced by some teachers commenting that lack of involvement in decision-making is seen as a problem, especially in Yellow school as mentioned earlier.

The interview data, in turn, reinforce these results concerning the decision-making process. For instance, teachers from Green school state that being involved in the decision-making process has a positive impact on their work motivation. Thus:

T.1. Well, obviously, if you're a part of the process, you're more comfortable in doing the things that the decision-making involves. It's fairly important.

Another teacher shows enthusiasm and eagerness to be involved in the decision-making process saying:

T.2. Of course, because I'm part of the process of the whole school, so if I'm part of the decision-making process I'll enjoy being here and following the rules and the guidelines.

Another teacher answers the question: "How can teacher motivation be enhanced in your school?" in the following manner:

T.3. I think a big part of teacher motivation is being able to take part in decisionmaking in school. The teachers from Yellow school show frustration at being unable to be involved in the decisionmaking process. One teacher says:

T.1. It (involvement in decision-making) would make me feel like I'm a part of the school rather than it just being a job. I think it would give teachers a bit more say in the decisions. But it seems that the principal does not allow teachers to be involved in the decision-making process.

Another teacher from the same school says:

T.2. I don't make too many decisions but I sometimes suggest things ... I suggest things; I can never make the decision because I'm not the team leader. Anyway, I don't mind to be eliminated from participating in any decision making, as the involvement requires from me a lot of time and energy.

A teacher from White School suggests that:

T.1. More input into decision-making in the school will enhance teacher motivation. So, I would like to be a part of the decision-making process, beside the principal who makes the most decisions.

In conclusion, teachers who do not participate in the decision-making activities of the school do not feel that they are a part of the school team. In addition, they believe more input into decision-making could enhance teacher motivation as they would feel as though they were being treated as professionals, that is, it would be a significant acknowledgement of their professionalism.

Recognition

Recognition is one of the many crucial tools leaders can use to reinforce employee motivation as revealed in the review of literature. It is the motivator that influences the level of self-esteem (Maslow, 1954). Table 11, Item 7 shows that motivation from the recognition the teachers receive from their administrators is low with 42% of the total respondents agreeing with the

statement "I am motivated by recognition from administrators", while 40% disagreeing. This result coincides with the response of the Yellow school teachers to the survey question, "What three things would you like to change in this school?", that they would like greater acknowledgment, recognition and rewards for their efforts. This is seen as a serious problem and it highlights the necessity for more acknowledgements of teachers in their work.

Table 10, Item 10 shows that satisfaction with the praise given for all three schools is average, with a small majority (51%) of the teachers responding that they are satisfied, and with 29% being dissatisfied and 20% undecided. From this it can said that teachers may be more motivated when receiving more praise from their principals for doing good work, and it also indicates the importance placed on recognition as a crucial motivational factor by the participants. This coincides with 74% of respondents answering "yes" to the question "Do you feel the recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?" (Table 12, Item.7). It therefore appears that recognition has one of the largest effects on teachers as a motivating factor.

The interview data, in turn, reinforce the previous findings related to the recognition factor in schools. The teachers from Yellow school highlight the importance of recognition in their professional life, which they believe supports them in attaining a high level of motivation. For example:

T.1. It's important that you are recognised. I think for your own personal wellbeing it's important that you are, therefore you're more motivated.

Recognition from the principal is very likely to result in feelings of encouragement and motivation as expressed by a White school teacher:

T.2. If the principal sees me and I'm doing something good, it's good to say "You're doing something good". When someone recognises you're doing something good, you're more encouraged and motivated especially if your work was appreciated by the principal.

This same teacher concludes:

T.2. So, I think people recognising what you do and appreciating it, that is the life. It's the main factor to be motivated...if you're not recognised or you're not treated professionally, you just feel that you're there in that job to do the daily tasks and that's it. But if you're motivated that means you are pushing, not only yourself, but the people around you to improve the teaching environment, to improve students' knowledge.

Yellow school has a problem with recognition as indicated in Table 15. One teacher of the Yellow school reinforces this clearly by saying that:

T.1. I think it would be very hard to do something and people don't come up and say, "Thank you" or "Well done" or "Here's a little certificate" - or whatever it is. Even if it's a shake-the-hand, a congratulations ... see, it doesn't happen ... I think it's important for me to hear the principal saying, "Congratulations ... Thank you. Thank you for doing this".

The same teacher added that

T.1. Again, I think you've got two teachers, one who works hard, and one who doesn't work hard. If they're both not rewarded the one who works hard thinks why am I doing this? I think you have to give an incentive to a teacher to do something. If you do something well, then 'congratulations'. Even if it's a shake of the hand. It keeps them motivated, it gives them a bit more confidence. It makes them feel important, like they've done something good, something well. And they continue. And the same in the class. Why should one person work really well, and another person bludge if there's no reward for the one who's worked for it. And I think that the teachers need exactly the same thing.

In answering the question "Why do you think recognition is important for enhancing teacher motivation" teachers from Green school allege that:

T.3. Yes yes, I do. But I also feel that as a teacher, everybody has their own level of work and their own level of standard to achieve. And regardless of whether that gets recognised or not, that certain level will be achieved. I mean

that's what our professional duty is. And I think being recognised by the principal will motivate us further.

The same teacher explores this concept further by saying:

T.3. I think everybody likes their achievements to be recognised. That's definitely (sic), but I don't want to be over recognised. Like, you know, sometimes you're given a little bit –a little bit too much extra credit and that's not good. I think that credit should be given when it's deserved, not when it's not really deserved.

Another teacher from the same school declares that:

T.1. Basically, we're people. And I think people need to be recognised for what they're doing, unless you're a number rather then a person. So it comes back to being an individual or a group. So if you're never said oh well, you've done this well, you've done that well, it is more or less like I'm just going along with the flow and whatever happens, happens. Because I'm not going to receive any recognition, so it doesn't really matter whether I do better or worse.

Also another teacher from the same school testifies that:

T.2. I think as a staff member you should be treated and recognised as an individual, therefore, your opinion matters, and therefore you're more motivated. If you're just treated like a number, you won't feel like you want to do anything. You know, you won't be motivated to get involved in the decision making process.

A Green teacher, in answering the same previous question, says that:

T.1. Just to know that people appreciate what you work, more than anything else, just that appreciation of it. I mean, if people appreciate what you are doing, as humans I think we are faithful, that's it. That's all we need, just appreciation.

Another teacher from the same school asserts that:

T.4. Just everyone likes to hear 'thank you' sometimes. They do. It is just normal human nature. People like to be thanked for things that they do that are good. They like to be recognised for things they do. Not necessarily in a big way, just a thank you.

Another teacher from the same school emphasises the satisfaction with the amount of recognition received by saying that:

T.3. Yes definitely. I think I have not had any problem at all with that. I felt I had a lot of recognition because I change a lot of things and I hear a lot "well done" from the principal and then I felt I had to do a little better, and it was like a little sticker.

Recognition, offered in different forms, need not be held off until there is a truly outstanding accomplishment. A truly effective school is not achieved by continual outstanding accomplishments, rather it is achieved by paying attention to the quality of everyday routines.

Personal regard

Personal regard develops out of human values relationship especially trust, respect and freedom as revealed in the literature reviewed. Table 9, Item 2 shows that a large majority of respondents (80%) believe they earned respect, with 11% being undecided and 9% disagreeing. Table 9, Item 5 reveals that 88% of the respondents believe that they have the respect of their colleagues. From this it can be argued that respondents may be more motivated when receiving respect from their leaders and colleagues.

Despite the positive results of Items 2 and 5 (Table 9) some Yellow school teachers complained of a problem in personal regard practices such as "a lack of respect" and "being treated as children" and "the historical mistrust of staff and the inequity among teachers". Comments like these indicate the existence of a problem in this area, and the importance of the principals to

work on this issue in order to make a difference with respect to the personal regard factor, as it may improve teacher motivation.

Equality of treatment is another vexed issue at Yellow school. Many staff do not feel that they are given the same level of consideration and workload as their colleagues. The data collected in the interviews reinforce the previous findings about the personal regard factor of motivation. Some White school teachers consider that one indicator of respect is to be asked their opinion. One teacher states that:

T.2. The most important strategy to be motivated is personal regard. The way in which the principal views the teachers ... with respect, trust and care.

Another teacher emphasises her perception of the crucial role that respect plays in motivation:

T.1. I think respect is everything. Respect is very important...I think someone who is respected should earn it and if you show respect for someone then they will in turn show it back to you. I think that's important. If you don't have that, you can't do anything.

A Green school teacher, in answering a question on how the principal's leadership style can affect teacher motivation says that:

T.1. Basically seeing people as individuals and seeing them as growing people, not just a group of people, is a relevant personal regard factor that can enhance teacher motivation.

Another teacher asserts that:

T.4. If it's a happy kind of atmosphere, you work better. And if you're respected and you feel like you're respected in this school, you work harder.

A Yellow school teacher defines personal regard as the way an individual values or sees others in their own eyes. She argues that the principal should treat the teachers professionally and that a lack of professionalism in dealing with teachers affects the teachers' work motivation. According to this teacher, important aspects of personal regard are: respect, trust, professionalism and that the teachers' opinions count because it is "the teachers (who) are the ones teaching - the principal isn't the one in the classroom".

Teachers in the three schools emphasise the role of human relationships in terms of valuing each other and respecting the talents and the opinions of each other through a positive channel of communication. Working together and respecting each other, therefore, would support and lift teacher morale and motivation.

Teamwork

As indicated in the review of literature, the harmonious functioning of the work group within the organisational setting is crucial to the operation of a positive and progressive organisation. A high degree of trust and spirit among staff members and a low level of disengagement are very important within the organisation. In such a climate, the teachers work well together and are committed to the task at hand. Interactive effectiveness and task effectiveness are both necessary to ensure job satisfaction and to provide the kinds of rewards that will nourish professional individuals.

In all three schools, the teachers indicate in their questionnaire responses that positive group interactions, opportunities to be involved in activities outside of the classroom and cooperative colleagues are all crucial to being motivated. This is reinforced by comments that indicate a lack of community spirit being a problem. In addition, this finding is supported by comments from Yellow school teacher in answering the question: "What three things would you like to change in the school?" where s/he responds that:

It is crucial to get a healthy balance of staff. This means the staff and the principal are professional in attitude (willingness to learn, grow, study), professional in conduct (dress, speech, manner), professional in qualification and professional in spirit (role modeling within a group). That is why everyone seems to be in their own four walls, with little acknowledgment of each other. A school

is an organisation which thrives on team work and a collegial spirit. We must be clear on our sense of mission and be able to look ahead.

Data collected in the interviews suggest the importance of teamwork in enhancing teacher motivation. This is also supported by the survey questions which show that teachers from all three schools note the importance of "good staff morale and support from staff and principals" as crucial factors for motivation.

Table 10, Item 9 shows that satisfaction with co-workers in the three schools is high with 60% of the teachers responding that they are satisfied, 12% dissatisfied and 26% undecided. From this it can be argued that teachers may be more motivated when working together in a group setting constituting the principal and their colleagues.

Table 11, Item 5 shows that 68% of respondents report agreement, whereas 17% report disagreement with the statement that: "*teachers in this school work together harmoniously*". From this it can be argued that harmonious cooperation within a team is a crucial indicator of a school where teacher motivation is facilitated. And this is supported by the result of Item 6 (Table 11) which shows that 74% of respondents agree that they are motivated by the satisfaction they receive from working with colleagues.

The interview data, in turn, reinforce the previous results concerning the role of teamwork in teacher motivation. One teacher from White school states: "being a part of the team, just knowing I'm a part of the team, I think that encourages me". Another teacher from White school states:

T.2. You have to be part of a team. Staff should be looked at as a team, as a group of bodies working together for the benefits of the student. If you've got that type of attitude, I think you'd be more motivated.

T.1., another teacher from the same school, also says that working as a team sets up an optimal learning environment and by working together the teachers are able to share many ideas.

Therefore, if the staff work as a team, a sense of achievement is created that does much to improve staff motivation. The teacher concludes:

T.1. You know that you are achieving - that you are doing something good, it makes you feel like a professional.

A Yellow school teacher suggests that working with a group opens the door to learning more:

T.2. There are people who are individuals but why would you be a teacher if you don't want to work in a team environment.

Another teacher from Yellow school shows concern that the principal regularly ignores the teachers' opinions. The teacher says:

T.1. If your opinion counts, then, I think that's good, but if you say something and it goes and it's ignored and you say it again, and it's again ignored, then you don't feel like you're a part of the team.

Teachers from Green school mention that being able to take part in decision-making and being able to work together in an harmonious team is important for motivation. The majority of participants in the three schools answer the following question strongly in the affirmative: "Do you think working in a team will enhance your work motivation?"

In conclusion, when an educational leader provides a working environment in which teachers feel they are members of a larger, purposeful team and members of smaller, task-oriented teams, teachers' levels of motivation increase.

Professional growth

Giving teachers opportunities for professional growth, as it was suggested in Chapter 3, Review of literature, is one of the first steps towards making significant changes in a school and helping teachers feel motivated. Attending staff development sessions such as seminars, conferences or visiting other schools is an indication that teachers are choosing to address their needs and their

students' needs, and this increases not only the quality of the teachers' skills, but also their motivation.

Table 9, Item 4 shows that agreement with the opportunity for professional growth is average with 57% of the teachers agreeing, 11% undecided and 31% disagreeing. From this it can be argued that teachers could be more motivated when provided with more professional growth opportunities.

Moreover, the responses to Item 3 (Table 12) affirm the need for more professional growth activities to be offered by the principals of the three schools. The results of Item 3 (Table 12) show that a small majority of respondents (51%) answered "yes" to the question: "Does your administration offer you professional growth activities?". Only 26% of respondents answered "yes" to the question regarding whether they believed the amount of professional growth activities to be adequate (Table 12, Item 4). This clearly indicates the necessity for more professional growth activities to be offered.

In answering the survey question: "List three things you dislike about your current school", one teacher from Yellow school says:

Lack of professional development; staff are not encouraged to pursue further study by executives. Why? There is a feeling that a lot of in-servicing is a waste of time. How can this be? With all the changes recently made by the Board of Studies and Curriculum Corporation, how are we possibly to know if we don't attend in-services? We are already at a loss. Shouldn't we be going out of our way to find out as much as possible?

A Green school teacher says that teachers should have the chance to attend in-services, otherwise they feel more and more isolated in their job. The interview data, in turn, reinforce the importance of professional growth to the motivation of teachers. A Green school teacher comments that:

T.2. The in-services are made more available and I think that's terrific...When you go out you learn more things. Then you come back with a better

understanding of educational issues, which most definitely has to be a help in improving teacher motivation.

A Yellow school teacher states:

T.2. Certainly there are opportunities for growth in this school. It is not discouraged, but again perhaps the teachers are not shown the way either.

The only hard part is that you've never really had the access to the in-service courses available. Sometimes, you know someone else's got the in-services manual.

This reflects a lack of communication and access to essential resources in the school.

One teacher from White school comments that:

T.3. I feel that these in-service days are quite motivational because they're always pitched to things that are relevant for the teachers.

In answer to the question, "Are you happy with the amount of opportunity given to you for professional growth?", another teacher from the same school answers:

T.1. I think there should be more available.

Yet another teacher from White school declares that involvement in professional development programs is an important part of teacher motivation:

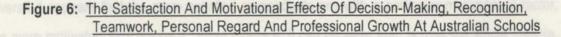
T.2. If you feel up to date with things and you're changing as a teacher, you'll be more motivated and to have a lot of in-services going on throughout the year...I think is a very important part of the professional growth of the staff.

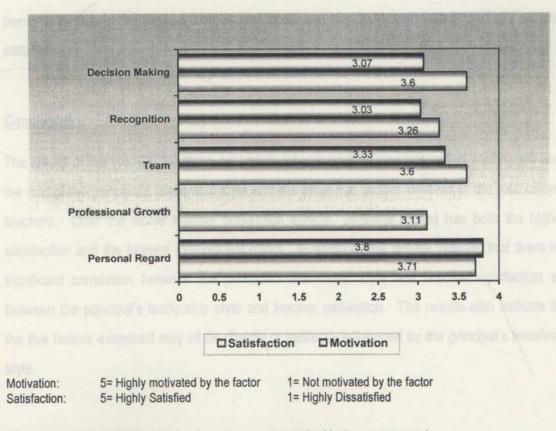
It is clear that responses from the teachers of all three schools indicate that offering more opportunities for professional growth and more innovative in-services are crucial factors in motivating the teacher. In addition, it is worth noting that there are many comments that too few

opportunities for professional growth existed and that more personal development programs are needed. It should be noted that professional growth or staff development needs to be agreed on by the staff and the principal together. When staff training develops as an extension of the teachers' work and decisions are based on school goals, the teachers' level of motivation is enhanced.

Comparative analysis of five factors involved in motivation

This section discusses five of the six major factors involved in motivation for teachers. These are decision-making, recognition, teamwork, personal regard and professional growth. The central factor, leadership, is extensively discussed earlier in the chapter. A graphical representation is presented in Figure 6 below of the effects of the five major motivational factors on the level of satisfaction and motivation of teachers at the three Australian schools in the study.





NB: The motivation level of professional growth was not examined in the present sample.

As is illustrated in Figure 6, satisfaction and motivation scores are calculated for all factors with the exception of Professional Growth where only a satisfaction score is calculated. A score closer to five on the satisfaction scale represents a higher level of satisfaction, whereas a score closer to one means that respondents are dissatisfied. The motivation scale is similar, with a score closer to five indicating that the specific factor is a major motivator and a score closer to one indicating that the factor is definitely not an effective motivator.

Further analysis shows that the correlation between the principal's style ratings and satisfaction ratings is .43 which is significant at the .05 level, and the correlation between the principal's leadership ratings and teacher motivation ratings is .545 (p = 0.001) which is highly significant. This may be interpreted that the leadership style of principals affects the level of teacher satisfaction and motivation, and highlights the importance of relationship between principal leadership and teacher motivation.

Overall it appears that the more satisfied respondents are with a particular motivational factor, the more motivated they are by it. From Figure 6, it can be seen that, across the whole sample, personal regard is the biggest motivational factor and the factor with which teachers are most satisfied.

Conclusion

The results of the study in the three Australian schools reveal some interesting information about the role of the principal's leadership style and the other five factors involved in the motivation of teachers. Over the whole teacher population sample, personal regard has both the highest satisfaction and the highest motivational effect. In addition, the results indicate that there is a significant correlation between the principal's leadership style and teacher satisfaction and between the principal's leadership style and teacher motivation. The results also indicate that the five factors examined may all be directly or indirectly influenced by the principal's leadership style.

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Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of the principal's leadership on teacher motivation is both direct and indirect. Principals can influence teachers directly through their own personal qualities, skills and by being a role model, and they can influence teachers indirectly by working with different factors such as encouraging teachers to be involved in the decision making process, recognising teachers' work, enhancing the spirit of teamwork, providing and facilitating professional growth activities, and displaying genuine respect and care towards the teachers' well being. Once a principal can put to use these factors, the teachers would be more motivated and consequently more committed to their work and the school.

Data Analysia - Lobatone Schools

DATA ANALYSIS LEBANESE SCHOOLS

introduction

The data from Lebanon were deliected between August and September 1997. The survey used (see Appendix 2) was similar to that used for the Australian sample. Presence, some minor changes and additional questions were introduced to make the servey relevant to the schools in Lebanon. The new questions covered the issues of school rescupturing and syllabuls redection, themes which were appropriate after the many years of conflict within the country. The office change to the survey was that all questions were translated into Arabic so that non English scending teachers could respond to the purvey.

Chapter Seven

Data Analysis - Lebanese Schools

Introduction

The data from Lebanon were collected between August and September 1997. The survey used (see Appendix 2) was similar to that used for the Australian sample. However, some minor changes and additional questions were introduced to make the survey relevant to the schools in Lebanon. The new questions covered the issues of school restructuring and syllabus redesign, themes which were appropriate after the many years of conflict within the country. The other change to the survey was that all questions were translated into Arabic so that non-English speaking teachers could respond to the survey.

Sixty-five Lebanese teachers completed the survey. Again respondents were from three schools, coded as Green1, Yellow1, and White1. The surveys were entered into SPSS 6.0 statistical package with the analysis including the determination of means and the correlations between the surveyed variables. The quantitative data are not analysed for each individual school due to the small percentage of questionnaires returned. For each school surveyed, the open-ended questions and the interviews data are separately analysed under seven different motivational themes to provide more information to support and expand on the quantitative data. The questions were segregated into four sections: demographic information, principal's style, job The questions concerning satisfaction and motivation satisfaction and job motivation. demonstrate that there are numerous practical motivational techniques available to the principals for enhancing teacher motivation. The items dealing with factors related to motivation were split into seven relevant factors as identified in the literature review: restructuring, recognition, teamwork, decision-making, professional growth activities and personal regard. These factors, defined in Chapter One, are not listed in order of priority and should not be considered as distinct and separate. Yes/No questions were not included in the five-point scales because of the difference in response style.

Demographic data

The purpose of this section is to provide demographic information about participants' gender, age, number of years teaching, stage of teaching (primary, intermediate or secondary teaching), number of years teaching under current principal and the highest level of qualification obtained. The following presentation is a brief interpretation of the demographic data provided by participants with charts and tables where appropriate.

Years of teaching at the present school

Table 14 below reveals the number of years the teachers have taught at their current schools.

Years at Current School	Number	Percentage
1-2 Years	11	17%
3-4 Years	8	12%
5-7 Years	10	15%
8 Years and over	35	54%
No response	1	2%
Total	65	100%

Table 14: Years Teaching Experience At Present School

Table 14 shows that more than half of respondents are well established at their schools, that is, they have been working at their current schools for over eight years. Approximately 69% have been in the school for more than 5 years. These teachers are likely to feel quite comfortable at their present schools which may account for higher job satisfaction ratings. In some cases, the teachers may be bored and listless as a result of being at the same school for so long, perhaps in the absence of available positions elsewhere. This was implied during the interview of one teacher who said: " ... There are many, many teachers who are old and who only teach because they have to. It is their job. There is nothing else to do and they are getting paid at the end of the month".

Gender

The gender distribution of participants is shown in Table 15 below.

Table 15: Gender Distribution

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	6	9%
Female	56	86%
No response	3	5%
Total	65	12%

The number of female teachers (56 or 86%) is much higher than the number of male teachers (6 or 9%). There were three (5%) teachers who did not respond to this question.

Type of teacher

Table 16 below reveals the distribution of teachers working at the primary, intermediate and secondary school levels in the schools surveyed.

Table 16: Type Of Teachers

Type of teacher	Number	Percentage
Primary	38	58%
Intermediate	17	26%
Secondary	8	13%
No response	B. Freiheit 2. Of Educatio	3%
Total	65	100%

The respondents are mainly primary school teachers (38 or 58%) with 17 (26%) being intermediate teachers. Intermediate teachers are those who teach from grades seven to nine. 12 % of the respondents were secondary teachers. There were two (3%) teachers who did not respond to the question.

Years taught under this principal

Table 17 below indicates the numbers of years the teachers have taught under their present principal.

Years Under Current Principal	Number	Percentage
1-2 Years	25	39%
3-4 Years	8	12%
5 Years and Over	30	46%
No Response	2	3%
Total	65	100%

Table 17: Number Of Years	'Teaching Under This Principal
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The amount of time spent under the present principal was bi-modal with approximately 40% of respondents having only one to two years' experience under their current principal and 46% having over five years' experience with the current principal. If one or two years' experience may be regarded as adequate for understanding a leader's style, all teachers, therefore, have had adequate time to become familiar with the leadership styles of their principals. Two failed to answer this question.

Qualifications

Table 18 below indicates the highest level of education attained by the teachers.

Qualification	Number	Percentage
Ph.D.	1	2%
Master of Education	2	3%
Bachelor of Education	20	31%
Diploma of Education	3	5%
Baccalaureat Technique (TAFE)	14	22%
Higher School Certificate	21	32%
No response	4	6%

Table 18: Highest Level Of Education Attained

The Effects of the Principal's Leadership Style on Teacher Motivation:

Table 18 shows clearly that a large proportion of the teachers (32%) hold only a higher school certificate or (HSC). These teachers teach at the primary level. In addition, 14 (22%) hold a certificate from TAFE. This data reveal that the number of qualified teachers is almost low, only 39% have teaching qualifications and 54% have no tertiary qualifications. Four respondents failed to answer this question.

Age

Figure 7 below displays the age group distribution of teachers who participated in the study.

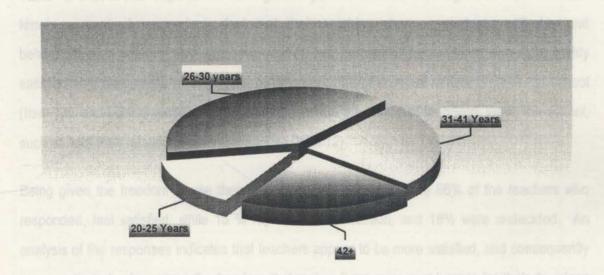


Figure 7: Age Distribution Of Lebanese Teachers (n = 64)

Figure 7 above reveals a relatively even distribution between the different age groups: 20-25, 26-30, 31-41, and 42 +. However, the most common age group was between 26 and 30 years (39%) with the least number of teachers being forty-two years or older (22%). One teacher did not provide his or her age.

Teacher satisfaction

The purpose of this section is to give teachers the opportunity to reflect on their feelings towards their present job in order for the researcher to understand what teachers like or dislike about their professional life.

Table 19 on the following page demonstrates the percentage and means of teachers' responses to the Teachers Satisfaction section of the questionnaire. To analyse the data, the Very Satisfied and Satisfied categories of the five-point scales are collapsed into the Satisfied category and analysed together. Similarly, the category Strongly Dissatisfied is collapsed into the Dissatisfied category.

Table 19 shows that respondents were generally most satisfied with regard to their students. Ninety percent of respondents feel that their teaching changes students' attitudes and behaviours in a positive way (Item 10). Ninety-two percent of respondents were also highly satisfied with their sense of belonging, of teamwork and of collegial relationships in the school (Item 13), and 90% of respondents were satisfied with the feeling of teamwork within the school, such as with their relationship with colleagues (Item 12).

Being given the freedom to use their own judgement (Item 5) made 66% of the teachers who responded, feel satisfied, while 15 % reported dissatisfaction, and 18% were undecided. An analysis of the responses indicates that teachers appear to be more satisfied, and consequently more motivated, when given the freedom that makes them more responsible for their decisions and judgements.

Praise and recognition (Items 8 and 15) are appreciated by 65% of teachers who feel satisfied when praised and recognised for their efforts, 21% are undecided and 14% are dissatisfied (item, 8). Twenty-one percent of teachers responded that they are dissatisfied with the amount of recognition they receive for their work, while 17% are undecided, 63% indicated they are satisfied (Item 15). Based on the previous results and observing the teachers' responses to open-ended questions, it appears that teacher satisfaction is increased when teachers are recognised and praised by their leaders.

No	items	VS%	S%	U%	D%	SD%	Means
1	Being somebody in the school community	42	53	2	3	0	4.34
2	The way my principal handles his/her work	30	56	8	3	3	4.06
3	The competence of my principal in making decisions	31	39	20	5	5	3.88
4	My pay and the amount of work I do	16	33	13	25	13	3.14
5	The freedom to use my own judgement	18	48	18	15	0	3.69
6	The working conditions	22	49	15	13	0	3.81
7	The way my co-workers get along with each other	21	48	29	3	0	3.86
8	The praise I get for doing a good job	20	45	21	11	3	3.68
9	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	45	45	8	2	0	4.34
10	Changing students' attitudes and behaviour in a positive way	48	42	6	2	2	4.34
11	Working with a well qualified and experienced principal who has a clear vision for the school	53	37	6	2	2	4.40
12	My relationships with my colleagues at my school	31	59	8	2	0	4.20
13	The feeling of belonging, teamwork, and collegial relationships at my school	44	48	5	2	2	4.31
14	The quality of principalship in my school	28	55	6	6	5	3.95
15	The amount of acknowledgment I receive for my efforts	16	47	17	16	5	3.53
16	The process of school restructuring	20	45	25	11	0	3.74
17	The way promotion on merit has occurred in my school	14	50	23	11	2	3.65
18	The amount of professional growth activities provided at my school	20	34	17	26	3	3.42
19	The respect, trust, and support I receive from other staff at my school	30	44	22	2	3	3.95
20	The progress of curriculum reform	15	46	21	17	0	3.60
21	The amount of involvement in the decision making process at my school	9	31	28	21	9	3.09

Table 19: Teacher Satisfaction

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend: VS = Very Satisfactory S = Satisfied U = Undecided D = Dissatisfied SD = Strongly Dissatisfied

More than half of the teachers surveyed (54%) are satisfied with the amount of activities provided by their schools for promoting professional growth (Item 18), while 29% of respondents are dissatisfied and 17% are undecided. From this, it can be concluded that teachers' satisfaction may be increased when they are provided with activities that will enhance their professionalism.

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A considerable number of teachers surveyed (65%) are satisfied with the process of reforming the school structure, while 25% of the respondents are undecided, and 11% are dissatisfied (item 16). In addition, 61% of the respondents are satisfied with the progress of the curriculum reform, whereas 21% are undecided and 17% are dissatisfied (Item 20) because of the amount and rapidity of change, or alternatively because they are unclear about the outcomes of any change. However, the interview data highlights the necessity of the change and reform.

A significant percentage of teachers surveyed (95%) are satisfied with the statement "being somebody in the school community" (Item 1). Having the feeling that you are an important person in the school community is a tremendous factor that helps the teachers to succeed in the school setting and therefore to boost motivation. Another significant finding relates to the achievement factor at work (Item 9). Ninety percent of the respondents were satisfied with their feelings of accomplishment. This result supports Maslow's hierarchy which highlights achievement as a factor of motivation.

On a less positive note, less than half of teachers surveyed (40%) are satisfied with the amount of involvement they have in the decision-making process at their schools, whereas 28% are undecided (Item 21). From this, it can be concluded that teachers' motivation could be negatively affected when they are not provided with much involvement in decision-making.

Seventy percent of the respondents are satisfied with the competence of their principal in making decisions, whereas 20% are undecided and 10% are dissatisfied (Item 3). In addition 83% of the respondents are satisfied with the quality of their principalship in their school (Item 14). From this, it can be argued that teachers could be more satisfied when working under a competent principal. This is further supported by Item 11 which shows that 90% of the respondents are satisfied when "working with a well qualified and experienced principal who has a clear vision for the school".

Satisfaction with the way the co-workers get along is notable with 69% of teachers responding that they are satisfied, and 29% indicating they are undecided (Item 7). From this, it can be argued that teachers can be more motivated when working together as a team. Seventy-one percent of participants are satisfied with working conditions, and 15% are undecided (Item 6).

This factor could affect teacher motivation as it is among the hygiene factors that were reported in Figure 2.

An unsurprising finding was reported for Item 4 where 38% of the participants assert that they are dissatisfied with their salary in comparison to the amount of work they do, whereas 49% are satisfied and 13% are undecided. This finding may be understood as a normal consequence to the recession period of the economy that the country is facing in the postwar era.

In summary, it can be concluded that the level of satisfaction for the Lebanese sample is remarkably high especially for items 1, 2, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13, with the exception of items 4, 18, 20 and 21 which have low mean scores. An interpretation of these means indicates that this sample group is generally satisfied with their job.

Teacher Motivation

The items in this section of the survey are designed to obtain information about the strategies used by the principals to enhance teacher motivation. The answers reflect the teachers' attitudes towards their current schools. On a five-point scale for gauging respondents' reactions to items measuring degree of motivation: a 5 signifies that respondents are strongly motivated by a particular factor; a 4 indicates some degree of motivation; a 3 indicates that the extent of motivation is undecided; a 2 signifies that the factor does not generally motivate the respondent; and a 1 indicates that a factor in no way motivates the respondent. The *Strongly Agree* and *Agree* categories have been collapsed into one *Agree* category. Similarly, the *Disagree* and *Strongly Disagree* categories have been collapsed into one *Dissatisfied* category.

Table 20 on the following page, displays the percentage of teachers' responses on items related to teacher motivation which have a direct or indirect relationship with the principal's style.

No	Items	SA%	A%	U%	D%	SD%	Means
1	I am motivated by the respect, trust and empathy I receive from my principal	49	48	2	2	2	4.44
2	I am motivated by the sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school	58	34	3	3	2	4.45
3	I am motivated by the professional growth activities that are available to me	35	43	6	15	0%	3.98
4	Participating in activities that improve my competence in teaching is a source of motivation to me	54	32	9	3	2	4.34
5	I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with students	80	18	katio	2	0%	4.75
6	Being able to work closely with my principal is a source of motivation to me	33	42	14	9	2	3.95
7	I am motivated by the satisfaction I receive from working with my colleagues	69	25	3	3	0%	4.60
8	I am motivated by the opportunity to restructure the educational program during the postwar era	41	34	18	5	2	4.09
9	I am motivated by the recognition I receive from the principal	31	33	13	11	12	3.59
10	I am motivated because I believe I make a difference in the lives of my students	58	0%	37	0%	5	4.49
11	I am motivated because I participate in the decision-making process in this school	9	22	8	15	2	3.39
12	I am motivated because the principal makes most of the decisions in this school	3	15	19	37	26	3.68
13	I am motivated because of the sense of equality I perceive among all staff members	28	40	14	12	5	3.65
14	Being able to participate in planning the future of the school process is a source of motivation	37	41	11	6	5	4.91
15	Acknowledgment is a source of motivation to me	35	38	10	13	5	3.86
16	I am motivated by the respect, trust and empathy I receive from those in my workplace	48	45	3	3	0%	4.39
17	Reforming the educational program and school structure is a source of motivation to me	45	34	9	8	5	4.06

Table 20:	Teacher Motivation Responses
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NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend:

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree SD = Strongly Disagree U = Undecided

D = Disagree

The above table reveals that, outside of leadership, a significant number of teachers (98%) are motivated by the students alone. This is seen clearly from Item 5: "*I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with students*". Personal regard also rates highly in terms of being a strong motivator for the teachers sampled. A significant number of teachers (97%) agree with Item 1: "*I am motivated by the respect, trust, and empathy I receive from my principal*". A high percentage of the participants (93%) agree that they receive the respect, trust and empathy from their colleagues at work (Item 16). In addition, Item 13 highlights the importance of equality among all staff members with 68% of the respondents agreeing with the statement. These results reveal the importance of the human relationships between principals and teachers, and between teachers themselves. Having strong relationships like this in the workplace is a strong factor in the process of motivating teachers. Personal gestures and social signs such as respect, trust, equality and empathy help the teachers grow in the school setting and, therefore, enhance the motivation of the teachers.

A great number of teachers (92%) show agreement with Item 2: "*I am motivated by the sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school*". This indicates that teachers are motivated because of the teamwork undertaken by staff members. Item 7 is designed to determine whether or not working with colleagues is a source of motivation for teachers. Ninety-four per cent of respondents indicate that teachers in their school work together, which provides them with a great feeling of satisfaction. Consequently, teachers are motivated by the satisfaction they receive from working with colleagues. In other words, they are motivated by working within a team.

A significant number of teachers (86%) believe that their participation in professional activities such as in-services or workshops constitutes a source of motivation for them (Item 4), while 78% of teachers feel that they are motivated by professional growth activities available to them (Item 3). This clearly indicates the importance of the professional growth activities as a factor of motivation for teachers.

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Item 9 reveals that 64% of respondents agree that recognition from the principal is a source of motivation, while 23% of the respondents do not agree that recognition from the principal is a motivating factor. Moreover, Item 15 shows that 73% of respondents agree with the factor that acknowledgement is a source of motivation. This may be because of the different teacher personalities. This is reinforced by the interview data.

The opportunity to participate in decision-making, a factor which affects an individual in the professional domain, is reported to be a source of motivation. The responses of Item 11 show that 31% of teachers agree that they are motivated because they participate in the decision-making process, while 17% disagree with the statement presented. This result reveals a problem in the decision-making processes. The data collected in the interviews also highlight the problem of decision-making, as well as the importance of participating in it. Moreover, Item 12 reveals that 18% of the respondents agreed that they are motivated because the principal makes most of the decisions, while 63% disagree with the statement. This shows clearly the importance of involving teachers in decision-making as a source of motivation. This finding is confirmed by Item 14, where 78% of the respondents believe that "being able to participate in planning the future of the school process is a source of motivation"

Reforming the educational program and school structure (Items 8 and 17) is a crucial source of motivation for the Lebanese teachers. Seventy-nine per cent of the respondents agree with Items 8, and 79% agree with Item 17, regarding the restructuring of the schools and the educational program reform respectively. However, this percentage is flawed by the ambiguity that accompanies the reform and also the risk of making major reforms. In any case, teacher attitudes and commitment towards their job are influenced positively by educational reform, the implementation of which the principals are required to facilitate.

Most of the means listed in the Table 20 are relatively high. The lowest mean score, 3.65, for Item 13 relates to the equality factor among all staff members, while the highest mean score, 4.91, for Item 14 which indicates the importance of giving the teacher the possibility to participate

in planning the future of the school. An interpretation of these means indicates that the level of motivation among the teachers participating in this study is remarkably high.

Yes /No questions analysis

The results of the Yes/No questions give a clear idea about the synergistic techniques which enhance extrinsic teacher motivation. These techniques rely, to a certain extent, on the role of the principal leadership. Table 21 demonstrates the percentage for the responses to the Yes/No questions.

No.	Items	Yes %	No %	
1	Does your principal involve you in the decision-making process?	42	58	
2	Do you feel that involvement in the decision-making process improves your attitude and commitment to your school?	85	15	
3	Does your principal offer you professional growth activities?	68	32	
4	Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you at your school?	61	29	
5	Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your school and/or classroom?	86	14	
6	Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from the principal for the job you do?	56	44	
7	Do you feel the amount of recognition you receive for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?	83	17	
8	Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?	14	86	
9	Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job?	94	6	
10	Do you feel that being treated as a professional person is a major motivator for you?		34	
11	Do you feel that working in a team involving the teachers and the principal improves your work motivation?		27	
12	Do you feel content when you work with a principal who is highly educated and aware of educational issues?	98	2	
13	Do you feel the general restructuring of schools improves your attitudes towards teaching?	83	17	
14	Do you feel participation in in-services improves your attitude and motivation in teaching?	88	12	

Table 21: Answers To Yes/No Questions

The larger 'no' responses indicate areas of possible improvement. Eighty-six per cent of 'no' responses do not regard their principal as the main motivator in their daily work (Item 8), 58 % of the teachers feel that they are not involved in the decision-making process (Item 1); 44% of the teachers are not pleased with the amount of recognition they receive from the principal (Item 6); and 29% of the respondents feel that they need more professional growth activities offered by their schools (item 4).

The larger 'yes' responses, on the other hand, reveal some interesting factors in operation. For instance, involvement in the decision-making process appears to be a factor highly likely to ensure a promising working environment in which teachers can be motivated, as revealed by Item 2. Eighty-three per cent of respondents feel that they receive a reasonable amount of recognition (Item 7); 88% of respondents participate in professional activities, as revealed in item 14; and 83% of respondents are motivated by the restructuring of school's structure and curriculum, as revealed in Item 13.

The most impressive result is that 98% of the respondents to Item 12 agree that their motivation is positively influenced by the principal being highly educated and up-to-date with current educational issues. Another interesting factor is that while 86% of teachers are not motivated by their principals, 94% are motivated by their students. This could explain why, even with the low input of principals to teacher motivation, teachers are generally satisfied (Table 19), and their level of motivation is remarkably high (Table 20). I suggest that, without this important balance, the schools would be ineffective educational organisations.

Factors relating to motivation

The responses to the questionnaire and interview research instruments demonstrate that there are numerous practical motivational techniques available to the principal for enhancing teacher motivation. These are: principal's leadership style, students, personal regard, recognition, professional growth, restructuring, teamwork and decision-making. These categories are not listed in order of priority and should not be considered as distinct and separate.

Principal's style

The questions on principal's style are analysed using a five-point Likert scale, where a 'five' on the scale indicates a very encouraging and motivating principal's style and that the principal plays a positive role in leading teachers in their work. In contrast, a 'one' on the scale suggests that the principal's style is in need of improvement in terms of motivational skills as well as in terms of dealing with teachers as deliverers of high quality education.

Table 22 on the following page, shows the mean response for items relating to the principal's style. These items describe some of the aspects that characterise the principal's style in terms of facilitating interpersonal relationships among teachers by using specific techniques and strategies. The implementation of these techniques by the principal will enhance in one way or other teacher motivation as well as teacher morale and satisfaction. Consequently, the teaching environment will be improved, making it possible for teachers to attain a high level of satisfaction and performance.

The principal's skill in dealing with teachers as indicated in Table 22 has a direct impact on the extrinsic motivation of teachers. The data from the interviews and the open-ended questions reinforce these findings. In the open-ended questions, for instance, teachers from White1 school answer the question, *"What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated in your work?"*, with responses such as: A supportive administration, (the principal's) awareness and educational capacity and his support for staff; the recognition that I receive from my principal; the nice way that the principal works with the staff; and respect, trust and good relationships shown by the principal. These comments indicate the direct effects that the principal may have on teacher motivation by influencing their self-esteem by his or her leadership style and practices.

The Yellow's achool's teachers state that, the principal storys blames the teachers for an feitures; the changing of principals every year makes it difficult for the teachers to work in a good mobiled system, and there is no equality shown by the principal in dealing with different teachers.

No	items	A%	0%	S%	R%	N%	Means
1	Makes me feel ready to sacrifice my own self- interests for the good of the group	23	40	26	2	9	3.67
2	Finds out what I want and tries to help me	21	28	26	14	11	3.35
3	Shows interest and respect towards my work	43	37	6	9	5	4.05
4	Is a good team player	34	38	18	5	5	3.92
5	Recognises me when I perform well	21	39	29	8	3	3.68
6	Rewards those involved when tasks are completed	14	28	38	11	9	3.27
7	Looks out for the personal welfare of individuals	13	8	36	19	25	2.64
8	Keeps the staff well informed	24	22	24	22	8	3.32
9	Is willing to make changes	37	37	17	8	-	4.05
10	Offers staff the opportunity to participate in professional development activities	40	32	15	6	6	3.94
11	Runs staff meetings successfully	47	25	16	5	8	3.98
12	Encourages everyone to share in decision-making	16	28	33	8	16	3.20
13	Makes most of the decisions without consulting teachers	21	23	31	11	14	3.28
14	Motivates me by his/her educational model	20	22	28	19	11	3.22
15	Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected	19	25	25	22	8	3.25
16	Excites us with his/her vision of school restructuring	36	24	13	16	11	3.59
17	Excites us with his/her implementation of new curriculum content	26	35	16	19	4	3.61

Table 22: Principal's Style

NB: Some percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and may not total 100 because some participants did not respond to every item.

Legend: A = always O = often S = Sometimes R = Rarely

N = Never

In answer to the question, "List three things you dislike about your current school", some teachers from Green1 school state that: the principal never cares about the teachers; the principal does not check on the teachers' work; and the principal does not treat everybody equally.

The Yellow1 school's teachers state that: the principal always blames the teachers for any failures; the changing of principals every year makes it difficult for the teachers to work in a good unified system, and there is no equality shown by the principal in dealing with different teachers.

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Elaborating on the issues concerning the principal, 86% of respondents answer negatively (*No*) to the question: "*Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?*" (Table 21, Item 8). However, Table 21, Item 12 shows that 98% of respondents would feel content if they were to work with a principal who is highly educated and aware of educational issues. This could indicate that principals could have an impact on teachers' motivation and attitude.

The questionnaire data analysis outcomes are reinforced by the teachers' interview statements. For example, teachers from Green1 school state that:

T.1. He (the principal) is not fully able to give advice concerning the subjects we teach.

T.2. He (the principal) should show us or make us feel he is with us...he should encourage us to do more and more work by doing the work himself or at least being with us.

T.3. I would like the principal who is involved in making decisions, to be someone more professional.

T.4. Sometimes when you would like him in, he/she is out, sometimes when you want him out, he is in. In fact, we need a professional principal in administration.

Teachers from Yellow1 school allege:

T.1. I prefer to have a principal who is qualified in education you can trust and who can supervise the teachers working.

T.2. We need a qualified principal in education, not because he is a priest, but one qualified to be a principal.

T.3. I feel that my principal doesn't care about my work, so it stops me from caring as much as I could. But if we have a principal who knows how to motivate us, for sure, we become more committed to the work, and we perform much better.

Teachers from White1 school assert that:

T.3. I admire the mutual trust and respect between me and my principal that makes me more comfortable and willing to give more, and this is what makes me perform much better.

T.4. The equality shown by the principal in dealing with different teachers.

These quotations from the interview data support the quantitative data findings that some teachers have a negative attitude towards their principals. It appears that their motivation is reduced because they perceive their principals as lacking appropriate educational skills, as well as lacking involvement in the teaching/learning environment. On the other hand, White1 school teachers have a more positive attitude towards their principal and they are more enthusiastic at work as they are more comfortable with their principal's behavior. Nevertheless, reflecting on the means in Table 22, one can conclude that there exists a large margin where the principals may improve their leadership style, as it is perceived by the respondents as falling between a powerful motivator style and a moderate motivator style.

Teamwork

As revealed in the literature review, teamwork is one of the most important issues in today's society. It helps members to work together smoothly and to exchange information and share responsibility for the improvement of quality in the school setting. When asked to name three aspects of their school that they like, the respondents, as did teachers from White1 school, put an emphasis on teamwork by saying: *"I like the relationship among staff members and the cooperative work they do together"*. The positive climate as a result of teachers working very closely together is also highlighted in statements such as: *"The collegial spirit and the cooperative work between the staff and the principal, we really feel constitute a close and united family"*. Another teacher mentions that: *"I like the cooperative work between all the members of*

the school. We can share information and experiences in a positive atmosphere; this helps us to grow professionally and academically".

On the other hand, teachers from Yellow1 school state that: "I like the cooperative spirit that exists between myself and some teachers", and "I consider some of my colleagues to be very faithful people; we have a very strong relationship". These comments are taken from Yellow1 school teachers who fail to mention the existence of teamwork between the staff and the principal. One teacher from Green1 school mentions that: "I like the spirit of cordiality between the principal and the teachers". Another teacher says: "I like the spirit of assistance and help between staff and the administration. This creates a positive feeling and a sense of belonging at the school".

In all three schools, staff indicate in their open-ended question responses that positive team interaction, the opportunity to express personal opinions, and the ability to communicate and cooperate with colleagues and principal are all factors which influence their motivation levels. This is reinforced by comments indicating that lack of "cooperative spirit" between staff and principals is one of the biggest problems hindering the teachers' motivation. This is also supported by teachers from all three schools emphasising the importance of having high staff morale and support from colleagues and principals as a factor for motivation.

Table 19, Item 7 shows that sixty-nine per cent of teachers reveal satisfaction with their coworkers, while 29% of respondents are undecided. From this it can be argued that teachers could be more motivated when working together in a team setting, especially when they get along well with each other.

The interview data, in turn, reinforce the previous results concerning the role played by teamwork in motivating teachers. However, some teachers have doubts about the efficacy of teamwork because of the lack of respect among themselves sometimes and the lack of willingness of some teachers to share and discuss personal work issues.

One teacher from Green1 school states that:

T.1. Well, we usually do not work as a team. We've never had a chance to work as a team - in the proper meaning of the word ... I am happy with that (no teamwork) because, I mean, I feel free. There is no body to tell me what to do ...Well, this is the truth. However there should be more cooperation and team work because it is healthy and good for the teachers, school and students.

Another teacher from the same school asserts that:

T.2. I feel motivated when I work in a team with my colleagues because working in a team is nicer than working alone. It doesn't matter whether it is in a formal or informal way. By working in a team we can communicate more, get more ideas ...and the result you get is always better. One difficulty of teamwork is how to get to a certain kind of compromise. Anyway we are all working towards our target.

One teacher from White1 school alleges that:

T.4. Teamwork is very important. If we try to work as a team, at the end it's for the benefit of the whole school. That's why I like to be a member of a team at school.

One teacher from Yellow1 school highlights the necessity of teamwork. S/he considers that working cooperatively is crucial to opening the door to more learning:

T.3. By working in a team we can learn more and develop our special teaching methods. The feeling that I belong to a team in the school makes me feel more confident, because it is very important for staff and principal to work together, and it also makes me more accountable for my work. It also gives me a feeling that I am a member of the school community.

One teacher from the same school expresses concern about the difficulty that can confront people working in a team by saying:

T.1. Working in a team is really encouraging. However I am a bit scared of working in a team because sometimes it delays the work because it is hard to get to a certain consensus. On the other hand, it can make the work much easier if the members of the team can work in harmony. In any case, working in a team might enrich the community.

The majority of participants in the three schools reply to the interview question, "Do you think working in a team will enhance your work motivation?", with "yes, of course", or "definitely". In addition, in answering the Yes/No question concerning teamwork, 73% of the respondents ticked 'yes' (Table 21, item 11). This finding reflects the importance of teamwork in motivating teachers in their profession.

The student factor

Teachers have two functions in the classroom. Firstly, they deal with the content of instruction and, secondly, they focus on the process of teaching and learning (Nunan and Lamb, 1996). The main clients in the classroom are the students. Their reaction to teachers' work plays a relevant role in teacher motivation.

Ninety-four per cent of the respondents answer the question, "Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job?", with "yes" (Table 21, Item 9). Also, Table 19, Item 10 shows that ninety per cent of the respondents are satisfied with the students' attitudes and behavior, and 98% of the teachers agree with the statement: "I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with students" (Table 20, Item 5). These findings reveal the importance of pupils as an effective factor for teacher motivation. However, students, as a motivational factor, are not related directly to the role of the principal. Nevertheless, the data strongly highlight the importance of the students in encouraging teachers and in keeping them highly motivated.

Personal Regard

Personal regard develops out of respect, trust, freedom, care, admiration, affection and esteem as the literature review revealed. In answer to the survey question, "List three things you like most about your current school", the majority of respondents of White1 school are positive. They provide a high number of positive comments about personal regard, such as "the spirit of respect, and the mutual human relationships between the principal and teachers", and "the care that the principal shows towards staff", and "the respect and freedom the principal offers provides teachers with great support".

In addition, the comments from Green1 and Yellow1 schools include "the spirit of charity and mutual respect between the principal and teachers is what drives me to give more" (Yellow 1 school), and "the trust and mutual respect that create a friendly relationship and social environment", as well as "the freedom I have and the state of friendship and co-operation between the teachers and the respect which they get in return from the principal" (Green1 school).

Teachers stress, in their responses to the question, "What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated?", those factors such as "respect, trust, freedom, to be treated like a person and to have a human relationship between the principal and the teachers".

Table 20, Item 1 shows a significant result as 97% of the respondents are motivated by the respect, trust and empathy they receive from their principals. Item 16 (Table 20) also shows another interesting finding with 93% of participants feeling motivated by the respect, trust and empathy they receive from those in their workplace. This finding clearly indicates that being valued is an effective motivating factor in their work.

Table 22, Item 3 shows an interesting result, in that 43% of participants believe their principals always show interest and respect towards their teachers' work, and 37% believe that interest and respect is often shown. From this, it may be argued that the principal plays an important role in showing genuine interest, respect and personal regard in order to keep their teachers motivated at work.

The data collected in the interviews reinforce the previous findings about the personal regard factor of motivation. A Green1 school teacher believes that:

T.2. The first thing a teacher should earn is respect. It does affect teacher motivation a lot.

Another teacher shows concern about the way teachers are treated by stating that:

T.4. Sometimes when the principal needs me, or when he has to and he doen't have to, or when my interest conflicts with his interest, I am not treated as a professional.

A Yellow1 school teacher states that:

T.2. It is very necessary to create in schools a climate of respect, trust, and care, that helps the teachers to keep motivated in their work. And the lack of these values makes me lose a zest for my work. That is why the principal should be aware about how to respect, trust, and support teachers.

A White1 school teacher states that:

T.4. It is very important to have in the schools a kind of equality among teachers and to earn the respect of the principal. All these factors help teachers, directly or indirectly, to keep motivated in their work.

Teachers from all three schools agree that the role of social and professional relationships in terms of valuing each other professionally, as well as placing emphasis on the necessity of respect, trust, and equality in dealing with teachers, through a positive channel of communication, would support and enhance teacher self-esteem and motivation.

Restructuring

Schools are complex organisations that are related to larger society as well as to social movements (Whitaker, 1998). The reform movement and restructuring of schools in Lebanon

has had an impact on teacher motivation and satisfaction. Respondents feel the move to reform the school structure and curriculum content improves their attitude towards teaching, especially coming to the end of the civil war period in the country. It seems that the restructuring of schools and curriculum is a necessity for the country in order to tackle the residual war mentality among students and teachers and, at the same time, to help Lebanon catch up with the modern world. Eighty-three per cent of the respondents answer "yes" to the Yes/No question "Do you feel the general restructuring of schools improves your attitude towards teaching?" (Table 21, Item 13).

Table 20, Item 17 shows that 79% of respondents believe that reforming the educational program and school structure is a source of motivation to them. The finding of Item 9 (Table 22) indicates that the principals of the three schools surveyed are well aware of the importance of changes, therefore they are willing to make changes within the schools.

Some teachers, in response to the open-ended questions, fail to emphasise the importance of curriculum reform and school restructuring. However, one response from Yellow1 school indicates the importance of updating the content of the curriculum:

The move to reform the syllabus and curriculum is crucial for me. It will increase my work motivation especially after such a long time of recess and rigidity in the educational system.

On the other hand, and quite surprisingly, none of the teachers claim the lack of curriculum reform or school structuring as a difficulty confronting their work motivation. While the interviewer did not ask the interviewees about their opinion regarding educational reform occurring in the country, while speaking informally, the teachers expressed their concern about the pace of reform as well as the need for new syllabus guidelines. They felt isolated and unable to contribute to the reform as they have not been asked their opinions.

Recognition

As revealed in the literature review, recognition is one of the most valuable strategies principals can use to bolster teacher motivation. It is a motivator along with advancement, accountability and the possibility of growth. In answer to the Yes/No question *"Are you pleased with the*

amount of recognition you receive from the principal?", 56% reply "yes", while 44% of the respondents reply "no" (Table 21, Item 6). However, 86% of the respondents are recognised for their work as revealed by their "yes" answer to the question, "Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your school and or classroom?" (Table 21, Item 5). Moreover, 83% of the respondents feel that recognition gestures improve their attitude and commitment towards the school (Table 21, Item 7), consequently teacher motivation is enhanced.

Sixty-three per cent of teachers are satisfied with the amount of acknowledgment they receive for their efforts, twenty-one per cent of the respondents are dissatisfied and 17% of the respondents are undecided (Table 19, Item 15). On the other hand, 64% of the respondents are motivated by the recognition they receive from the principal (Table 20, Item 9), while 73% of respondents consider recognition as a source of their motivation (Table 20, Item 15). This clearly highlights the importance of the recognition factor in enhancing teacher motivation.

In addition, comments made in the open-ended questions reveal that a large number of teachers strongly stress the importance of recognition as a factor in their motivation. For instance, teachers answer the question, "What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated?" by mentioning the following:

A Yellow1 school teacher reports:

To be recognised for all my good work, from both the principal and parents. Direct encouragement from my principal. All these things make me feel more content and enthusiastic with high commitment towards and sacrifice for my work.

A Green1 school teacher declares:

It is very important for me to be praised for my work, from my principal in front of my colleagues by a material gesture or by a simple thank you. The recognition gestures make me work harder and be more motivated and also make me sacrifice more for the sake of the school and students.

A White1 school teacher states:

The way the principal treats me, the acknowledgment I receive for my work and the morale and material support - all these give me a feeling of belonging to the school. Therefore, I feel more motivated and committed to my work.

The majority of teachers from the three schools believe that the lack of recognition affects their motivation and enthusiasm for their work place. This is seen as a serious problem that needs to be addressed. This is clear in the answers to the open-ended Question 2, "*Can you identify motivational problems confronting you at work?*" Respondents say: "*lack of recognition*", "*lack of support*"; "*lack of encouragement*"; and "*lack of praise*".

The interview data, in turn, reinforce these findings about recognition in the school setting. The majority of teachers interviewed highlight the importance of recognition for their professional work which they believe bolsters their level of work motivation. Lack of recognition from the principal has a negative affect on teachers, because everyone likes to be praised for his or her work, as a Green1 school teacher says:

T.4. Of course, recognition for my efforts increases my motivation. I have to be recognised. The principal has to feel that someone here has done something and he or she is not only to be praised, but maybe he (the principal) should offer something more important than has already been offered.

This same teacher adds that:

T.4. I like to be praised. I mean, everybody likes to be praised for something he or she has done. I personally would be happy with a 'thank you', for example, but I've never had the chance to hear it from anybody.

Another teacher from the same school stresses the importance of recognition by stating that:

T.1. When the principal recognises my work and efforts, I can work more, invent more, create more... And I feel good, because everyone wants to be recognised positively. Everyone likes it even in the street. If you are recognised we go on ...if we are not, I end it. Sometimes, I feel down when I do something great,

without hearing a 'thank you' ... all kinds of appreciation can enhance my work motivation.

A Yellow1 school teacher relates the recognition gesture to human dignity. S/he states that:

T.3. When you are encouraged you want to give more; when you're discouraged from doing something you just want to withdraw... after all it's your dignity. You'll be hurt inside. It's you who are giving and they don't appreciate it. So why should I give them more?

Another teacher from the same school emphasises the recognition gesture as being a powerful factor in motivating teachers. S/he says:

T.2. It's very normal to be recognised for your work. A simple 'thank you' could have a strong affect on your teaching. When a teacher hears it, he or she can work harder, provide better quality work. Recognition can boost teacher morale and commitment towards his or her work.

A White1 school teacher answers the question, "Do you like to be recognised for your work?" by saying:

T.2. Of course, I want to be recognised. It has a big effect. Even if it's only an oral acknowledgment, one word, it affects me. If you say 'thank you', sometimes, it can have a more powerful effect than ... let's say ... a hundred dollars.

All the teachers interviewed highlight the effect of recognition on their motivation. One of the teachers mentions that recognition should be provided at the right time to be effective and productive. However, principals are not the only people who can bestow recognition. Teachers praising each other's efforts create a tremendous sense of fulfillment. Teachers perform well in a friendly and professional school environment.

Professional Growth

Teachers' professional competence can be improved by providing professional growth opportunities (Bullough, 1997). The need for teachers to satisfy their need for achievement is also accomplished through the possibility of learning new things, the introduction of innovative methods of training and the opportunity to participate in in-services.

It is notable that teachers from all three schools answered the question, "What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated?", similarly, with one teacher saying "the possibility of being involved in workshops and in-services improves (teacher) professionalism". A small majority (54%) of respondents are satisfied with the amount of professional activities provided in their schools (Table 19, Item 18). In addition, the activities available seem to help the teacher "improve to become a better teacher". This is reinforced in answers to the question, "Can you identify motivational problems confronting you at work?". Answers include: "lack of in-services". In addition, 88% of respondents feel that participation in in-services improves their attitude and motivation in teaching (Table 21, Item 14). Therefore, teachers feel satisfied, supported and increasingly motivated when they become involved in programs designed to improve their teaching capacity.

The interview data, in turn, stress the importance of professional growth in the workplace as a great motivation for teachers. According to the teachers' answers, the principal can encourage professional growth activities in many different ways, such as bringing in outside experts, allowing teachers to visit other professionals both in their own school and other schools, as well as encouraging workshops and in-services. A Green1 school teacher comments that:

T.3. Last year, I told the principal that it was necessary for us to have workshops here in our school. We've had several workshops, but I mean out of, not in, our school. It is necessary for us, for the school, for everybody to have workshops here. Another teacher from the same school states that:

T.1. Unfortunately, we used to attend workshops or lectures, but they have not been very effective.

Teachers mention the "money" factor as a difficulty hindering the attending or organising of inservices or workshops. However, they agree that professional growth and the possibility of attending in-services are crucial for their work motivation. A White1 school teacher states that:

T.1. Professional activities are very relevant for me. We need to have more, however, it is a bit difficult because money plays an important role. It's an economic problem.

A Yellow1 school teacher emphasises the role of educational activities in developing teachers' abilities in teaching and in making changes in the academic environment of schools. S/he says:

T.4. Professional activities are crucial. They keep teachers up to date; therefore, they can renew their way of teaching and help make changes and also a difference in the school. That's why we need to have more in-services and workshops.

Another teacher from the same school states that involvement in professional growth activities improves teachers' self-esteem. S/he declares:

T.1. Professional growth enhances staff members' self-esteem and provides the opportunity for each teacher to influence their own work environment by exchanging information and experiences.

From this analysis, it can be concluded that professional growth includes opportunities for attending professional development sessions, attending conferences and visiting other schools. These factors, which give teachers the opportunity for professional growth, are steps towards strengthening teacher motivation and towards making positive changes in the school.

Decision-making

Teacher participation in decision-making has been advocated as a process for improving teacher satisfaction and motivation to support decisions that they have played a part in making. Participation in decision-making also enhances the quality and implementation of decisions as revealed in the literature review.

The open-ended questions reveal that teachers from the three schools are highly critical about the level of teacher involvement in the decision-making processes in their schools. Some teachers from White1 and Yellow1 schools answer the question, "Can you identify motivational problems confronting you at work?" with "lack of involvement in decisions", "lack of consultation regarding decisions made relating to my classroom" and "I cannot make any small decisions relating to my work with students without permission from the principal".

These responses are emphasised by the answers given to the question, "List three things you dislike about your current school". Teachers focussed on the "lack of involvement in making any decisions", "no respect for the decisions made", and teachers not having "any consideration given to (their) decisions or ideas about the school". The open-ended questions suggest that problems concerning decision-making appear to be significant within the three schools, with teachers feeling that they are isolated in their classrooms and not able to participate in most of decisions which may have desirable outcomes for them.

In addition, only 31% of the respondents agree with the statement, "I am motivated because I participate in the decision-making process in this school", and only 18% of respondents agree with the statement, "I am motivated because the principal makes most of the decisions in this school", while 78% of the respondents agree with the statement, "Being able to participate in the planning the future of the school process is a source of motivation" (Table 20, Items 11,12 and 14). A further analysis of these results shows that teachers prefer to be part of and to contribute to any decision-making at the level of the school and especially at the level of their classrooms in order to feel motivated and eager to implement the decisions that are made.

Moreover, the results of the Yes/No question, "Do you feel involvement in the decision- making process improves your attitude and commitment to your school?" Table 21, Item 2, shows clearly that 85% of the respondents feel that to be involved in the decision-making process in the school will improve their attitude and commitment to the school. Yet 58% of respondents feel that their principals do not involve them in the decision-making process (Table 21, Item 1). This is a real dilemma that affects teachers' self-esteem as well as their work motivation. Consequently, they have a nonchalant attitude towards their schools.

The interview data, in turn, reinforce the previous results concerning the impact of participation in decision-making on teacher motivation. For instance, a teacher from Yellow1 school states that being involved in the decision-making process has a positive impact on his/her morale and self-esteem. S/he says:

T.4. Unfortunately the principal makes the decisions. However, personally, I prefer to be involved in any decisions because the involvement gives me a feeling of belonging to the school and improves my morale and self-esteem. I feel more respected when I am asked to be involved and it encourages me in teaching. Therefore being involved in decision-making creates a democratic climate in the school.

Another teacher from the same school says:

T.2. The principal makes all the decisions in this school but I really like to be involved in the decision-making process, especially in those that are directly related to my classroom. Being involved in the process of decision-making gives me a sense of satisfaction and responsibility as well as a sense that I am trusted and respected.

A Green1 school teacher shows concern about being involved in making decisions. S/he answers the question, "Do you like to be involved in the decision-making process?" with:

T.3. Well, all the decisions at the school are usually made by the principal. Anyway, I don't like to involved in the decision-making process because I think I would be the one to be blamed if something went wrong, I mean this is a very big

responsibility and I don't like to take part in decision-making as it is time consuming as well.

Another teacher, T.2, from the same school, when considering his/her involvement in the decision-making process merely states, "you are not involved in anything".

A White1 school teacher while talking about the occurrence of group-made decisions, especially those that are related directly to classroom practice, highlights the importance of involvement in the decision-making process by stating:

T.3. I like being part of the decision-making communication but not making any decisions on my own. I like to communicate my ideas concerning any decisions because I'm part of the school.

This same teacher elaborates on this by saying:

T.3. My involvement in the decision-making process will make me feel that I've made this decision so I have to make it work.

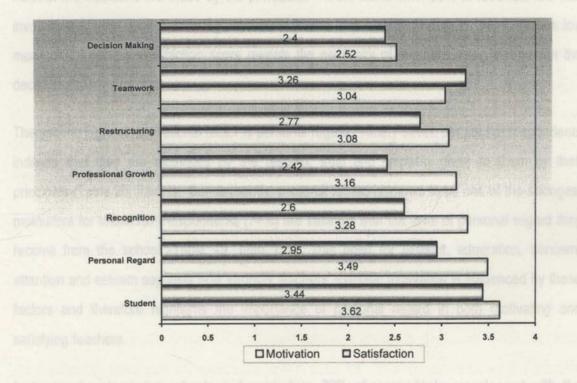
In conclusion, teachers are concerned with having a part in the decision-making process, especially for any decisions that directly affect their responsibilities in the schools and classrooms. However, they also want to be involved in the decisions that have a direct influence on their students and classroom management. The possibility of being involved in the decision-making process makes teachers feel more satisfied and more motivated to support the decisions that they have been involved in making. In brief, participation in decision-making affecting all aspects of school activities results in greater extrinsic and intrinsic teacher satisfaction and motivation as well as less role ambiguity.

Comparative analysis of factors involved in motivation

It is pertinent to look at the differences in the means for the factors relating to the principal's style across the three schools. As is illustrated in Figure 8, on following page, both motivating and

satisfaction scores are calculated for all factors. The motivation column scores indicate how motivating a factor is perceived to be by the teachers, and the satisfaction column scores indicate how satisfied staff are with their current level of involvement in terms of each specific factor. A high score (five) on the motivational scale represents a high level of motivation, whereas a score closer to one means that factors are definitely not effective motivators. The satisfaction scale is similar, with a high score (five) indicating that the specific factor represents a high level of satisfaction, and a low score indicating that respondents are dissatisfied.

Figure 8: Comparison Between Motivation And Satisfaction For Each Of The Factors



Motivation: Satisfaction: 5= Highly Satisfied

5= Highly motivated by the factor 1= Not motivated by the factor 1= Highly Dissatisfied

Figure 8 reveals a gap between how motivating some of the factors are compared to how satisfied respondents are with them. In most cases, the motivation effect is higher than the satisfaction rating. In particular, for the professional growth activities factor, respondents, while not being satisfied with the level of professional growth being offered, are strongly motivated by the existence of opportunities for professional growth. This is supported by the fact that 61% of respondents feel that there are adequate professional growth activities offered by their school (Table 21, Item 4). A gap also exists between teachers' satisfaction with the level of recognition they receive and how motivating a factor they find it. Recognition is the third most important motivator, with 83% of teachers agreeing that it improves attitude (Table 21, Item 7). However, the mean satisfaction with the amount of recognition they receive is low (2.60 - ranked 5th) and only 56% of teachers feel pleased with the amount of recognition they receive (Table 21, Item 6).

The results of Yes/No questions to Item 1 (Table 21), involvement in decision-making, indicate that 42% of respondents feel they are involved in decision-making, while the others clearly feel most of the decisions are made by the principals. At the same time, 85% of teachers feel that involvement in the decision-making process improves their attitude (Table 21, Item 2). The low mean of 2.4 for the satisfaction score reveals the necessity of teachers being involved in the decision-making process.

The second highest motivational factor is personal regard. Ninety-seven per cent of respondents indicate that they are motivated by the respect, trust and empathy given to them by their principals (Table 20, Item 1). Consequently, personal regard is shown to be one of the strongest motivators for teachers. Respondents (74%) are satisfied with the level of personal regard they receive from the school (Table 19, Item 19). This need for respect, admiration, concern, attention and esteem suggests how strongly teachers' extrinsic motivation is influenced by these factors and therefore highlights the importance of personal regard in both motivating and satisfying teachers.

In terms of restructuring schools and curriculum, 79% of respondents are pleased with the process of restructuring in their schools (Table 20, Item 17). Therefore teachers feel that this reform constitutes a source of motivation for them. However, only 61% of respondents are satisfied with the process of curriculum reform (Table 19, Item 20). Figure 8 shows clearly that restructuring motivates teachers but that the level of satisfaction is lower than the level of motivation which could be the result of some ambiguity or confusion accompanying the implementation of change.

In only one factor is the satisfaction rating higher than the motivation rating. That factor was teamwork. The average satisfaction rating for teamwork is 3.26, with the average amount it motivates teachers being 3.04. In answer to the Yes/No question of whether being involved in a teamwork improves personal motivation, 73% respond affirmatively (Table 21, Item 11). Ninety-two percent agree with the statement, *"I am motivated by the sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school"*, (Table 20, Item 2), while the same number of respondents, 92%, are satisfied with *"the feeling of belonging, teamwork, and collegial relationships"* at their school (Table 19, Item 13).

Further analysis shows that the correlation between the principal's leadership style ratings and teacher satisfaction ratings is .6959, which is significant at the .0001 level. Also, the correlation between the principal's leadership style ratings and teacher motivation ratings is .284 (p = 0.021) which is significant. This may indicate the more powerful the motivational style of the principal, the more highly satisfied and motivated the teachers are. The opposite is also true, with the more inadequate the principal's motivational style, the less satisfied and motivated the respondents are with their jobs.

Other results of the data analysis include a strong relationship between principal's style, the individual's satisfaction and motivational factors. In terms of satisfaction, nearly all the factors had significant correlations with principal's style. That is, as the principal's style is more cooperative or motivating, so satisfaction with restructuring (r=.38), decision- making (r=.67), recognition (r=.49), personal regard (r=.52) and teamwork (r=.38) is increased. The only factor not significantly correlated with principal's style is students. This makes sense as the principal and his or her way of leading can and does impact on all the factors, but not on the effect of the teaching methodology used by the teachers on their students.

It can be hypothesised that the level of motivation inherent in any teaching job should not be altered by the principal's style, as the principal's style should not affect a person's intrinsic motivation. This was borne out in the results with only one measure, that gauging how motivating teamwork is, being significantly correlated with the measure of principal style (r=.39). A possible reason for teamwork being correlated with principal's style is that the motivational

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effect of teamwork is dependent on with whom the teacher is working. This is reinforced by the interview data. If the principal is a person the teacher likes to work with, then teamwork is clearly motivational. It is therefore understandable that those principals with strong motivational styles would have staff who are more motivated by teamwork.

The means of many different items for each factor all contribute to the overall mean motivation and satisfaction scores, and therefore, all contribute to the difference between the motivation levels and satisfaction levels for each factor.

Further analysis

Further analysis reveals that there was little connection between the number of years teaching and the teachers' satisfaction with the job or level of motivation. The correlation between the number of years teaching and overall satisfaction is -.01, this is clearly not significant. In addition, the correlation between the number of years working and the overall motivation is also very small and not significant at -.004.

A number of t-tests have been conducted to examine any differences between those who had worked under their principal for one to two years compared to those who had been working with their principal for five years or more. The results reveal no significant differences between those two groups in their description of their principal's style or their satisfaction with any of the factors or the level of motivation attained from the different factors. This therefore provides evidence that satisfaction and motivation ratings are more likely to be affected by the principal's style rather than the number of years working under a certain principal.

Conclusion

These results provide evidence that a strongly motivational principal's style correlates with the teaching staff being more satisfied with their jobs. The support for a more co-operative style of leadership is gained from the overall correlations which reveal that there is a significant relationship between motivation and the leadership style of the principal.

Finally, the results indicate the importance of principals being aware of the extrinsic factors that can motivate teachers in their job, by creating and facilitating conditions that increase teacher morale, satisfaction and motivation, thus improving the quality of the academic environment within the school.

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to examine the effects of the principal's teadership style on tracture motivation, and to identify which motivations? strategies are described from the teachars' points of views. To achieve this purpose, both cumillative and qualitative research motivate were used in this study. The quantificative was the princey instrument used for data excludion, and the interviewe provided supplementary data to allow for more accurate analytic.

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Chapter Eight

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Introduction

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The research was conducted in two groups of three schools: one group is situated in Australia and the other group is situated in Lebanon. The research provides a firm basis for the principals at the six schools involved to identify and utilise effective motivation strategies which, generally, apply to all employees and are likely to have positive results. The data from the two surveys conducted in both Australia and Lebanon were analysed in the two previous chapters. Therefore, the focus of this chapter is a discussion and a comparison of the research findings of the surveys conducted in the two groups of schools.

Factors relating to teacher motivation

This thesis addresses three major research questions related to teacher motivation:

- 1. What are the needs or motivators that influence teachers to perform professionally?
- 2. Is leadership style a factor in affecting teachers' motivation?
- 3. What administrator/teacher-focused strategies could be used by principals to improve teacher motivation?

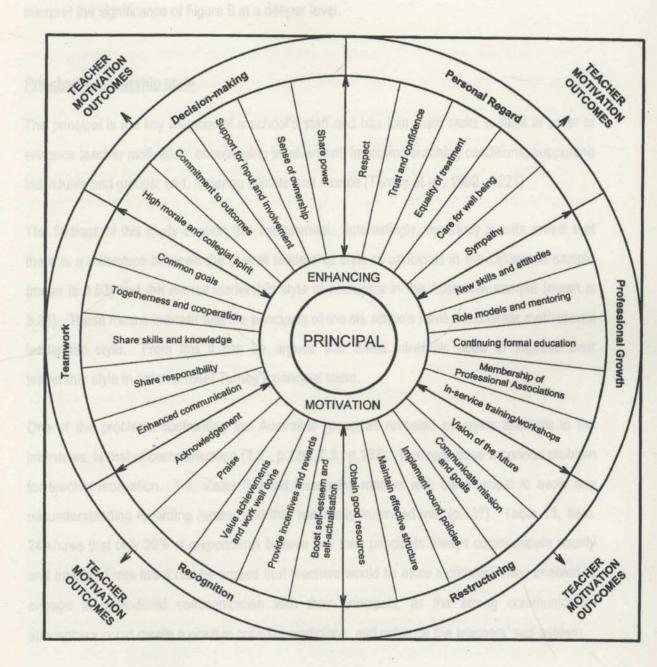
The answer to the first question is revealed in the research. The needs or motivators that influence teachers to perform professionally include seven main factors: Principal style, decision-

making, recognition, personal regard, teamwork, professional growth activities, and restructuring. The teachers need principals with a transformational/motivational/educational leadership style to help motivate them. The teachers also need to be recognised by their principals and colleagues, to be involved in decision-making, to participate in effective teams, to have on-going opportunities to undertake professional development and to be regarded well by their principals. Another important motivator for teachers lies in the effective restructuring of the school to ensure high standards of performance are maintained in all educational and administrative areas. Being part of an effective structure with a leader capable of articulating a vision for the future, communicating goals, setting and implementing sound policies and obtaining good resources, strengthens teachers' ambition to achieve excellence for the students, for themselves and for the school.

To answer the second research question it is necessary to discuss the findings related to the role of the principal's leadership style, one of the seven factors influencing teacher motivation. The remaining motivation factors investigated in the survey of the two groups of teachers (decisionmaking, teamwork, professional growth, personal regard, recognition and restructuring) will further highlight the role of the principal's leadership style in motivation.

A schematic representation of the central motivating factors that help to meet teachers' needs in their professional life is presented in Figure 9 on the following page. This model is a bidirectional and principal/teacher-focused framework in which motivation flows between the principal and teachers. The framework summarises the most valuable motivation strategies discovered by the research for this thesis which the principal can use to improve teacher motivation. that administration to action of strategies could be used at solicoi. In action

Figure 9: A Framework For Enhancing Teacher Motivation



Chapter Eight

Figure 9 represents the answer to the third research question that the thesis set out to answer *What administrator/teacher-focused strategies could be used at school to achieve improved teacher motivation*? Figure 9 reveals that there are several strategies that, if taken advantage of, will enhance teacher motivation and morale. In addition, the data analysis reveals a significant correlation between the major factors cited in Figure 9 and principal style. The following sections interpret the significance of Figure 9 at a deeper level.

Principal's leadership style

The principal is the key member of a school's staff and has four main tasks to fulfill in order to enhance teacher motivation: encouraging involvement; improving teaching conditions; supporting individuals and groups; and, fostering climate and morale (Turney et al., 1992, p.221).

The findings of this study support this assessment. Interestingly, the study results reveal that there is a difference between the overall leadership style of principals in the Lebanese sample (mean is 3.53) and the overall leadership style of principals in the Australian sample (mean is 3.23). These means indicate that the principals of the six schools have a moderate motivational leadership style. From this it can be argued that these principals need to improve their leadership style in order to meet Turney's principal tasks.

One of the problems confronting the Australian group as revealed by some teachers in the interviews, is that of communication (T.2., p.136; T.3., p.137). This may pose a serious problem for teacher motivation. T.3. states "I avoid discussing matters with the principal to avoid any misunderstanding regarding issues, and that has really frustrated me" (p.137). Table 13, Item. 24 shows that only 29% of respondents believe that their principals always communicate openly and frankly. From this it can be argued that teachers would be more motivated when enabled to engage in unhindered communication with their principals, as the strong communicative atmosphere could create a positive collegial workplace, and enhance the teachers' self-esteem.

A common problem confronting the Australian and Lebanese participants is the perceived inadequacy of the principals' educational experience and their insufficient knowledge about

educational issues (p. 135; T.4., T.2. p.136; T.4., p.137; T.1.; T.2. p.144). Problems in many different areas can be attributed to the unqualified and inexperienced principals. In addition, for the three principals in Australia this was compounded by their inability to adequately communicate in English which made it difficult for staff to approach them, and which often results in the wrong message being received. These aforementioned problems have a negative impact on the following areas:

Professional Development of staff: As the three Australian principals are educated in another country within a different system, they are unable to discuss the rationale behind and the implementation of the Australian curriculum, Board documents and syllabus design. They are unable to praise the staff effectively because the assessment and monitoring of staff performance at the appropriate level is prevented by communication difficulties. In addition, the six principals in the study are also unable to suggest ways to enhance the staff's professional development because of their lack of adequate qualifications in education. The following questions must be asked: Who, then, identifies the strengths and weaknesses of the staff? Who can effectively implement a plan of action to develop these strengths and improve these weaknesses? How is the principal able to inspire new teachers and keep the senior teachers motivated?

Classroom Issues: Principals who are not qualified in education are unable to give advice on classroom management issues, such as discipline, classroom planning, classroom communication, organising classroom structures and routines and so forth. In addition, they are unable to discuss the educational concerns of students or school effectiveness issues.

Professional Performance: The issue of the lack of educational qualifications of the principal makes it difficult for qualified staff to work under this type of principal. Frustration prevails, with a loss of faith not only in the principal but also in the organisation. Two teachers commented that some teachers may find the principal's lack of education rewarding, because it means they have the opportunity to help him/her grow (T.4., T.2., p.138). However, it must be asked at what educational cost to the students does this growth occur? The result of this situation is that the schools fail to grow and change, academic standards suffer and excellence recedes further out

of reach (Yellow school teachers, p.135). If the principal does not know curriculum guidelines, how is it possible for him or her to enhance the staff's knowledge? How does he or she respond to the parents' and community's questions about current trends in education? How does he or she improve the school when there is such a lack of awareness about educational approaches? These questions raise an important query about how this affects self-esteem and teacher motivation.

Table 13, Item 12 shows that only 11% of the respondents believe that their principal is *always* an inspiration to them, and 29% believe that their principal is *often* an inspiration to them, while 17% indicated *rarely* and 11% *never*. Thus, it is not surprising that for Item 11 in Table 13, (the principal) "is a model for me to follow", only 9% of the respondents indicated *always* and 14% ticked *often*. From this it can be argued that the principals have either direct or indirect effects on teachers' motivation as it will be seen later on in this chapter. In addition, because the principals of the surveyed schools lack appropriate qualifications and are inexperienced in teaching and administrating schools, the teachers feel that their principals are not the main motivator in their work (Table 12, Item 8; Table 21, Item 8). Thus, they prefer to work with more educated principals in education (Table 21, Item 12).

Moreover, the choice of unqualified and inexperienced people in leadership positions at the level of principal is another serious problem in the management of the six schools in the study. As a consequence of their unsuitability, such principals need to rely on other staff to assist them in their role and this leaves them open to manipulation.

Effective leaders are ones that earn the trust of their followers (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Similarly, trust in and loyalty to leaders play a critical role in the transformational leadership model of Boal and Bryson (1988). Principals in this study may be open to manipulation by maintaining hierarchical and authoritarian management styles which are dominant in the Lebanese culture. These styles prevent teachers communicating with the principal, thus forcing the principal to rely upon a small group who are able to control what the principal knows and decides (pp. 137–138). This situation may affect teacher motivation through the results of such practices on the confidence in and trust of the teachers in their principals.

The principals' lack of knowledge of what is going on in Australian schools is a major reason why they can become manipulated by some staff (pp.137–138). The principals of the three Australian schools need to educate themselves as to how the Australian school system operates, and to try to eliminate the cultural baggage that allows them to favor certain staff over others, or to believe in the superiority of their own power. The focus of these schools, without any doubt, needs to be placed on the academic, religious and social growth of the students, and not the power plays of individual staff members. In this case, teachers regain their confidence and professionalism through the principals' encouragement of their thoughts and contributions as valuable resources for the betterment of each student.

Table 21, Item 12 shows clearly that 98% of respondents "feel content when they work with a principal who is highly educated and aware of educational issues". The comments from teachers reveal that both the Lebanese and Australian groups have common criticisms and remarks regarding their principals. This could be explained by the fact that the principals of both countries were raised in similar environments and have the same educational backgrounds. Whether they are in Lebanon or in Australia, it is obvious, as the literature reveals, that the principals need to be trained in educational matters in order to be effective leaders and to improve the schools making them more effective.

The real essence of transformational leadership is that these leaders "lift ordinary people to extraordinary heights" (Boal and Bryson. 1988, p. 272), and cause followers to "do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989, p. 272), as well as "perform beyond the level of expectation" (Bass, 1985). Table 13, Items 9 and 14, reveals that the three Australian principals have not possessed the quality of transformational leadership with regard to encouraging teachers to do more than they are expected. From this it can be understood why only a few of the participants could think of times when their principals had a positive effect on their motivation. However, a considerable number of participants had no trouble remembering the times when their principals be strong, educative, supportive and that they offer feedback to them about their work. In short, the teachers demonstrated firm expectations about their principals, most valuing the educative leadership of principals (Table 22, Item 14; Table 20, Item 12).

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The data analysis shows that the principals play an important role in determining the work satisfaction and motivation of teachers (p.153; p.189). Thus, principals need to act as role models for their teachers, just as teachers are expected to act as role models for their students. Table 13, Item 11 demonstrates that the three Australian principals seem to be poor role models for their teachers. This may explain why a high percentage of the participants do not consider their principals as a main motivator for them (Table 12, Item 8). Therefore, the principals are required to take a keen interest in their teachers' success and take action against the possible loss of teacher motivation.

If motivation is to be used as an effective tool to improve teacher performance, strategies that include the principal's leadership style must be developed. The findings presented are supported by the reviewed literature which suggests that when principals use a participative style of leadership, teachers' attitudes, commitment to the school and motivation improve.

Education, in particular, requires high levels of motivation from all teachers in order for educational organisations to attain excellence and to reach their goals as revealed by the literature reviewed and the qualitative data obtained. Therefore, principals need to be concerned with the characteristics of their individual teachers and their level of satisfaction. A motivational leader is one who motivates teachers not for their students alone, but for the sake of the teachers as well (Sergiovanni, 1987). This can directly or indirectly influence the level of teacher performance (T.1. p.136; T.1 & T.3., pp.171-172). From this, one can argue that teachers who have higher needs for achievement generally perform better than those who have lower needs for achievement. This poses a strong argument for principals to create a working environment that provides increased recognition and responsibility for teachers who Herzberg labelled "motivation seekers". This way, principals and teachers can work together in what is perceived to be a fair exchange of effort for rewards.

Workplace conditions influence the level of teacher motivation (Everard and Morris, 1996). Table 10, Item 8 shows that 43% of the Australian respondents are satisfied with their working conditions, whereas Table 19, Item 6 reveals that 71% of Lebanese participants are satisfied with working conditions. Based on these results, one can argue that in order to influence others,

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school principals need to have a clear understanding of the motivations and human needs of the employee and the importance of work conditions on teacher motivation. They need a greater insight into the individuals that make up their staff. Research indicates that the key to quality schooling is in the amount and quality of leadership that the school's principal provides (Sergiovanni, 1987). Thus, teacher motivation increases when conditions create an atmosphere where the teachers feel self-fulfilled and professionally empowered. It is these teachers who continue to take on new challenges and opportunities.

Principals can do much to effectively enhance teacher motivation (Fox, 1986). The data gathered support Fox's belief. Table 11, Item 7, for instance, shows that 42% of Australian respondents agree that they are motivated by the recognition they receive from their principals. Table 20, Item 1 demonstrates that 97% of Lebanese respondents are motivated by the respect, trust and empathy they receive from their principals. These two examples clearly show some ways in which the principal can take advantage to influence teacher motivation. The effectiveness of the principal in increasing teacher motivation is also enhanced when the principal shows genuine concern for the teachers, shares their work goals with them, praises and encourages them and provides timely and appropriate feedback on goals (T.3., T.4., p.171; T.1., T.2., p.136).

Effective principals recognise that a good school climate and staff morale are vital to educational excellence (Turney et al., 1992). Table 9. Item 1 indicates that 71% of the respondents feel they are functioning in a professional environment. In addition, Item 13 in Table 9 reveals that 72% of the respondents agree with the statement " I really like working in this school". These results reflect the importance of climate and morale in enhancing teacher motivation. Climate and morale come from the atmosphere established in the school. If there is enthusiasm, trust and time devoted by the principal to the staff's needs, then the climate and morale will be good. If the climate and morale are good, then staff and students should be motivated. This is what the data collected by the interviews reinforce and reaffirm (T.2., p.136, p. 170). From this, one can argue that the leadership of a school makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence. The effectiveness of this leadership stems from the vision which guides the management of the school, which in turn determines the morale of the staff, and a high morale makes staff feel part

of something greater than themselves, a feeling of being somebody in the school community (Table 19, Item 1, and Table 10, Item 4).

In the data collected at the interviews, resource issues emerge. The material resources available and physical conditions in which teachers work are important contributors to motivation as White schoolteachers reveal in answering the open-ended survey question (pp.125-126). Thus, it can be argued that when teaching conditions are good, higher needs and motives can come to the fore.

Table 12, Item 8 and Table 21, Item 8 show that the majority of participants do not consider their principal as the main motivator in their work. However, they did not deny the importance of the principal style in affecting their motivation as the data in chapter six and chapter seven reveal. Moreover, the findings discussed in the previous two chapters show that principals can affect teacher motivation depending on which strategies they employ. The following sections interpret these findings at a deeper level. The principals at the schools in the study may need to consider giving increased attention to all the facets of teaching as a profession. With the principal being the catalyst of teacher motivation (O'Neill, 1995), special attention needs to be paid to maintaining a motivated staff, the most important part of a successful school. The quality of the relationship between the leader and followers is central to successful motivation (Shamir et al., 1993). Thus, in the context of this study, if there is to be change, teachers should be able to say how they feel honestly and openly. Principals must listen, learn to read the signs and know how to interpret them, and pay attention to meeting the basic needs.

It is worth noting that in meeting basic needs, the physical environment is of utmost importance. Physical security, an orderly environment, clearly articulated behaviour guidelines and consistent application of a fair discipline code all contribute to affirmative teaching conditions. Pleasant physical surroundings, fresh air, good lighting, furnishings and cleanliness also contribute to teacher motivation (pp. 125-126). Another factor contributing to teacher motivation is the workload and the unrealistic expectations of the principals that teachers will take on extra non-instructional tasks as required. It is important for the leader to understand the different results

brought about by leadership models and to be able to vary their behaviour according to the human and task conditions surrounding the situation.

A t-test to test the significance of the average of the means in Table 13 and Table 22 for the three Australian and three Lebanese principals, shows that t=1.557 (p= 0.124). This result is not significant, which can be explained by the fact that all the principals in the six schools come from the same culture and they have the same educational background. Further analysis shows the existence of a significant correlation between the three Lebanese principal's style ratings and their teachers motivation ratings r = 0.285 (p= 0.021), which is significant at the alpha of 0.05. (p. 189). In addition, the analysis of the Australian data shows the existence of a highly significant correlation between the three Australian principals' style ratings and their teachers' motivation ratings, r = 0.545 (p= 0.001), this is significant at the alpha of 0.05 (p. 153). Therefore, it is clear that high scores on the principal style items are associated with higher motivation scores on teacher motivation items. Furthermore, the findings reveal a significant correlation between principals' style and teacher satisfaction (p. 153 and p. 189). This can be considered as evidence of the existence of effects of principal style on teacher satisfaction and motivation.

Finally, it can be concluded that the principal's leadership style is somehow a crucial factor in enhancing teachers' motivation by using different motivational strategies as the data reveal. In schools with motivated staff led by effective leaders, where principals and teachers focus their energies primarily on educational concerns, the process for continuous improvement is then in place helping the schools make an easy transition into new effective systems of learning.

Decision-making

Much research has been carried out on the various approaches to getting individuals involved in the decision-making process (Dimmock, 1993; Chapman, 1990). This is a major part of the role of any school principal. However, the data show that the principals of the six schools surveyed do not adequately involve their teachers in the decision making process, with 43% of the respondents disagreeing with statement 1 in Table 11; and 63% of the respondents disagreeing with statement 1 in Table 11; and 63% of the respondents disagreeing with statement 1 in Table 11; and 63% of the respondents disagreeing with statement 1 in Table 11; and 63% of the respondents disagreeing with statement 12 in Table 20. Telfer (1991) suggests that involving teachers in decision-making

is a method of involving teachers in the management of the school. Similarly, Chapman (1990) believes that through participation, increased information, knowledge and creativity are brought to bear on decision-making. The interview data support Telfer and Chapman's suggestions as interviewees highlighted the importance of being part of the decision-making process (T.1., p. 140; T.2., T.3., T.1., p. 141; T.4., p. 185). A dominant theme that emerged from the literature is the notion of increased ownership in decision-making, an important factor for keeping teachers motivated. When teachers have increased ownership in the decision-making process, their sense of control enlarges and renewed efficacy results. Teachers work harder to achieve both individual performance goals and organisational goals when they have greater ownership over the decisions being made. This is made clear in the present study by many of the respondents who commented that decision-making leads to ownership, which in turn leads to commitment to their jobs and schools (T.2., T.3., p. 186; T.1., p. 141; Table 12, Item 2; Table 21, Item 2). Thus, teachers should be encouraged to exercise their professional power and to be personally or jointly responsible for their work, as this brings with it a sense of ownership over their work and outcomes.

A major problem associated with decision-making is the negative reaction by teachers to the time and energy that needs to go into the decision-making process itself (Chapman, 1990). This is supported by the interview data which show that some teachers are concerned about the timeconsuming nature of decision-making (T.3., p. 186; T.2., p. 141). Chapman (1988) analyses the degree of teacher participation in decision-making in schools and concludes that, despite opportunities for involvement, teachers are reluctant to participate if they feel that they have little influence over important decisions. Of course, some individuals are simply not interested in decision-making. Vroom (1964) argues that leadership in decision-making is crucial. Leaders can educate teachers in the nature and process of decision-making and can encourage participation within a positive school culture.

The following important points became evident from the survey results. When respondents were asked if their principals involved them in the decision-making process in their schools, 54% of the Australian group said 'yes' (Table 12, Item 1), and 42% of the Lebanese group respondents said 'yes' (Table 21, Item 1). Consequently, these teachers' attitudes and commitment to their

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organisation's goals would be expected to improve as a result of being involved in the decisionmaking process.

Nevertheless, the overall mean of the Australian group regarding decision-making as a motivational factor is 3.07 out of 5, while for the Lebanese group it is 2.52 out of 5. These scores for the Lebanese and Australian groups could be the result of the non-participative style that the principals practice regarding major decisions. This is reinforced by the number of respondents (78%) who feel that their participation in decision-making is a source of motivation (Table 20, Item 14). Yet, in the Australian sample 91% of respondents feel that their involvement in decision-making will improve their attitude and commitment to the school (Table 12, Item 2). These results clearly indicate the effect of involvement in decision-making on teachers' motivation, and the effect of principals on teacher motivation by the decision-making factor.

The majority of teachers, like all people, desire to possess decision-making power and teaching, as their occupation, is a source of power for them (Routa, 1991). Decision-making power is considered an important factor in what the teachers consider extrinsically rewarding and the literature reviewed shows that teachers value such power. The opportunities to be involved in the decision-making process and to develop a sense of ownership over teaching is a great motivator for teachers as the data reveal. Thus, the more opportunities that teachers have to be involved in decision-making, the more motivated they will be. Therefore, principals should encourage their staff to take charge, to become involved in the decision-making process, to move with an idea and to develop it as far as they can. In their role as principals, they should give support, provide space, remove barriers and celebrate successes.

Decision-making is a complex procedure (Everard and Morris, 1996). Despite its complexity, the participants consider the ability to participate in decision-making as a motivator (Table. 11. Item 11; Table 20, Item 14), and the involvement in the process of decision-making would boost their commitment to their work (Table 12, Item 2; Table 21, Item 2). Recognising the complexity of the decision-making process, the most successful approach to improving teacher involvement in the process is to provide a climate of trust and acceptance, and to encourage individuals to pursue their areas of interest and to make teachers feel more committed.

Decision-making is at the centre of administrative educational activity; the quality of the decisions can be considerably enhanced by participation of staff in the process (Sergiovanni, 1987). At all six schools, the survey's responses reveal that there is a lack of teacher involvement in the decision-making process. Some of the principals at the six schools are actually against any involvement of the teachers in decision-making (p. 140; T.1., p. 141).

The rewards of participation can motivate in many ways. For some, participation fulfills the need to belong (Duttweiler, 1986). The findings support Duttweiler's concept as there was a high positive response rate to the feeling of belonging to the school community (Table 10. Item 4; Table 19, Item 1). This may stem from the fact that a large number of staff get along with each other well (Table 10. Item 9; Table 19, Item 7). To solidify the feeling of belonging, principals of the six schools need to open the channels for teachers to become more involved in decisions, as a collegial atmosphere is very important for reducing teachers' feelings of isolation and for encouraging them to work effectively. As the literature review highlights, teachers who perceive themselves as being more involved in the decision-making process have a significantly higher level of job satisfaction. They want to influence school policy and be part of the school vision. They also recognise that participation in decision-making is motivating and that it is an avenue for professional growth.

Allowing teachers to make a meaningful contribution to the management of the school benefits both the school and the individual (Dimmock, 1993). The school, having tapped the capabilities of the teachers, has an additional resource for information, professional judgement and effort. In addition, each member of staff gains a deeper sense of responsibility and greater ownership of the school. Owens (1995, p. 189) argues that participation is both mental and emotional involvement, and imbues ownership of decisions.

This ownership of decisions relates to another factor in motivation to do with feeling part of an organisation. Owens (1995, p. 189) explains that "what distinguishes participation from consent ... [is] this sense of ownership [which] encourages people to accept greater responsibility for the organisation's effectiveness". In other words, people are not merely present but are injecting their own energy, creativity and initiative into the process. Some teachers who do not participate

in the decision-making activities of the school are less likely to feel they are part of the school (T.1., p. 140; T.2.; T.1., p.141). This is certainly the case for some respondents from both the Australian and Lebanese groups. Therefore, the decision-making process is one of many strategies the principal may use to influence teacher motivation as the results have shown.

In summary, the data indicate that the principals of the six schools need to share power with teachers and increase the teachers' ownership and sense of control over decisions made within the schools. This sense of ownership will lead to commitment to their jobs and schools. Thus, the principals need to find a way to assist the teachers who may have negative feelings about the time and energy involved in being part of the decision-making process. They can do this by providing support, removing barriers and generally encouraging teachers to develop their ideas as far as they can. All of this can be achieved by creating a climate of trust and acceptance where teachers feel free to express their ideas and to inject their creativity and energy into the decision-making process.

Recognition

Principals need a leadership style that shows evidence of confidence in the teachers' ability to plan and perform educationally. They also need to recognise the teachers' potential worth and contributions to the organisation. The more they demonstrate collegial relationships, the more the teachers perceive them as professional mentors (Roy, 1995).

Forty-nine per cent of the Australian group feel that they receive some form of recognition for positive contributions made in their classroom (Table 12, Item 5), while 86% of the Lebanese group feel that they receive recognition for positive contributions made in their classroom (Table 21, Item 5). However, only 34% of the Australian respondents are pleased with the amount of recognition received (Table 12, Item 6), while 56% of the Lebanese respondents are pleased with the amount of recognition they receive (Table 21, Item 6). The results, reported in Table 15, indicate the importance placed on recognition as a crucial motivational factor. From this, it can be argued that recognition is a relevant factor in positively influencing teacher motivation.

A comparison between the result reported in Figures 6, and 8 reveals that the perception of recognition as a motivating factor in terms of teaching is crucial for Lebanese respondents (mean = 3.28) as well as for Australian teachers (mean = 3.03). Lebanese teachers, however, are less satisfied with the recognition they receive. Their mean recognition satisfaction score is 2.6 compared to 3.26 for the Australian respondents. To keep teachers motivated, they should be rewarded according to the quality of their work (Mortimore, 1995). This is confirmed by the data obtained from both Australian and Lebanese groups.

Recognition is the motivator that influences the level of self-esteem (Maslow, 1954). The interview data reinforce Maslow's theory related to recognition. Participants consider recognition as a crucial factor in improving their self-esteem, which, when improved, increases their motivation (T.2., T.1., p. 142; T.1., T.3., p.143; T.4., T.1., T.2., pp. 180-181). Moreover, Table 12, Item 7, and Table 21, Item 7 show that the amount of recognition that the participants receive does affect their attitude and commitment towards their schools. From this, recognition seems an important factor in improving teacher motivation. Reflecting on the data related to recognition in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven, one can understand why for Maslow esteem is the second highest need on the hierarchy of needs just below self-actualisation.

Being recognised for accomplishments is crucial to teachers' motivation (Fox, 1986). However, a number of teachers interviewed speak about the lack of recognition for their extra work effort and how this affects their motivation to do more (T.1., p. 143; T.1., p.144). When the principals do not give teachers recognition, there is a far greater negative effect than there is a positive effect, and understandably teachers feel very strongly about its negative impact. The teachers say that most times a simple, but genuine, "thank you" would suffice. It is worth noting that the teachers who speak about recognition as positively affecting their work motivation are the same teachers who say that a lack of it negatively affects their motivation. The key is who does or does not give recognition and in what manner it is given. Rosenholtz (1991) supports this notion and also says that feelings of low motivation can cause a variety of negative behaviours. Thus, recognition for teachers' efforts must be an authentic response to the value of the teachers' work if it is to retain its benefit as a motivational factor.

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To be most effective, recognition must be face-to-face and directed towards a specific achievement (Fox, 1986). The form of recognition is up to the individual principal, for instance, certificates, letters of thanks, notes, and gifts. All roles in a school offer opportunities worthy of recognition, even the more simple virtues of reliability, dedication and consistency should be recognised. The data reveal that recognition need not wait for a truly outstanding accomplishment. The truly effective school is not achieved by continual, outstanding accomplishments, but by attention to the quality of the everyday routines (Reynolds, 1997). This concept was stressed by the qualitative data collected for this research regarding recognition as a motivational factor.

The more frequently teachers receive praise, the more likely they will be motivated (Silver 1982, p. 553). Table 19, Item 8 shows that 65% of the respondents are satisfied with the praise they get for doing a good job, and Table 10, Item 10 reveals 51% being satisfied when praised. Reflecting on data analysis related to recognition in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven, it appears that the teachers are highly motivated when receiving praise from their leaders. These results support Silver's statement.

In summary, recognition, as revealed in the data analysis, is needed to be frequently utilised by the principals at the six schools through acknowledgment and praise given in return for the efforts made by the teachers and the value of the contributions offered. Recognition is one of the most effective means principals have of bolstering teachers' self-esteem and hence increasing motivation as the data clearly show. It needs to be given genuinely in response to an authentic assessment of the teacher's effort, and does not need to be restricted to major achievements. The principals in this study need to also foster a professional environment where teachers are encouraged to recognise and praise each other's efforts and to feel a genuine sense of enthusiasm about their colleagues' contributions to the school's performance.

Personal Regard

Another theme threading through the questionnaire and interview data was that of personal regard. As the participants describe the characteristics of a motivated teacher, they emphasise

the importance of such gestures as trust, respect and sympathy, all factors which influence their life and improve their level of motivation (Table 20, Item 1).

Principals who make themselves available to staff and students have better relations with the school community and are better able to motivate them towards the goals of the school (Sergiovanni, 1987). A noticeable finding of the survey is that some teachers perceive a lack of trust from the principal. This is highlighted by comments made by Yellow schoolteachers in the interviews (p. 145). This problem of lack of trust can be overcome by creating an organisational vision, articulating clear expectations and putting trust in the making of decisions consistent with the vision.

Equality of treatment was another vexed issue in the questionnaire. Table 20, Item 13 shows that 68% of the respondents are motivated because of the sense of equality they perceive among all staff. This result is also highlighted by the interview data where the importance of equality among teachers in affecting teacher motivation is stressed (T.4., p. 177). Thus, it can be argued that staff may feel more content in such a working climate where everyone is treated equally, and this may affect their personal regard as well as their motivation. Therefore, principals need to distribute their time equally amongst all staff members, as spending an inordinate amount of time with a small segment of the staff would have an adverse effect on the level of motivation.

Fostering a positive climate and morale is one of the major tasks of a motivator in an educational setting (Turney et al., 1992, p. 221). The questionnaire results and interview data, on the contrary, reveal a feeling of negativity or a low level of satisfaction from the staff at some schools (Comments made by a Yellow school teacher p.125). From this, it can be argued that when teachers can free their minds from an unacceptable level of negative feelings, they can be creative and innovative, receptive to change and able to recognise opportunities that will lead to further enhanced motivation. Reflecting on data collected from the interview (T.2., T.1., T.1., T.4., p.146; T.2., p. 177), the argument is raised that sustaining positive attitudes in staff greatly assists with the maintenance of confidence and good morale in the educational setting. When

the principal demonstrates enthusiasm and a positive attitude, then the level of morale and personal regard among the staff will increase.

Interestingly, the data analysis shows that both Australian and Lebanese groups feel that personal regard is the most important motivator for teachers. Personal regard in the present study is found to be significantly more motivating than the other factors, the means for the Australian group being 3.80 (Figure 6), and for the Lebanese group 3.49 (Figure 8). Regarding satisfaction levels, there is a significant difference between the two groups, the mean being 3.71 (Figure 6) for Australian respondents compared to 2.95 (Figure 8) for the Lebanese respondents. This low rating of satisfaction for the Lebanese group may be explained as being the result of the 17 years of violence and war experienced by the country. Under such conditions, people lose sensitivity to others and a kind of selfishness and personal toughness emerge. This may explain why the Lebanese respondents are not very satisfied with the level of personal regard received from their principals.

Personal regard, according to the data analysis, contributes to teacher motivation. Teachers' responses show clearly that in human relationships, when each person values the other and when the talents and opinions of others are respected, this would boost teacher morale and motivation (Table 9, Items 2 and 5; Table 20, Items 1 and 16; T.1., T.2., T.1. and T.4., p. 146; T.2., T.4., T.2., and T.4., p. 177). Therefore, the leaders must stand as developers of human relationships, directing much of their energy towards the building of relationships, inspiring trust and unleashing the power of human resources within the school. These findings support the work of Hughes 1994 on the principal as leader.

Briefly, personal regard according to the data analysis involves the six school principals earning the respect of teachers and in turn respecting the professional capabilities of their teachers. It also involves their building a climate of trust in the organisation in which teachers know that if they make decisions consistent with the mission and goals espoused by the principals, as leaders within that organisation, they can expect support. The principals need to show genuine care about their teachers, and to be available for staff to discuss their needs and ideas. They need to be in touch with the human needs of staff including aspects of their personal life, if necessary, that may be affecting their work. Thus, the principals need to treat their teachers equally with trust and respect, ensuring that favouritism, undue personal involvement and familiarity do not influence the allocation of work, time, resources and opportunities between members of staff.

Teamwork

Teamwork has strong influences upon the feelings and behaviours of constituent members (Reich, 1987). The responses to the survey reveal that there is a considerable amount of teamwork at the six schools in the survey (Table 10, Item 9; Table 11, Item 5; pp. 172-173). Individuals may desire the ability to act independently, but there is always the equally forceful desire to affiliate with others. This needs to be with people and to be accepted by them means that the individual can be willing and even anxious to give up autonomy to achieve that acceptance (Stewart and Manz, 1995).

The data reveal that the Australian respondents find working in a team (mean = 3.60, Figure 6) to be significantly more motivating than Lebanese respondents consider it to be (mean = 3.26; Figure 8). Respondents highlight the advantages of teamwork as a possible enhancer of teacher motivation (Table 21, Item 11). On the other hand, there is not much difference between the two groups in terms of satisfaction with current levels of teamwork (the Australian group's mean is 3.33, Figure, 13, compared to the Lebanese group's mean of 3.04, Figure 8).

Teamwork is important for staff (Evans, 1998). The data indicate that principals need to provide a working environment in which teachers feel they are members of a large purposeful group and also members of smaller task-oriented teams, for teachers' levels of motivation to increase (T.1., T.2., p. 174). In education, as can be seen in qualitative data (T.2., T.1., T.2., T.1., pp. 148-149; T.1., T.2., t.4., T.3. p. 174) the collegial atmosphere, with a sense of purpose and direction, is vital to drawing forth the best performances. Some teachers assert that teamwork provides a means for reducing isolation, sharing teaching tips and offering instructional strategies (p. 148). It offers opportunities for teachers to learn from one another and from the principal and vice versa (T.3., p. 174; T.1., p. 149).

Communication within the team emerges as a remarkable theme in the data collected. It is the basis for all human interaction. The existence and functioning of teamwork or an organisation depends on communication and on exchanging and managing information (Turney et al. 1992). The aspects of communication that impact on motivation are effective listening skills, sharing of information, fostering a working environment that is conducive to open discussion and articulating a vision and goals. Table 13, Item 4 shows that when principals spend time to listen to their teachers, it is appreciated by a great percentage of the participants. From this result, one can see the effect of principals who listen to their teachers, as it makes them feel more content and relaxed and boosts their self-esteem (T.2., p. 148; T.1., p. 149; T.2., p. 174). Consequently, motivation would be affected by the sharing of information within the team, and by working together in a friendly climate (Table 11, Item 6) that the principals need to facilitate in their schools.

A team leader is crucial in stimulating team members (Grier, 1996). The results reported in Table 13, Item 2 shows that the three principals of the three Australian schools are not such good team leaders. On the other hand the results reported in Table 22, Item 4 show that the principals of the three Lebanese schools are better team players. Interestingly, a highly significant correlation was found between the principal style and teamwork in the three Lebanese schools, r= 0.393 (p= 0.001). This strong correlation indicates that the higher the score of the principal style questionnaire, the higher the motivational effect of teamwork. This highlights the potential effect of principal style on teacher motivation through the utilisation of teamwork.

From the synthesis of survey responses, it is suggested that teamwork and communication in the school environment are enhanced by developing, articulating and modelling clear and consistent educational goals, then facilitating the expression of opinions on changes that affect the staff.

Reflecting on the previous data analysis, teamwork strategies are needed by the six school principals in order to create the expectation in their teachers that they are working towards a set of common goals, as a purposeful group with tasks, roles and shared responsibilities. The principals need to encourage the sharing of information, skills and knowledge, and include members of the staff in planning, executing and evaluating tasks as a group. Therefore, the

principals need to ensure that participation of all team members, the creative combining of the interest of the team members while always ensuring that the objectives of the project are being worked towards or realised. For this, the principals need to consult with team members, to understand the dynamics of the group and resolve any conflicts so that the cooperation and commitment of the team members are gained.

School restructuring

School restructuring or school change is a necessary route on the journey towards growth (Harris et al., 1998). Lebanese respondents highlight the importance of change as the result shows. Moreover, they stress the necessity of change for tackling the war mentality among students and to help the country to catch up with modern educational movements in the world (pp. 177–178). This route is driven by hope and a visionary perspective as far as the purpose of it is transparent. The key is to learn how to manage it skillfully and how to have it work *for* the organisation rather than *against* it (Fullan, 1993).

"Change for the sake of change will not help" (Fullan 1993, p.15). The Lebanese teachers, in the three schools surveyed, have a positive mentality with regard to restructuring, as 79% (Table 20, Item 17) of the respondents believe the restructuring of educational programs and school structure is a source of motivation to them. Therefore, the three Lebanese principals in the study need to make a strong effort to involve teachers in the change process and to make a strong commitment to accomplish new goals and a readiness to replace existing structures and programs with better ones. They need to develop and maintain an ethos of innovation in order to keep teachers willing to continue on the journey towards growth during the process of change.

Change, rebuilding and restructuring are all very real concepts in Lebanon, yet much work needs to be done at the school level. Indeed, 83% (Table 21, Item 13) of the respondents feel that the restructuring of schools will improve their attitudes towards teaching. This indicates that the staff recognise the need for change, for the individual and for the common good.

A major challenge is to keep the school vision and mission in the minds of all staff so that teachers do not get lost in feelings of isolation and meaninglessness. Maintaining an awareness of the bigger picture is what enables the staff to reflect realistically on the changes taking place and to discern what is best for the school (Simpkins et al., 1987). Some of the Lebanese teachers surveyed are concerned about the feelings of isolation confronting them resulting from not being asked for their opinions (p. 178). All of this, they believe, hinders their contributing to the reform process.

Timing is a vital aspect of the restructuring process (Fullan, 1993). On the one hand, in the three Lebanese schools, some teachers expressed their concern about the pace of reform (p. 178). Taking into consideration the teachers' concern, the three Lebanese principals need to have a very clear time frame within which the process of change can occur, so as not to urge things through too quickly. Considerable time and sensitivity are needed for the staff to commit to any change if it is to become a meaningful process for teachers. This makes the change purposeful and encourages staff to work actively towards it. On the other hand, in the three Australian schools, teachers want the changes to occur quickly, with the hope that new blood in the power position will improve the overall educational situation in the schools. The teachers are showing concern at being under those principals who lack of adequate qualifications and experiences in education, and who are not capable of making changes in order to improve the students' academic outcomes or to enhance teacher morale and motivation (pp. 135-137). What is critical, is to create an environment in which change can occur naturally and gradually, not an environment where people are forced into it.

Principals within the school setting need to facilitate and enable the change process by encouraging a strong collegial atmosphere of trust and by developing a visionary focus towards personal and organisational goals (Dalin, 1998). The principals of the six schools surveyed as shown earlier in the section on the principal's leadership style in this chapter are unable to provide the conditions necessary for such a change because of their lack of knowledge in the educational field. In addition, the frustration level is high amongst the Australian respondents because of the language barrier and the inability of the principals to understand curriculum

matters, or even the culture of the country. Therefore, how can such principals be key factors in facilitating change in this case?

Reflecting on the previous data analysis, the role of principals in the study is crucial in helping teachers to embrace change and to consider it as desirable. It is also critical for establishing a suitable milieu where change can be implemented successfully. Principals need to promote a sense of security amid change by articulating the organisation's mission and goals, providing staff with the means to create new circumstances, supporting the ideas, proposals and strategies developed by the staff and helping staff to overcome the problems and challenges involved in the change process. Participants change willingly when they perceive themselves as doing things rather than as having things done to them; when they are encouraged, and supported to contribute to the reform and reaffirmed; and most importantly, when their principals are guiding them steadfastly and ensuring their awareness of the importance of changes (Table 22, Item 9). This supports Maslow's theory of the need for structure in the second level of his hierarchy of motivation, that is, the need for 'safety and security'.

Restructuring a school organisation or making appropriate changes calls for a good rapport between the principal and teachers, especially during the beginning stages. All staff concerned need support during change. More importantly restructuring increases the need for schools to be led by principals who understand how to create quality changes and also how to clarify the purposes of changes. The Lebanese principals need to obtain the resources required to maintain and manage the new structure and reform in order to help their teachers to tackle any confusion during the restructuring journey. This in turn motivates the teachers to welcome, support and implement the changes successfully.

Professional growth

With schools changing rapidly, greater importance needs to be placed on the area of professional growth for teachers (Spencer, 1988). Professional growth activities should focus on the dimension of change, especially since it is a part of the teaching-learning process that cannot

be avoided. They also need to be provided to enable teachers to gain the skills and knowledge necessary to effectively carry out their duties.

Professional growth activities should cater for the needs of teachers as individuals and adult learners as well as to teaching needs (Hughes, 1991). Those responsible for professional growth activities should recognise that teachers have their expectations and concerns that need to be understood if involvement in any activity is to promote professional growth. This is what the principals in the six schools surveyed need to appreciate.

The encouragement of professional growth is a crucial teaching condition. It is regarded by Herzberg (1959) as a higher level motivator. The data analysis of Item 3 (Table 12) shows that a small majority of Australian respondents (51%) believe their principals offer them the activities needed for such professional growth. Also a small majority of Lebanese respondents (54%) are satisfied with the amount of professional activities available (Table 19, Item 18). Based on this, it can be argued that an understanding of the nature and process of professional growth activities is essential for any person in a leadership role in education, in particular for principals of the six schools surveyed. This is especially true because participants expressed the importance of professional growth in their career to improve their skills and attitudes (T.2., p, 150; T.3. T.2., T.3., p. 151; T.3., p. 182; T.4., p. 183). Therefore it can be said that one of many primary areas that the educational leader needs to pay attention to is staff development.

Reflecting on the teachers' survey responses, it is not surprising to find that teachers are willing and keen to participate in meaningful activities that improve their professional practice (T.2., p.150; T.2., p. 151). Teachers ask for more in-services and workshops (T.1., p. 183; T.1., p. 151). The Australian participants are more satisfied with the quality of professional activities offered to them (mean = 3.11, Figure 6) than the Lebanese participants (mean = 2.42, Figure 8). The problem facing Lebanese schools is twofold: first, there are not many in-services available (p.182) ; and second, schools are having difficulties in finding such in-services and/ or sending teachers to lectures or seminars (p. 182). This is especially true for private schools which are not financially supported by the government (Appendix 7).

Yet, 88% (Table 21, Item 14) of the Lebanese respondents feel that their participation in inservices improves their attitude and motivation. Lebanese teachers see involvement in professional growth activities as crucial for improving their professionalism, keeping them up-todate, enhancing their self-esteem and providing opportunities for them to influence their own work environment by exchanging information and experiences.

The Australian respondents also emphasise the need for more opportunities for professional growth and more innovative in-services. They stress the benefits of attending in-services and the positive effects that this has on their understanding of educational issues. As one teacher said, *"if you feel up to date with things and you are changing as a teacher, you'll be more motivated"* (T.2., p. 151).

The importance of professional growth activities is valued highly by both groups of teachers. Teachers show a strong preference for a variety of professional growth activities and value highly visits to other schools, attending conferences and in-services. However, professional growth activities need to be attractive for teachers which means offering them topics they are interested in. Some teachers (T.2., p. 150, T.1., p. 183) emphasise the importance of the content of any inservices. If they are not of interest to the teacher, they find them a waste of time.

It can be seen through the data analysis that professional growth activities for the participants means the development of individual knowledge and technical expertise, comprehension and awareness, and the understanding of relevant developments in education. The six school principals in the study cannot push their teachers to develop professionally, but they can ensure that every opportunity is taken to encourage the professionalism of their staff members. The data analysis highlights the importance of the professional growth activities for high quality schooling. Thus, professional growth activities can be seen as a process and a resource upon which teachers are able to build their present and future careers. At the same time, principals, who are held accountable for the performance of their schools, have a powerful incentive to foster the professional development of the teaching staff.

It is crucial for the principals in this study when designing any staff development activities to consider time, and to consider the content and the mechanisms for operating the teachers'

professional growth activities. As the literature review revealed there are many professional growth activities that principals can take advantage of such as: workshops, further university study, observations of other teachers, participation in visits to other schools, reading of professional books and journals, supervising other staff and being supervised, and participation in research projects.

In brief, teachers in this study need to be provided with ample opportunity to attend professional development sessions, conferences and visit other schools. Giving them the opportunity to grow professionally is one of the first steps towards making significant changes in the school surveyed and helping teachers feel motivated. Attending staff development sessions — that the teachers have expressed an interest in order to meet their students' needs as well as their own needs and interests — increases not only the quality of the teachers' skills, but also their feelings of motivation. Thus, the principals of the six schools surveyed should first and foremost be good role models for teachers and put in place mentor relationships within the organisation. They also need to be in touch with opportunities for in-services and workshops and other training courses that could be used to enhance motivation. All these staff development opportunities could be advertised throughout the school so that everyone is informed. Therefore, the principals become the key persons to set in place the intellectual milieu in which striving for knowledge and professional development is a high priority for everyone.

The results of this study help principals to better understand how their leadership styles impact on teachers motivation. This study also identifies important traits that are needed by principals who can enhance teacher motivation and student achievement and who can also create an encouraging educational environment.

To sum up, it can be concluded that this research into the major factors affecting teacher motivation shows that a principal's leadership style is crucial for affecting positively or negatively teacher motivation, because it is the most important channel and means by which motivation can be improved in the school setting. Thus, an appropriate principal style will allow the other factors in motivation to operate effectively and to contribute to the overall performance of the school.

It is important to note that one of the most powerful findings of this research is that the students are the most significant motivator for the teachers who participated in this study. Eighty per cent (Table 12, Item 9) of the Australian participants declared that pupils are the main motivator in their job. And 88 % (Table 11, Item 12) of participants are motivated by the satisfaction received from working with students. Similarly, 94% (Table 21, Item 9) of the Lebanese teachers participants asserted that the pupils are the main motivator in their job. And 98% (Table 20, Item 5) of participants are motivated by the satisfaction received from working with students. This student factor, however, is not significantly correlated with the principal's style. Nevertheless, the data highly stress the importance of the students in boosting teacher motivation.

Conclusions to be drawn from the research

One of the most powerful messages in this study is the need for adequately educated principals with a clear vision and motivational and educative style to lead the teachers on their educational journey. It also revealed the direct and indirect existence of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and their self-esteem and performance. This reinforces the validity of several assumptions. Assumption 1: *that an appropriate leadership style is indispensable for motivating teachers*.

One of the major conclusions of the research is that none of the theories of work motivation are able to address all of the factors which influence the work motivation of teachers. Consequently, no master theory has been established. Nevertheless, Maslow's needs theory, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Locke's goal-setting theory remain the most cited theories taking a psychological approach to job satisfaction. Motivation theories individually address only one aspect of the problem. Collectively, they are able to offer a broader understanding of work motivation.

Given the centrality of the many factors that play a role in determining teacher motivation, the utilisation of a plethora of approaches would be of particular relevance to the work motivation of teachers. This conclusion reinforces Assumption 2: that teacher motivation is an important concept in the schools in the study, and therefore, there is a need to better explore it.

Another major conclusion is that motivational theory is not widely used or well understood by the six principals based on the data collected from teachers. This conclusion does not support Assumption 3: that the principals in the schools in the study consciously employ strategies to motivate teachers.

The study asserts that there is some effect of the principals' leadership style on teacher motivation, as the teachers are influenced by the principal leadership style itself and the methods or strategies that are used by the principals as the data clearly revealed. This influence can largely affect teacher self-esteem, self-worth, self-efficacy, performance, personal commitment to the schools' mission, a willingness to make sacrifices for the organisational goals and future and consequently their own motivation. Therefore, the techniques that principals use to affect staff motivation and commitment should relate to an overriding concern to meet teacher needs. Much of the literature on teacher motivation emphasises that teachers value the style of leaders and are motivated by many different factors. A great deal of research has been carried out on which factors are most effective in motivating teachers.

Opportunities for achievement, opportunities for professional growth and advancement and recognition for a job well done were identified by Dodd (1986) as important motivational strategies for teachers. This study affirms the existence of seven principles related to teacher motivation. The theories of motivation hold that teachers will be motivated by recognition, sharing in decision-making, belonging to a team, leadership style, restructuring or change, professional growth, and human relationships. Each of these principles increases the possibility of teachers achieving their own goals as well as organisational goals and improving their motivation. This study affirms that these factors are central motivators for teachers, and by them, the principals can influence their teacher motivation as revealed earlier in this chapter.

In addition, this study asserts that principals need a leadership style that shows evidence of confidence in the teachers' ability to plan and make decisions. The leaders also need to recognise the teachers' potential worth and contributions within the organisation. The more principals demonstrate a collegial relationship with the staff, the more the teachers perceive them as professional mentors. Therefore, and as a reflection on data analysed in of this study, the principals of these six schools need to work on their own leadership style as well as on methods to promote the improvement of teacher motivation.

The Effects of the Principal's Leadership Style on Teacher Motivation:

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To sum up, the purpose of this study is to determine the effects of the principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and to identify motivational strategies. From the literature reviewed it can be concluded that, transformational and educative leadership styles have been suggested as the most successful leadership styles. To be an effective transformational and educative leader, the six principals in this study need to involve their teachers in the decision-making process, enhance teamwork, develop professional growth activities, encourage restructuring, show genuine recognition and personal regard in order to create an effective schools. Such as relationship between principals and their teachers highlights the sophisticated follower-centric perspective of leadership.

As a result of this study, the ideal leadership style in an educational setting can be defined as the most motivational and educative way for a principal to handle an educational environment in the school that is constantly undergoing change.

From the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that the teachers of the six schools in the study prefer to have educative leaders. This conclusion is compatible with the information cited in the literature reviewed, which highlights that educative leaders play an obvious and direct role in enhancing teacher motivation.

To be effective according to the result of this study, all leaders must develop a basic understanding of human motivation as it relates to their organisation. As it is a complex issue, an appreciation of the theoretical foundations of motivation would enable those responsible for motivating performance in others to focus on the most effective strategies as individuals respond differently to different motivational strategies based upon their experiences, the work environment and the situation they are in at the time.

The findings of this study support what Maslow's theory indicates, a school administrator who does not provide a working environment in which staff have a sense of belonging to a team or group will not be able to motivate staff to perform at the higher levels of motivational needs, like being creative or self-fulfilled. It also reinforces Herzberg's theory that further refines the structures of motivation so that a leader can differentiate between those factors which actually motivate such as recognition, advancement, responsibility, personal growth, creativity and

challenge, from those factors which are necessary for people to be motivated but are not in themselves motivational, that is, working conditions, status, personal life and salary.

It also can concluded that the value of any motivational strategy is the positive impact that increased performance will have on academic achievement and teacher-student relationships. Fostering positive regard will increase empathy among the staff members in addition to creating a more co-operative environment for accepting advice, program development or policy directions.

Moreover, this study revealed that effective teamwork decreases the feeling of inequality and uncertainty among staff members. It is crucial to the other important factors in motivation like recognition and participation in decision-making. If the level of communication within a team at the school is poor or almost non-existent, then it is unlikely that the staff will be motivated enough to perform let alone to make the extra effort required for achieving success. Meaningful recognition increases a teacher's instructional performance and the amount of physical energy expended in preparing for the teaching process. Increasing the amount of participation in the decision-making process improves the system as a whole. It helps the individual teacher identify and confront issues and provides a wider pool of talent and resources for solving problems.

During the journey of the study, it became apparent that further research needs to be carried out in two areas not elaborated in any depth in this thesis. These two areas are: (1) All the aspects of the effects of school restructuring on teacher motivation, given that restructuring is a relatively recent event in educational settings and there has been a short time-frame in which to build up knowledge about the topic. The types and pace of change can have effects on teachers' motivation. (2) All aspects of the effects of changes to students' needs, expectations and outcomes on teacher motivation, given that, in contemporary society, teachers are being given the role of social and vocational educators as well as academic educators. In some respects, teachers are the scapegoats for social and economic problems which they do not generate and are powerless to control. This may affect their motivation.

Also, in this thesis, I have argued that motivation is such an important issue for successful management, administration and effective schools in today's rapidly changing and highly competitive society, that it cannot just be utilised by the lucky few who happen to be natural

motivators. It is a professional skill that must become part of the management techniques of the educational leader. Hence, educational leaders must foster effective teamwork and good human relations, recognise good teaching, define educational goals and articulate them clearly to the school community, and involve teachers in professional growth activities, planning and decision-making.

Finally, the study conducted at these six schools reveals that there are some problems with staff motivation. If the principals at these schools are to be successful in achieving excellence and creating effective schools, then the characteristics of motivational strategies identified in the data must become the criteria for evaluating school policies and administration practices. Motivation and commitment are enhanced when professionals are in charge of their practice, have ownership of school affairs and find teaching and school activities to be rewarding experiences.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1



The University of Sydney The Division of Graduate Studies Faculty of Education Sydney, New South Wales 2006

SUBJECT INFORMATION STATEMENT

I am currently conducting a research project about "The Effects of Leadership Style on Teacher Motivation" at the University of Sydney.

Understanding motivation is very important for school administrators because it is their role to energise, direct and sustain the activities of the school executives, teachers, support staff and students in the organisational setting of the school. This group of people needs the appropriate climate in which to undertake the school mission and to achieve the school goals and tasks.

The primary aim of this research is to examine the importance of motivation for school administrators and staff to identify the motivational strategies, if any, being used.

I am requesting that you complete the enclosed questionnaire. However, please be aware that your co-operation in completing this questionnaire is completely voluntary. You may refuse to answer any questions you feel are inappropriate or withdraw your participation at any time. Furthermore, to maintain confidentiality, do not place your name or the name of your school on any of the printed material or the envelope.

Upon completing your questionnaire, slip the questionnaire into the envelope provided and seal. Then return or post the envelope to me.

Realising how busy you are, I would very much appreciate your co-operation in answering this questionnaire. Your answers will be treated in confidentiality. If you have any comments or questions, please do not hesitate to call me on 9750 6000 or my supervisor, Dr Kevin Laws, on 9351 6396.

Should you find it necessary to make a complaint about the conduct of this research project, contact:

Ms Gail Briody Executive Officer Ethics Committee Sydney University Telephone: 9351 4811

Your participation is much appreciated.

Kindest regards

Joseph Wakim

Motivational Project

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4.

MOTIVATIONAL PROJECT

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Gender:

Type of t

Number

Age grou

1. How many years have you been teaching at your current school? (Please tick)

	1-2	
	3-4	
	5-7	
	8 - over	
	Male	
	Female	
each	ner:	
	Primary	
	Secondary	
of ye	ears teaching under the	his principal?
	1-2	
	3-4	les big of my
	5 - over	
ıp:		
	20 - 25 years	

26	- 30 years	
	-	

31 - 41 years

42 - over

5. What level of education have you completed? (Qualifications)

- 1. Please rate the following statements in terms of how well they describe how you feel. Rate each statement on the scale given below by circling the appropriate number.
 - 1 = Strongly agree 2 = Agree 3 = Undecided 4 = Disagree
 - 5 = Strong disagree

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1.	I function in a professional environment	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I believe that I have earned respect	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I make decisions about the implementation of new programs in the school	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am treated as a professional	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I have the opportunity for professional growth	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I have the respect of my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I work at a school where kids come first	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I perceive that I am making a difference	1	2	3	4	5
9.	My principal solicits my advice	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Teachers and school personnel solicit my advice	. 1	2	3	4	5
11.	I feel content under the leadership of my principal	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I support the principal because I feel he/she would support me	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I really like working in this school	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I believe most other people really like working in this school	1	2	3	4	5

A = Very satisfied

2. The purpose of this question is to give you a chance to tell how you feel about your present job. On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to get a better understanding of the things people like and dislike about their jobs.

In my present job, this is how I feel about . . . (draw a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected).

BCDE	 Satisfied Undecided Dissatisfied Very dissatisfied 					
1.	Being able to keep busy all the time	Α	в	С	D	Е
2.	The chance to work alone on the job	Α	в	С	D	E
3.	The chance to do different things from time to time	A	в	С	D	E
4.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community	А	в	С	D	E
5.	The way my boss handles his/her workers	Α	В	С	D	E
6.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	Α	в	С	D	E
7.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	A	в	С	D	E
8.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	A	в	С	D	E
9.	The way school policies are put into practice	A	В	С	D	E
10.	My pay and the amount of work I do	Α	в	С	D	E
11.	The freedom to use my own judgement	Α	В	С	D	E
12.	The working conditions	A	в	С	D	E
13.	The way my co-workers get along with each other	Α	в	С	D	E
14.	The praise I get for doing a good job	A	в	С	D	E
15.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	A	в	С	D	E

SA =

A

U

D

=

=

=

Strongly agree

Agree

Undecided

Disagree

3. The following items are designed to provide information about teacher motivation. Please complete this question as carefully and frankly as possible. Remember there are no right or wrong answers. It is your perception and honest opinion in which I am most interested.

Circle the response which most describes your opinion regarding the following statements.

SD	= Strongly disagree					
1.	I am encouraged by the principal to participate in the decision-making process in this school	SA	А	U	D	SD
2.	Regular staff meetings and/or grade level meetings are held in this school and all					
	teachers are able to participate in the decision- making process	SA	A	υ.	D	SD
3.	Administrators makes most of the decisions in					
5.	this school, with little or no input from teachers.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.	Administrators encourage staff collaboration					
	on educational projects by providing time and resources	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.	Teachers in this school work together harmoniously	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	Conversation amongst staff members frequently focuses on professional issues related to teaching	SA	A	U	D	SD
7.	I am motivated as a teacher by the knowledge that I am empowered to make job-related decisions	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.	I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with students	SA	A	U	D	SD
9.	I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with my colleagues	SA	A	U	D	SD

Page 4

10.	I am motivated in teaching by the recognition I receive from administrators	SA	A	U	D	SD
11.	I am motivated in teaching because I believe I make a difference in the lives of my students	SA	A	U	D	SD
12.	I am motivated in teaching because I participate in the decision-making process in this school	SA	A	U	D	SD
13.	I am motivated in teaching because administrators make most of the decisions in this school	SA	A	U	D	SD
14.	I am motivated in teaching because of the collegiality or sense of equality I experience amongst all staff members	SA	A	U	D	SD
15.	Being able to participate in the decision- making process is a source of motivation in my teaching	SA	A	U	D	SD
16.	I am motivated in teaching because I feel I have control over what takes place in my classroom	SA	A	U	D	SD

disher lifeas have forced me to rethink some of my own deps which I had never questioned before

Spends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)

incourages me to express my ideas and opinions

Motivates me to do more than I originally expected I could

Encourages understanding of points of view of othe

Makes everyone around him/her enthusiautic about task be completed

Finds time to listan to me.

Looks out for the cemonal welfare of indivi-

Melotalos estados alsocienda of performance

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Motivational Project

PRINCIPAL STYLE

The following list of items may be used to describe the behaviour of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behaviour but does not ask you to judge whether the behaviour is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behaviour of your principal. You are not asked to identify yourself or your principal.

Circle one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

- A = Always
- O = Often
- S = Sometimes
- R = Rarely
- N = Never

Makes me feel ready to sacrifice my own self-interests for the good of the group	A	0	s	R	Ν
Finds out what I want and tries to help me get it	Α	0	S	R	Ν
Is a model for me to follow	Α	0	S	R	N
Is a good team player	Α	0	S	R	N
Is an inspiration to us	Α	0	S	R	Ν
Makes me proud to be associated with him/her	Α	0	S	R	Ν
His/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned before	A	0	S	R	N
Spends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)	A	0	s	R	N
Encourages me to express my ideas and opinions	А	0	S	R	Ν
Motivates me to do more than I originally expected I could do	Α	0	S	R	Ν
Encourages understanding of points of view of others	А	0	s	R	Ν
Makes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about tasks to be completed	A	0	S	R	N
Finds time to listen to me	Α	0	S	R	N
Looks out for the personal welfare of individuals	Α	0	S	R	N
Maintains definite standards of performance	А	0	s	R	Ν
	 the good of the group Finds out what I want and tries to help me get it Is a model for me to follow Is a good team player Is an inspiration to us Makes me proud to be associated with him/her His/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned before Spends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision) Encourages me to express my ideas and opinions Motivates me to do more than I originally expected I could do Encourages understanding of points of view of others Makes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about tasks to be completed Finds time to listen to me Looks out for the personal welfare of individuals 	the good of the groupAFinds out what I want and tries to help me get itAIs a model for me to followAIs a good team playerAIs an inspiration to usAMakes me proud to be associated with him/herAHis/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned beforeASpends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)AEncourages me to express my ideas and opinionsAMotivates me to do more than I originally expected I could do be completedAFinds time to listen to meALooks out for the personal welfare of individualsA	the good of the groupAOFinds out what I want and tries to help me get itAOIs a model for me to followAOIs a good team playerAOIs an inspiration to usAOMakes me proud to be associated with him/herAOHis/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned beforeAOSpends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)AOEncourages me to express my ideas and opinionsAOMakes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about tasks to be completedAOFinds time to listen to meAOLooks out for the personal welfare of individualsAO	the good of the groupAOSFinds out what I want and tries to help me get itAOSIs a model for me to followAOSIs a good team playerAOSIs an inspiration to usAOSMakes me proud to be associated with him/herAOSHis/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned beforeAOSSpends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)AOSEncourages me to express my ideas and opinionsAOSMotivates me to do more than I originally expected I could doAOSMakes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about tasks to be completedAOSFinds time to listen to meAOSLooks out for the personal welfare of individualsAOS	the good of the groupAOSRFinds out what I want and tries to help me get itAOSRIs a model for me to followAOSRIs a good team playerAOSRIs an inspiration to usAOSRMakes me proud to be associated with him/herAOSRHis/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned beforeAOSRSpends time talking about the purpose of our organisation (vision)AOSREncourages me to express my ideas and opinionsAOSRMakes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about tasks to be completedAOSRFinds time to listen to meAOSRLooks out for the personal welfare of individualsAOSR

Motivational	Project
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PRINCIPAL STYLE

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			-	-	-	
16.	Keeps the school informed	A	0	S	R	N
17.	Is willing to make changes	Α	0	S	R	Ν
18.	Lets school members know what is expected of them	А	0	S	R	Ν
19.	Keeps the school working together as a team	Α	0	S	R	N
20.	Is available for assistance when needed	A	0	S	R	N
21.	Seeks opinions concerning issues	A	0	S	R	N
22.	Is protected from disruption	Α	0	S	R	N
23.	Conducts meetings efficiently	A	0	S	R	N
24.	Communicates openly and frankly with staff members and students	A	0	s	R	N

is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?

GENERAL QUESTIONS

Please circle the appropriate answer.

Does your principal involve you in the decision making process at your school?	Yes	No	
Do you feel your involvement in the decision making process at your school will improve your attitude and commitment to your school?	Yes	No	
Does your administration offer you professional growth activities?	Yes	No	
Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you?	Yes	No	
Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your classroom?	Yes	No	
Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from your administration for the job you do?	Yes	No	
Do you feel the amount of recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?	Yes	No	
Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?	Yes	No	
Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job?	Yes	No	
Do you think you feel included in the life of the school?	Yes	No	
	 your school? Do you feel your involvement in the decision making process at your school will improve your attitude and commitment to your school? Does your administration offer you professional growth activities? Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you? Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your classroom? Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from your administration for the job you do? Do you feel the amount of recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school? Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work? Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job? 	your school?YesDo you feel your involvement in the decision making process at your school will improve your attitude and commitment to your school?YesDoes your administration offer you professional growth activities?YesDo you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you?YesAre you recognised for the positive job you do in your classroom?YesAre you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from your administration for the job you do?YesDo you feel the amount of recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?YesAre the principal the main motivator in your daily work?YesAre the children in your care the main motivators in your job?Yes	your school?YesNoDo you feel your involvement in the decision making process at your school will improve your attitude and commitment to your school?YesNoDoes your administration offer you professional growth activities?YesNoDo you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you?YesNoAre you recognised for the positive job you do in your classroom?YesNoAre you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from your administration for the job you do?YesNoDo you feel the amount of recognition you get for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?YesNoAre the children in your care the main motivators in your job?YesNo

What three Blings would you like to change in the school?

e'

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated in your work?

2. Can you identify problems with motivation in your current school staff?

2.1 What do you believe is the underlying reasons for this?

3. What three things would you like to change in the school?

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GENERAL QUESTIONS

4. Please list three things you dislike about your current school.

5. Please list three things you like the most about your current school.

Please allocher another page if you need more space

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Any additional comments	•		
PPENDICES			7 i.e
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and the second second			
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Contra Stand			
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			8 H
			APP

Please attached another page if you need more space.

Please post your response by <u>9 December 1996</u>.

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APPENDICES

Onar Participate

I this convertibly studying teacher contraction to schools in Australia and Lybures.

The first part of any mode involved the completion of a quality wire by true have from the schools in Sydney, Asstraira, followed by interviews with four inschort from such of the schools.

I with in deplicate the story in these schools in Laboratin string the surface reserves strategies.

I are excluding your applications in the project by requiring that you complete this operations and. You are included that this information, obtained will be required its 5 way which will secure the conditionsially and manymity of the individuality who performes and their primois.

R you while to septemb further information shout this reastroll preject please first from to contact me on 1873/458 / 3679/663, ht pry supervisor, Dr Kevin Leone, on 61/2 \$351 6399 in Australia.

Your participantes to make any vectored

Rinders Lagard

Parents Winters

لى المقر در لية القولة المانير لدنل والما سوالي، الإساراية ، موجوع الراسة كرتية القول الاسلالة الكثير، الكالد الترقية من السورة الأول يوحد في الماريين الارسار الإذار الكتي يوحد في الحارين الإلكية ، طريقة يمع الساريات كار من طري التاب الإسلالة والتراب مطاركت مع يحلبون

این البکر مسافعات این هاه الدراسان دن خلال نوریک علی هاه الاستراد. اسا این لاله الدیان فیطریات از الایویک مشطط بازیانهٔ میته و طبیعة القایه، قاریو، عمر قار

> اریکاد وسکاد افلسال بی طن رقم الوکان قطوری میدد ۱۹۳۶ تر ۱۹۳۹ میش د طی الافریسة فنکاری الآرن کری طی رقم توکان ۱۹۳۵ (۱۹۹۹ میشر

APPENDIX 2

Dear Participant.

I am currently studying teacher motivation in schools in Australia and Lebanon.

The first part of my study involved the completion of a questionnaire by teachers from three schools in Sydney, Australia, followed by interviews with four teachers from each of the schools.

I wish to duplicate the study in three schools in Lebanon using the same research strategies.

I am seeking your assistance in this project by requesting that you complete this questionnaire. You are assured that the information obtained will be reported in a way which will ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of the individuals who participate and their schools.

If you wish to obtain further information about this research project please feel free to contact me on 3873484 / 3679009, or my supervisor, Dr Kevin Laws, on 61 2 9351 6396 in Australia.

Your participation is much appreciated.

Kindest Regards

Joseph Wakim PhD candidate.

حضرة المعلم الكريم

اتي لحضر دراسة لشهادة الدكتوراه في جامعة سينني، اوستراليا. موضوع الدراسة كيفية تشجيع الاساتذة للتعليم. تتألف الدراسة من قسمين: الاول يبحث في المدارس الاوسترالية، والثاني يبحث في المدارس اللبنانية. طريقة جمع المعلومات تتم عن طريق استفتاء الاساتذة ولجراء مقابلات مع بعضهم

اتي اشكر مساهمتك في هذه الدراسة، من خلال لجويتك على هذه الاستمارة. كما قبي اؤكد لك بأن المطومات او الاجوية، ستحفظ بطريقة امينة وعلمية للغاية، فارجو عدم ذكر

اسمك او اسم مدرستك

لمزيد من المطومات يمكنك الاتصال بي على رقم الهاتف الخليوي 3873484 او 3679009 او 1879009 او والمشرف على الاطروحة الدكتور كفين لوز على رقم الهاتف 61293516396 مديدني

اوستراليا

الى اقدر لك مساهمتك

جوزاف واكيم

one ato no

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

 How many years have you been teaching at your current school? (Please tick) منذ كم سنة وانت تعلم في هذه المدرسة؟ (ضع علامة في المكان المناسب

	1 - 2 years سنة	Demetion about	Remember, il
	عنوات 3 - 4 years	and honest opin	
	منوات 5 - 7 years	ک مذر الاحلیل و التر کل ملة وحلق، و ال	
	وما فوق aver - 8		
			للجنس
	Male نکر]	
	Female انٹی] 34	
he	er: Dragte (D)		معلم
	Construction of the second second		

2. Gender:

3.

5.

6.

A

Kind of teacher:

ابتدائي Primary	
تكميلي Complementary	
ثانوي Secondary	

4. Number of years teaching under this principal? عدد السنوات التي عملت فيها مع مديرك؟

	1 - 2 years سنة		1.
	سنوات 3 - 4 years	net and heldenging and	
	وما فوق over - 5		
ge group:			فئة عمرك
	سنة 20 - 25 years		
	سنة 26 - 30 years		
	سنة 31 - 41 years		
	وما فوق 42 - over		
/hat level o	f education have you co	mpleted? (Oualifications)?실	ما هي اعلى شهاداتا

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The following items are designed to provide information about teacher motivation. Please complete this questionnaire as carefully and frankly as possible. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. It is your perception and honest opinion in which I am most interested.

صممت هذه الاستمارة للحصول على معلومات حول موضوع اندفاع المعلم، لذا يرجى الاجابة بكل دقة وصدق، وتذكر انه لا يوجد جواب صح او غلط، لذلك يجب ان تكون الاجوبة معبرة فقط عن رأيك باخلاص، وهذا ما يهمني

Please, circle the number which best describes your opinion regarding the statements below.

ضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رأيك بالنسبة لكل عبارة مدونة ادناه

1	=	Strongly Agree (SA)	موافق جدا
2	=	Agree (A)	موافق
3	=	Undecided (U)	متردد
4	=	Disagree (D)	غير موافق
5	=	Strongly Disagree (SD)	غير موافق ابدا

			SA	A	U	D	SD
	1.	I am motivated by the respect, trust and empathy I receive from my principal.	1	2	3	4	5
		اعمل باندفاع نتيجة الاحترام، الثقة، وحسن المعاملة التي اتلقاها من مديري					
:	2.	I am motivated by the sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
		انا مندفع لشعوري بالانتماء الى المدرسة والعمل الجماعي فيها					
	10.	Len authored as a teacher broanse i believe i make					
	3.	I am motivated by the professional growth activities that are available to me.	1	2	3	4	5
		انا مندفع بالنشاطات المهنية المتوفرة لي					

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Teacher motivation project.

د تشكل مصدر اندفاع لي نشاطات تقوي مهنتي في التعليم د تشكل مصدر اندفاع لي تشكله مصدر اندفاع لي تشكله مصدر اندفاع لي المسلمات ا	
receive from working with students. 1 2 3 4 الشعر باندفاع لاقتتاعي بلعمل مع التلاميذ 6. Being able to work closely with my principal is a source of motivation to me as a teacher. 1 2 3 4 المكانية العمل من قرب مع مديري، تشكل مصدر	
 6. Being able to work closely with my principal is a source of motivation to me as a teacher. 1 2 3 4 المكانية العمل من قرب مع مديري، تشكل مصدر 	5
source of motivation to me as a teacher. 1 2 3 4 المكانية العمل من قرب مع مديري، تشكل مصدر	5
7.I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with my colleagues.1234	5
انا مندفع كمعلم نتيجة الرضى الذي احصل عليه من عملي مع التلاميذ	
8. I am motivated by the opportunity to restructure the educational program during the postwar era. 1 2 3 4	5
انا مندفع بتوفير فرص تجديد البرامج التربوية بعد الحرب	
9.I am motivated as a teacher by the recognition I receive from principal.1234	5
انا مندفع في التعليم للتقدير الذي اناله من المدير	
10.I am motivated as a teacher because I believe I make a difference in the lives of my students.1234	5
انا مندفع في التعليم بسبب اعتقادي بأني اغير في حياة تلاميذي	

2

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Teacher motivation project.

11.	I am motivated as a teacher because I participate in	1	2	3	4	5	
	the decision-making process in this school.	1	2	5	4	5	
	انا مندفع في التعليم بسبب مشاركتي في صناعة القرارات في المدرسة					*	
12.	I am motivated as a teacher because the principal makes most of the decisions in this school.	1	2	3	4	5	
	انا مندفع في التعليم بسبب صناعة القرارت فقط من قبل المدير						
13.	I am motivated as a teacher because of the sense of equality I perceive among all staff members.	1	2	3	4	5	
	equancy i perceive among an stati memoers.	1, 1,	-	5	-	-	
	انا مندفع في التعليم بسبب روح المساواة التي تسود بين جميع الاساتذة في المدرسة	\$					
14.	Being able to participate in the planning the future of the school process is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	
	امكانية مشاركتي في تخطيط مستقبل المدرسة يشكل مصدر ا لاندفاعي كمعلم						
15.	Acknowledgement is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	
	التقدير هو مصدر لاندفاعي كمعلم						
16.	I am motivated by the respect, trust, and empathy I receive from those in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	
	انا مندفع بالاحترام والثقة وحسن المعاملة التي لجدها في مكان عملي						
17.	Reforming the educational program and school structure is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	
	تحديث البر امج وتجديد الهيكلية التربوية يشكلان مصدر ا لاندفاعي						

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TEACHER SATISFACTION

The purpose of this section of the questionnaire is to give you the opportunity to express how you feel about your present job. On the basis of your answers and those of people like you, we hope to come to a better understanding about the things people like and dislike about their jobs.

صمم هذا القسم لاعطائك فرصة تعبر فيها بصدق عن شعورك نحو عملك في المدرسة، على اساس اجوبتك ارجو ان اصل الى صورة واضحة تظهر ما هو مرض او غير مرض في عمل الاساتذة

Circle the number which best describes your opinion regarding the statements below. ضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رأيك بالنسبة لكل عبارة مدونة ادناه

(اختار جوابا واحدا فقط)

=	Very Satisfied (VS)	مرض جدا
=	Satisfied (S)	مرض
=	Undecided (U)	متردد
=	Dissatisfied (D)	غير مرض
=	Very Dissatisfied (VD)	غير مرض ابدا
	1 1 1	 Satisfied (S) Undecided (U) Dissatisfied (D)

In my present job, this is how I feel about...

في عملي الحالي اشعر هكذا

		VS	S	U	D	VD
1.	Being "somebody" in the school community.	1				5
	لكون شخصية في الجماعة المدرسية					
2.	The way my principal handles his/her workers.					5 .
	طريقة المدير في معاملة اساتذته					
3.	The competence of my principal in making decisions.	1				5
	مقدرة المدير على صناعة القرارات الحكيمة					
4.	My pay and the amount of work I do.	1	2	3	. 4	5
	راتبي ونسبة للعمل الذي اقوم به					
5.	The freedom to use my own judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
	الحرية في استعمال لحكامي الشخصية					

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Teacher motivation project.

6.	وط العمل The working conditions.	1 شر		2	3	4	5
7.	The way my co-workers get along with each othe	er. 1		2	3	4	5
	الطريقة التي يتعامل بها الاساتذة مع بعضهم	البعض					
8.	The praise I get for doing a good job.	growth 1	1	2	3	4	5
	، الذي اناله على عمل جيد	الثناء					
9.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1 - مرتبد - 1	L :	2	3	4	5
	الشعور الذي ينتابني عند انهاء عمل ما						
10.	Changing students' attitudes and behaviour in a p	ositive way.	L :	2	3	4	5
	التغير الايجابي في تصرفات ومسلك التلاميذ						
11.	Working with a well qualified and experienced print has a clear vision for the school.	incipal who	1	2	3	4	5
	العمل مع مدير كفوء علميا يملك خبرة ورؤية واضحة	للمدرسة					
12.	My relationships with my colleagues at my school	1. 1	l :	2	3	4	5
	تي مع زملائي في المدرسة	علاقة					
13.	The feeling of belonging, teamwork, and collegial school.		ı :	2	3	4	5
	الشعور بالانتماء الى المدرسة والعمل الجماعي فيها						
14.	The quality of principalship in my school.	1	1	2	3	4	5
	ريقة المدير في ادارة المدرسة	н					
15.	The amount of acknowledgment I receive for my	efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
	نسبة التقدير التي لحصل عليها مكافأة لتضحياتي						
16.	The process of school restructuring.	1	L :	2	3	4	5
	لة تجديد الهيكلية المدرسية	طرية					

Teacher motivation project.

17.	The way promotion on merit has occurred in my school.					
	طريقة الترقي المبنية على الكفاءة العلمية والاختبارية المتبعة في المدرسة		2	3	4	5
18.	The amount of activities promoting professional growth provided at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
	نسبة النشاطات التي تقوي مقدرتي المهنية المقدمة لي في المدرسة					
19.	The respect, trust, and support I receive from other staff at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
	الاحترام، الثقة والدعم الذي لحصل عليه من الاساتذة في المدرسة					
20.	The progress of curriculum reform.	1	2	3	4	5
	تقدم عملية تطوير البرامج العلمية					
21.	The amount of involvement in the decision making process at my school.	1	2	3	4	5
	حجم المشاركة في صناعة القرارت المدرسية					

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The University of Sydney

Teacher motivation project.

PRINCIPAL STYLE

اسلوب المدير

The following list of items may be used to describe the behaviour of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behaviour but does not ask you to judge whether the behaviour is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as possible, the behaviour of your principal. You are not asked to identify yourself or your principal.

صممت هذه العبارات لتصف اسلوب المدير . كل عبارة لها ميزة خاصة في الوصف، ليس المطلوب ان تحكم اذا كان الاسلوب محبوبا او لا، انما المطلوب ان تصف

بموضوعية ودقة اسلوب مديرك

Circle the number which best describes your opinion regarding the statements below. ضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رأيك بالنسبة لكل عبارة مدونة ادناه

1	=	Always (A)	دائما
2	=	Often (O)	کثیراما
3	=	Sometimes (S)	لحيانا
4	=	Rarely (R)	نادرا
5	=	Never (N)	ابدا

The principal ...

		٨	0	S	R	N	
		А	U	5	K	14	
1.	Makes me feel ready to sacrifice my own self-interests for the good of the group.	1	2	3	4	5	•
	يجعلني أضحي بمصلحتي الخاصة من اجل خير الجماعة						
2.	Finds out what I want and tries to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	
	يكتشف ما اريد ويحاول مساعدتي						
3.	Shows interest and respect towards my work.	1	2	3	4	5	
	يظهر اهتماما ولحتراما تجاه عملي						
4.	Is a good team player.	1	2	3	4	5	

انه جيد في قيادة فريق عمل

Page 8

المدير

oseph	Wakim. PhD Candidate The University of Sydney Teac	her motivati	on pro	oject.		
	Recognises me when I perform well.	1	2	3	4	5
*	يقدرني على الاعمال المهمة التي اقوم بها					
	Rewards those involved when tasks are completed.	1	2	3	4	-
a	يكافئ الافراد عندما ينهون مهامهم					
NR!	Looks out for the personal welfare of individuals.	1	2	3	4	-
	يهتم بالرفاهية الشخصية لكل فرد					
	Keeps the staff well informed.	1	2	3	4	
	يطلع الاساتذة على كل شيئ					
	يرغب في التغيير Is willing to make changes.	your 1	2	3	4	100
.0.	Offers staff the opportunity to participate in professional development activities.	bool 1	2	3	4	100
	يوفر للاساتذة لمكانية المشاركة في النشاطات المهنية التي تزيد من مقدراتهم					
1.	Runs staff meetings successfully.	. 1	2	3	4	
	يدير لجتماع الاساتذة بنجاح					
12.	Encourages everyone to share in decision making.	1	2	3	4	
	يشجع كل فرد على المشاركة في صناعة القرارات المدرسية					
13.	Makes most of the decisions without consultations of teachers.	1	2	3	4	
	يأخذ معظم القرارات دون استشارة الاساتذة					
14.	Motivates me by his/her educational model.	1	2	3	4	
	يحثني على الاقتداء به بثقافته النموذجية					
15.	Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected.	1	2	3	4	
	يولي اهتماما شخصيا للاشخاص الذين يبدون منسين					
16.	Excites us with his/her vision of school restructuring.	1	2	3	4	
	يشوقنا بتطلعاته التجديدية في المدرسة					

Page 9

ضع دائرة حول الجواب المناسب

17.Excites us with his/her implementation of new curriculum content
and structure.12345

يشوقنا بتطويره وتطبيقه مناهج علمية حديثة

GENERAL QUESTIONS (1)

استلة عامة (1

Circle the appropriate response.

-PP	-opinio	 		
	37			

Y	=	Yes	نعم
N	=	No	كلا

1. 10	Does your principal involve you in the decision making process at your school? هل يشركك المدير في صناعة القرارت في المدرسة?	Y	N
2.	Do you feel involvement in the decision making process at your school improves your attitude and commitment to your school?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد مشاركتك في صناعة القرارات في المدرسة تزيد من التزامك واندفاعك نحو المدرسة؟		
3.	Does your principal offer you professional growth activities?	Y	N
	هل يوفر لك المدير النشاطات التي تسهم في تنمية مهار اتك المهنية		
4.	Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you at your school?	Y	N
	هل تشعر بأن الحد الادنى من النشاطات المهنية موفر لك في المدرسة؟		
5.	Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your school and/or classroom?	Y	N
	هل تقدر للاعمال الحسنة التي تقوم بها في المدرسة والصف؟		
6.	Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from the principal for the job you do?	Y	N

هل انت مكتف بكمية التقدير التي تتلقاها من مديرك في العمل؟

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Teacher motivation project.

7.	Do you feel the amount of recognition you receive for the job you do		
	improves your attitude and commitment towards your school?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد بأن نسبة التقدير التي تتلقاها تسهم في تقوية		
	التزامك واندفاعك نحو المدرسة؟		
8.	Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?	Y	N
	هل المدير هو الدافع الاساسي في عملك؟		
9.	Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job?	Y	N
	هل التلاميذ هم الدافع الأساسي في عملك؟		
10.	Do you feel that being treated as a professional person is a major		
	motivator for you?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد انك اذا عوملت كمحترف يزيد ذلك من اندفاعك في		
	التعليم؟		
11.	Do you feel that working in a team involving the teachers and the		
	principal improves your work motivation?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد بانه اذا اتيح لك ان تعمل ضمن فريق مؤلف من المدير و الاساتذة، ذلك يزيد من التز امك و اندفاعك نحو المدرسة؟		
		÷	
12.	Do you feel content when you work with a principal who is highly educated and aware of educational issues?	Y	N
	هل تشعر باكتفاء وثقة عندما تعمل مع مدير مؤهل علميا		
	وتربويا ويدرك الامور التربوية؟		
13.	Do you feel the general restructuring of schools improves your attitudes		
	towards teaching?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد ان التجديد في هيكلية المدارس يزيد من التزامك واندفاعك في التعليم؟		
14	Do you feel your participation in inservices improves your attitude and motivation in teaching?	Y	N
	هل تعتقد ان مشاركتك في النشاطات الثقافية تزيد من التزامك		
	واندفاعك في للتعليم؟		

Joseph Wakim. PhD Candidate

Teacher motivation project.

GENERAL OUESTIONS (2)

استلة عامة (2

1. What factors do you think are crucial for you to be motivated in your work? Please, describe how they motivate you?

ما هي العوامل التي تعتبر ها مهمة لاندفاعك في التعليم؟ الشرح كيف؟

Can you identify motivational problems confronting you or other teachers at your school?

هل يمكنك ان تحدد بعض العوامل التي تقف حاجزا في اندفاعك في التعليم في

مدرستك؟ اشرح

1

3

2

Please list three things you dislike about your current school? Why? هل يمكنك تسمية ثلاثة الشياء لا تحبها في مدرستك؟ لماذا؟

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. . What three things do you like most about your current school? 4. : هل يمكنك تسمية ثلاثة اشياء تحبها في مدرستك؟ لماذا ملاحظات اضافية Any additional comments?

Please attach another page if you need more space. رجاء، استعمل اور اق اضافیة اذا کنت بحاجة الی مزید من الفسحة

Page 13

T. Street Story

¥.

APPENDICES

Salar Charles and Salar Salar

- How in your unition can tracing munivation be enhanced in your school?

 What do you think use the needs or metivatives that influence teachers to perform professionally in your current school?.

3 - To whit extent is leadership style of the principal a factor in containing interfaces motivation through your expected as your school?

4 - What principal - teacher focused strategies could be used at your second in your opinion to achieve improved teacher motivation?

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

1 - Are you encouraged by the school to undertake further study?

Why? Why put?

2 - Does the principal run staff development days which catter to staff meets and improvement?

- 3. Are there or prototantities for protectional growth in the school? How? If out why?
- 4- What there things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning prefersional growth?

PHETOENZEAN

- --Wini do you think about weaking in a train in your scherol?
- 2= Do you feel matriced when you work in a term compassed of tendors and principal? Why and Hew?
- 3- What does tourn mean to you in the nontext of the school?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning the concept of bring part of a term?

COMMENICATION

- 1- How can the "communication" affect you to be motivated in your a
- Way do you think the communication is crucial in only
- APPENDIX 3
- 4- What three fulnes would you like to change or to improve in the school according the communication between celectral and shall?

DECISION MARING

1+ Who makes the decisions in the school?

GENERAL OUESTIONS

1 - How in your opinion can teacher motivation be enhanced in your school?

2 - What do you think are the needs or motivators that influence teachers to perform professionally in your current school?

3 - To what extent is leadership style of the principal a factor in enhancing teachers' motivation through your experience at your school?

4 - What principal - teacher focused strategies could be used at your school in your opinion to achieve improved teacher motivation?

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

1 - Are you encouraged by the school to undertake further study? Why? Why not?

2 - Does the principal run staff development days which cater to staff needs and improvement?

- 3 Are there opportunities for professional growth in the school? How? If not why?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning professional growth?

PART OF A TEAM

- 1- What do you think about working in a team in your school?
- 2- Do you feel motivated when you work in a team composed of teachers and principal? Why and How?
- 3- What does team mean to you in the context of the school?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning the concept of being part of a team?

COMMUNICATION

- 1- How can the 'communication' affect you to be motivated in your school?
- 2- Why do you think the communication is crucial in enhancing teacher motivation?
- 3- What are some of the non verbal ways the principal and staff communicate?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning the communication between principal and staff?

DECISION MAKING

1- Who makes the decisions at the school?

- 2- Do you like to be involved in decision making process? Why, Why not?
- 3- Tell me how your involvement in the decision making process affects your work motivation?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve concerning the decision making process?

PERSONAL REGARD

- 1- Are you treated as professional by principal? How? If not why?
- 2- What do you understand by the term "personal regard"?
- 3- How does the Personal regard gesture, such as respect or freedom...affect your work motivation?
- 4- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning the personal relationship between principal and teachers?

PRINCIPAL STYLE

- 1- Do you think the principal is a key factor in motivating teachers? How? If not why not?
- 2- How can the principal style affect your motivation?
- 3- What three things would you like to change or to improve concerning the leadership style of your principal?

RECOGNITION

- 1- How can the support and recognition for your efforts increase your work motivation?
- 2- Does the principal reject individual teachers' efforts to improve teaching and learning activities in the school?
- 3- What do you understand by the term 'recognition'?
- 4- Why do you think recognition is vital for enhancing teacher motivation?
- 5- What three things would you like to change or to improve in the school concerning the recognition system?

ENVIRONMENT

- 1- How do you think the environment of the school affects or caters for teacher motivation?
- 2- Can you describe the ideal environment that would improve teacher motivation?
- 3- How can the environment affect your work motivation?

VbbENDIX †

VPPENDICES

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu	s rrent Sc	hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age			Su	rvey typ	
Sec. Sec.	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
I function in a profession	al enviro	nment						1.									Dre as		
MEANS	3.66	3.92	3.50	2.67	3.82	3.89	3.65	3.69	3.69	3.66	4.00	4.00	3.33	4.00	3.60	4.00	3.29	3.73	4.10
STD. DEVIATION	1.06	1.24	0.84	1.15	0.75	1.27	0.83	1.08	1.01	1.08		-	1.32		1.18		1.14	1.01	0.88
I believe that I have ear	ned respyc	t						1000	134			1							
MEANS	4.09	4.18	4.17	3.00	4.27	4.33	3.95	4.20	4.00	4.11	5.00	3.50	3.75	4.57	4.00	3.50	4.00	4.20	4.10
STD. DEVIATION	0.83	0.75	0.41	1.00	0.65	1.00	0.72	0.56	0.89	0.74		0.71	0.46	0.53	1.00	0.71	0.96	0.63	0.88
I make decisions about the	e implemen	tatoin o	f new pr	ograms 1	n the so	hool	1	1											
MEANS	3.18	3.36	3.33	2.33	3.18	3.33	3.09	3.60	2.81	3.18	4.00	3.00	3.50	3.43	2.80	3.50	2.64	3.70	3.40
STD. DEVIATION	1.27	1.12	1.21	1.53	1.40	1.41	1.23	1.06	1.33	1.19		2.83	0.93	0.98	1.42	2.12	1.34	1.16	1.07
I am treated as a profess.	ional				11			1.1.1									1.00		
MEANS	3.60	4.00	3.17	3.00	3.64	3.78	3.52	3.69	3.56	3.66	4.00	3.00	3.78	4.00	3.13	4.00	3.07	3.91	4.00
STD. DEVIATION	1.14	1.04	0.98	1.00	1.12	1.39	1.04	0.95	1.21	1.08		1.41	0.83	0.58	1.46		1.21	0.83	1.15
I have the opportunity for	r professi	onal gro	wth					2.41	have	1.11		2.00					1.00		
MEANS	3.31	3.75	2.83	3.00	3.45	3.89	3.22	3.44	3.38	3.38	4.00	3.50	3.22	4.00	3.07	3.50	3.00	3.36	3.70
STD. DEVIATION	1.37	1.29	1.33	1.00	1.29	1.05	1.31	1.31	1.26	1.27		2.12	1.30	1.00	1.39	2.12	1.36	1.50	1.25
I have the respect of my	colleagues	1						1		1.12							3.25		
MEANS	4.03	4.17	4.17	3.00	4.00	4.11	4.00	4.06	3.94	4.03	4.00	3.50	4.00	4.29	3.80	4.50	3.64	4.18	4.40
STD. DEVIATION	0.92	0.58	0.41	1.73	1.18	1.27	0.80	0.57	1.24	0.98		0.71	0.50	0.49	1.25	0.71	1.28	0.40	0.52
I work at a school where	tids come	first			1		10 24	1.00	-	1.11		1.00							
MEANS	3.77	4.17	3.83	3.00	3.36	4.11	3.70	3.69	3.75	3.59	5.00	5.00	3.78	3.86	3.73	3.50	3.57	3.82	4.00
STD. DEVIATION	1.14	0.94	1.17	1.00	1.29	1.17	1.11	1.20	1.13	1.12			0.83	1.21	1.28	2.12	1.22	1.17	1.05

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu		hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age			Survey type		
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
I perceive that I am	making a diffe	arence							1										
MEANS	3.94	3.67	4.17	4.00	4.09	3.78	4.04	4.19	3.69	3.86	5.00	4.50	3.67	4.57	3.73	4.50	3.71	4.00	4.20
STD. DEVIATION	0.91	0.65	0.75	1.00	1.22	0.83	0.93	0.75	1.01	0.92		0.71	0.50	0.53	1.10	0.71	1.14	0.77	0.63
My principal solicits	my advice								. 2			23					1.11		
leader a settlerer fro	3.21	3.09	3.50	2.33	3.36	3.11	3.18	3.80	2.63	3.07	5.00	4.00	3.25	3.57	2.93	3.00	3.07	3.70	2.90
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	1.23	0.83	1.38	1.53	1.43	1.27	1.26	1.01	1.15	1.21		1.11	1.04	1.51	1.22	1.41	1.27	1.16	1.20
Teachers and school p	ersonnel solid	cit my ad	lvice		100														
Contractor of the second second	3.79	3.55	4.17	4.00	3.91	4.11	3.73	3.93	3.75	3.89	5.00	2.50	3.63	4.43	3.67	3.50	3.71	3.60	4.10
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	0.91	0.82	0.41		1.14	0.60	0.94	0.70	1.00	0.79		0.71	0.52	0.53	0.90	2.12	0.99	1.07	0.57
I feel content under	the leadership	p of my p	orincipal				1												
Field Content Street	3.38	3.64	3.50	3.00	3.18	3.78	3.23	3.40	1200.000	3.36	5.00	3.00	3.38	3.86	3.20	2.50	3.36	3.30	3.50
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	1.16	1.03	1.38		1.33	1.30	1.07	1.30	1.02	1.16		1.00	0.92	1.21	1.26	0.71	0.93	1.34	1.35
I support the princip		feel he/s	the would	support	me				-	a star							1.1.1		
I support the princip	at because 1		-1					3.80	3.93	3.93	4.00	3.00	3.75	4.43	3.73	2.00	4.00	3.50	4.00
MEANS	3.85	3.82	4.00	4.00	3.80	4.22	3.76	0.94		0.96	4.00	1.41	0.89	0.53	1.03	2.00	0.88	1.08	1.00
STD. DEVIATION	0.97	1.08	1.10	1.00	0.52			0.76	1.13	10,55		1.11				1.11	2.30		
I really like working	in this school	01							and the second							and a local			
MEANS	3.82	3.91	4.17	3.00	3.91	3.78	3.91	3.93		3.79	5.00	4.50	3.63	4.14	3.60	5.00	3.29	4.20	4.20
STD. DEVIATION	1.11	1.14	0.41	1.00	1.30	1.09	1.11	0.90	1.22	1.10		0.71	0.92	1.07	1.24	2	1.2/	0.79	0.92
I believe most other	people really	like wor	king in	this sch	1001														
A telligetest as a l	3.24	3.45	3.50	2.33	3.18	3.00	3.36		2.88		5.00	3.00	3.25	3.71	3.00	3.00	2.71	3.60	3.60
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	1.21	0.93	1.05	1.15	1.47	1.22	1.18	1.23	1.02	1.17	and all in	1.41	1.04	1.11	1.31	1.41	1.14	1.07	1.26

		Teachi	Year ing at Cu	rs Arrent Sc	hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age			Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	,11	10
I am encouraged by the	principal to	partici	pate in	the deci	sion-mal	king pro	cess in	this so	thool	1.00									
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	2.88	3.27	3.17	2.00	2.73	3.44	2.59	3.27	2.63	2.93 1.36	4.00	2.50	3.00 1.31	3.14	2.67	3.00	2.64 1.50	3.20 1.40	2.90
Regular staff meetings	and/or grage	e level m	neetings	are help	in this	s school	and al	teacher	s are a	le to par	ticipate	in the	decisio	n-making					
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.12 1.41	3.64	2.83	3.00	3.36	3.44	3.14	3.60	3.06 1.48	3.25 1.32	5.00	3.50 0.71	3.88	3.14 1.57	3.00	3.00	2.71 1.33	3.00 1.41	3.80 1.40
Administrators makes m	ost of the de	ecisions	in this	school,	with 10	ttle or	no inpu	from te	achers										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.50	3.45	3.67	3.67	3.45	3.44	3.68		4.00 1.26	3.68 1.28	1.00	2.50 0.71	3.13 1.13	3.71 1.50	3.73 1.39	3.50	4.07	2.90	3.30
Administrators encoura	ge staff col	laboratio	on on edu	cational	projec	ts		. anotes	10										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	2.91	3.36 0.92	2.00	2.33 0.58	3.00	3.44 1.01	2.55		2.56	2.75	4.00	4.00	2.75 1.16	3.00	2.87 1.25	2.50	2.57 1.09	3.10 1.37	3.20
Teachers in this school	1 work toget	ner harmo	oniously		ister.			-	161										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.60	3.75	3.83	3.33	3.27	4.00	3.39 0.99		3.50 1.03	3.59 0.98	4.00	3.00 1.41	3.44 0.88	4.00 0.58	3.47 1.19	3.50	3.50 1.16	3.55 0.93	3.80
Converstion abougst st	aff_members_	frequentl	ly focus	as in pro	fession	al issue	s relat	ed to tea	aching										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.06	3.33 0.78	3.50	3.33 1.15	2.82	4.11 0.60	2.78	2.88	3.50	3.21 1.11	3.00	3.00 1.41	2.67	3.14 0.90	3.33 1.23	4.00	3.14 1.10	2.73	3.30
I am motivated as a te	acher by the	knowledg	e that	I am empo	wered t	o make	ob-rela	ted decis	sions	di sult									
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.44	3.64	3.17	3.33	3.45	3.67	3.32 0.99	the second second	3.38		4.00	3.50	3.50 0.76	4.00	3.07	3.50		3.50 1.08	3.70

	cael cler	mg			yde		Isqi	ter Frinc	Years Und	Teacher	Jo eqYT	10	pueg	Tool	a Då Jneri	rsei uD je Qu	Teachi		
өзтцм	usero	Yellow	+29	19-15	56-30	52-02	+9	9-6	Z-T	-sry Second	Primary	Female	eleM	+8	L-9	9-E	I-3	TATOT	
στ	τι	91	z	ST	٢	6	z	τ	52	91	91	ES 23	e Ittw pate		£ 1 avata	9	21	SE	STNEUTS
\$7.0	72.A	95.9	11.0 05.5	4.20	4.29	05.0 55.5	17.0 02.5	00.8	4°54	4.25 4.25	0.58 4.25	15.0 E3.5	87.0 87.0	59.0 72.4	00.2	25.0 7.67	65.0 58.5	99°0 92°¢	I am motivated as a to AFANS STD. DEVIATION
											seupsel.	u wA co	atw pata	LOU MOL	eceive f	t I nota	oslaijse	Bacher by the	a as betavitom ma 1
4.30	3.40		05.5	00.5	9.29	87.5	11.0 02.5	2°00	67.£ 86.0	27.E	50'T 18'E	\$7.E	4.00	28.E	00.E	00.5	£8.£	27.E	EVAS
87.0	55.1	91.1	11.0	1.13	\$6*0	£8.0			0610		CO.17	Luci	18.0	sz.i	1.00 1.00	Don I rec	82.0 131npope:	TIT.I	sTD. DEVIATION
3.20	2.90	00.5	00.5	2.53	3.00	79.5	05.5	2.00	00.5	00.5	3.00	78.5	11.5	2.55	79.6	2.50	05.5	E0.E	devra
PT'T -	1.52	1.24	19.1	61.1	1.29	21.1	14.0		8Z°T	1.21	1.32 T.	10 88A	TS.I	IF BUCB	82.0	85.1 1.38	1.24	LZ.1	TD. DEVIATION
05.5	01.1 06.5	£\$.\$	TL'0	0.63	61.29	\$ 9. \$	11.0	4.00	19.0	85.0	15°0	95.0	62.0 92.5	95.5 4.36	00.2	05.0 22.0	\$5.0	62. b	STD. DEVIATION
-										Tooy	os stitt i	t ssec			the dec				test in motivated in test
62°T 06°2	7*40 5*80	T-22 5-64	1.41 2.00	1.41 2.87	1.25 2.71	60°T 82°Z	4.00	2°00	1°53 5°83	51.15 2.56	3°15	19.2 2.61	1.22 5.33	72.1 72.5	51.15 7.15	09°T 5°T1	0°°00 3°83	7°59 5°19	AEANS TD. DEVIATION
										ī	ooups sti	t uf su	uotatoeb	ot the	аке тоас	m siojaj	Jainimba	syrud pecenae	t am motivated in teac
26.0 25.20	66°0 01°2	20°0 12°5	5°75 5°20	\$7.0 \$1.87	0.95 2.71	2.33 78.0	17.0 02.5	2°00	0°65 5°74	0.96 2.13	0°62 5°31	56°0 22°2	25.22	00°T 00°Z	00°2	2.17 2.17	60°T 05°Z	\$6.0 81.2	FEAUS TD. DEVIATION
								members	lists Lis	aspanom	atence a	dxe I A	stisupe	jo esue	tty or a	1stpello	of the c	Bausced Build	sest ni betsvitom ma. 1
7°50 5°60	1°10 5°60	£6.2	19.1 00.E	82.1 82.2	97.0 97.0	87.2 2.78	17.0 02.5	00°E	07.1 00.5	90°E	00.E	2.78	95.5	2.73	55.1 55.33	79.E	71.E	16'Z	TD. DEVIATION

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu	s irrent Sc	hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age	.		Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
Being able to participate	in the de	cision-m	aking pr	ocess is	a source	e of mo	tivatio	in my t	eaching										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.27 1.31	3.45 0.69	2.50 1.52	4.33 0.58	3.27	3.33 1.22	3.18 1.37	3.47 1.19	3.13 1.31	3.25 1.29	3.00	4.00	3.75 0.71	3.57 1.27	2.87	2.50	3.29 1.33	3.33 1.32	3.20 1.40
I am motivated in teachin	g because	I feel I	have co	entrol ov	er what	takes p	lace in	my class	room		4								
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.76	3.91 0.70	3.83 0.98	4.33 0.58	3.55	3.89	3.68	3.60	4.00	3.89 0.83	4.00	2.50 2.12	4.13 0.83	4.14 0.69	3.20	4.50	3.64	4.00	3.70
															1.10				
		1.61 D. G																	

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu		hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age	8		Su	rvey typ	8
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
Makes me feel ready to	sagrifice my	own sel	f-intere	sts for	the good	of the	group												
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.06	3.27	3.50	2.67	2.70	3.00	3.00	3.50 1.09	2,69	3.11 1.15	4.00	2.00	3.38 0.74	3.71 0.95	2.64	1.50 0.71	3.07	3.40 1.17	2.67
Finds our what I want	and tries to	help me	get it				1.1		2										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	2.77	2.92	3.33	2.67	2.82	3.22	2.74	3.25	2.63	2.90	5.00	2.50	2.78	3.57 1.13	2.73 1.03	2.00	2.86 0.95	2.82 1.33	2.60
Is a model for me to f	ollow							1											
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.12 1.15	3.27 0.79	2.33 0.82	3.33	3.45	3.00	3.14	3.13	3.19 6.91	3.14 1.11	3.00	3.50 0.71	3.00 0.93	3.86	2.73	3.50	3.50 0.94	2.80 1.23	2.90
Is a good team player							1		1	-							1.15		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.00	3.45 0.93	2.83	3.00	2.91 1.30	3.33 1.32	2.86	3.13	3.06 1.18	3.00 1.19	5.00	3.50 0.71	2.88	3.86	2.73	3.00	3.29 1.14	2.78	2.80
Is an inspiration to u	8								1								1.00		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.12 1.20	3.55 0.82	2.67	3.33	3.00 1.34	3.33 1.32	3.00		3.19	3.11 1.17	4.00	3.50 0.71	3.25	3.71 1.11	2.73	3.00	3.36 0.93	2.90	3.00
Makes me proud to be a	ssociated wi	th him/he	er																
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.41	3.82	3.33	3.67	3.09	3.44	3.36		3.44	3.39 1.07	5.00	3.50 0.71	3.75	4.00	2.93 1.16	3.00	3.64 1.01	3.50 1.08	3.00
His/her Ideas have for	ced me to re	think som	ne of my	own edea	s which	I had n	ever qu	estioned	before								100		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	2.67	3.00	2.50	4.00	2.55	2.78	2.76		2.67	2.78	4.00	2.50 0.71	3.25	3.33	2.27	2.50	2.69	2.80 1.03	2.50

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu		hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age			Su	rvey typ	9
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
Spends time talking ab	bout the purpo	se of ou	r organi	sation (vision			1	1			1					1. 12		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.14	3.42	3.67	4.00	2.73	3.44	3.17	3.31 1.30	3.25	3.28 1.13	5.00	2.50 0.71	3.56	4.00 1.53	2.87 0.92	2.50 0.71	3.43	2.73	3.20
Encourages me to expre	ess wy ideas a	nd opini	ons						1										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.06	3.08	2.83	4.00	3.09 1.45	2.89	3.09	3.44	2.81	3.03 1.30	5.00	3.50 2.12	3.11	4.00	2.60 1.24	3.00	3.21 1.42	3.36 1.36	2.50
Motivates me to do mon	re than I orig	inally e	xpected	I could	do			17											
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	2.88	3.18 0.87	3.17 1.47	3.67	2.64	3.33 1.32	2.82		3.06	3.00 1.19	5.00	2.50 0.71	3.13 0.83	3.71 1.50	2.67	2.00	3.21 1.12	2.60	2.70
Encourages understand	ing of points	of view	of other							-									
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.15 0.97	3.55 0.69	2.83	4.00	2.91 1.14	3.56	3.00	1	3.27	3.15 0.99	4.00	3.50 0.71	3.38 0.74	3.33	3.07	2.50	3.31 0.95	3.10 0.88	3.00
Makes everyone around	him/her enthu	siastic	about ta	sks to l	e comple	ted													
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.09	3.55	3.33	2.67	2.45	3.33 1.41	2.82		3.00 1.15	2.89 1.13	5.00	4.00 1.41	3.13 0.83	3.43 1.40	2.67	3.50 2.12	3.00 1.04	3.40 1.51	2.90
Finds time to listen t	to mg																		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.26 1.29	3.42	3.17 1.72	4.00	3.09 1.30	3.33	3.27		3.20		4.00	3.50 0.71	3.67 1.22	3.83 1.17	2.87	3.00	3.77	3.00 1.48	2.90
Looks out for the pers	sonal welfare	of indiv	iduals																
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.43	4.08	3.00	4.33	2.91	3.78	3.30		3.69		3.00	4.00	3.89 0.78	3.86	3.00	3.50 2.12	4.00	3.18	2.90

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu	s rrent Sc	hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age			Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
Maintains definite standar	ds of per	formance						10	1.1										
	3.62	4.00	3.50	4.33	3.36	3.67	3.59	3.73	3.69	3.64	5.00	4.00	3.50	4.29	3.40	3.50	3.93	3.60	3.20
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	1.18	0.63	1.22	0.58	1.36	1.22	1.18	1.03	1.14	1.06		1.41	0.76	0.95	1.30	2.12	0.83	1.35	1.40
Keeps the school informed	1.1				10.00		1.17	1.10	1.0	20		1.45					1.13		
Industry and the strike of the state		3.92	3.50	3.50	2.82	4.00	3.09	3.31	3.53	3.32	5.00	4.00	3.33	3.33	3.40	3.50	3.38	3.45	3.40
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.41	0.90	1.38	0.71	1.33	1.32	1.11	1.08	1.36	1.19		1.41	0.87	1.51	1.30	2.12	1.19	1.13	1.43
Is willing to make changes	1.1				1.1.1		6.35	1.10	1.00	3,30		1.22				4.0	0.45		
MEANS	3.49	4.00	3.33	4.00	3.09	3.89	3.30	3.56	3.56	3.55	4.00	3.50	3.89	3.71	3.20	3.00	3.79	3.36	3.20
STD. DEVIATION	1.09	0.60	0.82	1.00	1.22	0.93	1.11	0.89	1.09	1.02		0.71	0.78	1.25	1.08	1.41	1.05	0.92	1.32
Lets school members know	hat is ex	pected o	f them		3.24		4	32.00	1.00	1.10		3140				1.61	6.88		
MEANS	3.79	4.27	3.00	4.67	3.55	4.00	3.68	3.47	4.13	3.71	5.00	4.50	3.63	4.29	3.47	5.00	4.00	3.30	4.00
STD. DEVIATION	1.15	0.90	1.41	0,58	1.13	1.12	1.21	1.25	1.02	1.18		0.71	1.41	1.11	0.99		0.96	1.34	1.15
Keeps the school working	ogether a	s a team																	
MEANS	3.26	3.67	3.00	4.00	2.91	3.33	3.14	3.25	3.33	3.18	5.00	4.00	3.56	3.50	2.87	3.50	3.31	3.36	3.10
STD. DEVIATION	1.14	0.78	1.10	1.41	1.22	0.87	1.25	1.13	1.05	1.02		1.41	1.01	1.38	0.99	2.12	1.11	1.21	1.20
Is available for assistant	e when ne	neded																	
MEANS	3.56	3.82	3.67	4.00	3.27	3.75	3.52	3.44	3.80	3.54	5.00	4.00	3.56	4.29	3.14	4.00	3.79	3.55	3.22
STD. DEVIATION	0.93	0.87	1.03	1.00	0.65	0.71	0.95	0.73	0.94	0.79		1.41	0.73	0.76	0.77	1.41	0.80	1.13	0.83
Seeks opinions concerning.	issues							1	11							1			
MEANS	3.24	3.82	2.83	3.00	3.10	3.22	3.19	3.57	3.05	3.19	5.00	4.00	3.38	4.00	2.80	3.50	3.29	3.60	2.78
STD. DEVIATION	1.30	1.08	1.47	1.00	1.29	1.56	1.21	1.02	1.39	1.21		1.41	1.06	1.26	1.26	2.12	1.27	1.17	1.48

		Teachi	Years Teaching at Current School	s rrent Sc	hool	Gender		Type of Teacher	reacher	Years Under Principal	der Prin	Intpal		Age			Su	Survey type	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	*8	Male	Female Primary	rimary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	0	E	11	5	23	16	16	29	1	2	5	2	15	2	14	11	10
Is protected from disruption	tion				•)				2										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.48	3.73	4.17 0.75	3.00	3.20	3.56	3.55	3.29	3.87	3.50	5.00	4.00	3.63	3.60	3.27	5.00	3.23	3.78	3.56
Conducts meetings efficiently	ptly																		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.50	3.91	3.67 0.82	3.67 0.58	3.09	3.67	3.36	3.53	3.56	3.50	5.00	3.50	3.75 0.71	3.71	3.20	3.50	3.57 0.85	3.60	3.30
Communicates openly and frankly with staff members and students	Trankly w	th staff	members	and stud	ents														
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.68	4.00	3.50	4.33	3.45	3.89	3.55	3.53	3.94	3.68	5.00	4.00	3.75	4.29 0.76	3.27 1.28	4.00	4.21	3.40	3.20

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu	s rrent Sci	hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal	-	Age			Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
Being able to keep bus	y all the tim	ne							/										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	4.46	4.25	4.67 0.52	4.67 0.58	4.45	4.33 0.71	4.52 0.59	4.56 0.51	4.31 0.70	4.45 0.63	5.00	4.00	4.56 0.53	4.86	4.20 0.68	4.50	4.29 0.73	4.45 0.52	4.70
The chance to work alo	ne on the jol	2							1 3					8					
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.91 0.92	3.92	3.00	4.00	4.27	4.11 0.60	3.78	3.63 1.09	4.13 0.72	3.93 0.96	3.00	3.50 0.71	3.56	4.29 0.95	3.80	4.50 0.71	4.14 0.77	3.27 1.01	4.30
The chance to do diffe	rent things	from time	to time	1			1	1									in the second		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.86	3.83	4.17 0.75	3.33 0.58	3.91 1.14	4.11 0.78	3.78	A STREET	3.69 1.14	3.90 1.05	4.00	3.50 0.71	3.67	4.14 0.69	3.67	4.50 0.71	3.36	4.18 0.60	4.20
The chance to be SOMEB	ODY in the co	ommunity																	
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.63	3.92	3.00	3.33 1.15	3.73 1.42	4.11 0.93	3.43 1.16	3.56	3.69 1.14	3.72 1.07	4.00	2.00	3.44 0.73	4.29 0.49	3.33 1.40	4.00	3.29	3.45	4.30
The way my boss handle	s his/her wo	rkers							12										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.23 1.14	3.42	3.67	2.00	3.18 1.25	3.44 1.42	3.09	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3.13	3.21 1.15	4.00	3.50 0.71	3.22 0.83	3.57 1.51	3.00 1.13	3.50	3.21	3.27	3.20
The competence of my s	upervisor in	making d	decision	18					4										
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.54	3.75	3.00	3.33 0.58	3.45	4.11 0.78	3.26		3.69		4.00	3.50 0.71	3.22 0.67	3.43 1.13	3.73 1.03	3.50 0.71		3.18 0.98	4.3 0.6
Being able to do thing	s that don't	go again	ist my co	onscience				1.000											
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	4.09	4.42	4.17	2.67	4.00	4.00	4.13		3.94		5.00	4.00	4.33	4.29	3.73	5.00	3.50	4.18	4.8

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu		hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		λge			Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
The chance to do someth	inng that ma	kes use	of my ab	ilities					1			-							
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	4.09	4.33 0.78	4.50	4.00	3.55	4.56 0.73	3.87	4.06	4.06	4.10 1.05	5.00	3.00	4.33 0.71	4.43 0.53	3.87	3.00	3.86	4.18 0.98	4.30 0.95
The way school policies	are put int	o place						1.1											
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.15	3.45 1.29	3.00 0.89	2.00	3.18 1.25	3.33 1.41	2.95	3.40 1.06	2.88	3.11 1.23	3.00	3.50 0.71	3.25 1.16	3.29 0.95	2.93 1.33	3.00	2.57 1.09	3.50 1.08	3.60 1.17
My pay and the amount of	of work I do																		
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.03 1.25	3.17 1.19	3.33 1.03	1.67	3.27 1.35	3.67 1.12	2.87	3.13 1.09	3.06 1.39	3.14 1.25	4.00	2.00	2.44 1.01	3.71 0.76	3.20 1.42	2.50	2.71 1.27	2.82 1.25	3.70
The freedom to use my o	wn judgement	2																	
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.66	3.67 0.98	4.00 1.26	4.00	3.45 1.29	3.89 1.36	3.52 1.16	and the second sec	3.75 1.34	3.76 1.12	4.00	2.50 0.71	3.78 0.83	4.29 0.49	3.13 1.46	4.00	3.50 1.29	3.64	3.90 1.37
The working conditions										1.54									
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.17	3.67 1.07	3.00 1.10	2.33	3.00 1.18	3.56 1.33	3.00	3.31 1.08	3.06	3.14 1.19	4.00	3.50 0.71	3.00 1.22	3.71 0.95	2.93	3.50 0.71	2.86	3.18 1.25	3.60 1.07
The way my co-workers o	t along with	each ot	her																
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.59	3.67	4.20 0.45	3.33 0.58	3.18 1.25	3.78	3.41	3.67	3.44 1.03	3.50 1.07	4.00	4.00	3.88 0.83	3.14 1.07	3.53 1.13	3.50 0.71	3.14 1.17	3.80	4.00
The praise I get for do	ing a good	ob						1	\$13							1			
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.26	3.50	2.67	2.67	3.18 1.25	3.56 1.13	3.04	3.25	3.06	3.07 1.19	4.00	4.00	2.78	3.86	3.20 1.15	2.50	2.93 1.14	3.18 1.25	3.80

		Teachi	Year ng at Cu		hool	Gend	er	Type of	Teacher	Years Un	der Prin	cipal		Age	1.14		Su	rvey typ	
	TOTAL	1-2	3-4	5-7	8+	Male	Female	Primary	Second -ary	1-2	3-4	5+	20-25	26-30	31-41	42+	Yellow	Green	White
RESPONDENTS	35	12	6	3	11	9	23	16	16	29	1	2	9	7	15	2	14	11	10
The feeling of accomplis	hment I ge	t from th	e job																
MEANS STD. DEVIATION	3.91 1.04	3.83	3.83 0.98	4.33 0.58	3.91 1.22	3.78 1.20	3.96	and the second sec	3.81 1.22		4.00	3.50 0.71	4.00	4.43 0.53	3.47	4.50	3.50 1.22	4.00	4.40

Appendix 5.

APPENDICES

Motivational Questions

It is motivated by the respect tests and empetity I receive from my principal

Velici ceses (0)

2) I am motivated by the sense of belonging and teamwork present in the school.

Moan 4.45 Std.de

Valid California 65

I ammotiveled by the professional growth activities that

APPENDIX 5

Appendix 5.

Motivational Questions

.,				empathy I receiv	Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly A	aree		1.00	31	49.2	49.2
Agree	.g		2.00	30	47.6	96.8
Undecide	d		3.00	1	1.6	98.4
Disagree			4.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Response		99.00	2	1.7	No Response	
Mean	4.44	Std dev	.616			
Valid case	es 63					

2) I am motivated by the sense	of belonging	and teamwork	present in th	ne school.
			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree	1.00	38	58.5	58.5
Agree	2.00	22	33.8	92.3
Undecided	3.00	2	3.1	95.4
Disagree	4.00	2	3.1	98.5
Stronglt Disagree	5.00	1	1.5	100.0
	000			
Mean 4.45 Std dev	.830			

Valid cases 65

Valid cases

65

3) I am motivated by the professional growth activitie	es that are available to me.	
	Malia Our	

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree		1.00	23	35.4	35.4	
Agree	-64		2.00	28	43.1	78.5
Undecided			3.00	4	6.2	84.6
Disagree			4.00	10	15.4	100.0
Mean 3.	98	Std dev	1.023			

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ent
8
2
4
5
.0

4) Participating in activities that improve my competence in teaching is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.

Valid cases 65

5) I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with students.

-,	V2/13)		Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree	1.00	52	80.0	80.0
Agree	2.00	12	18.5	98.5
Strongly Disagree	5.00	1	1.5	100.0

Mean 4.75 Std dev .613

Valid cases 65

6) Being able to work closely with my principal is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly	Aaree		1.00	21	32.8	32.8
Agree	rigioo		2.00	27	42.2	75.0
Undecide	he		3.00	9	14.1	89.1
Disagree			4.00	6	9.4	98.4
Strongly Disagree		5.00	1	1.6	100.0	
No Response		99.00	1			
Mean	3.95	Std dev	.999			

7) I am motivated as a teacher by the satisfaction I receive from working with my colleagues.

					Valid	Cum	
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent	
Strongly	Agree		1.00	45	69.2	69.2	
Agree	0		2.00	16	24.6	93.8	
Undecide	ed		3.00	2	3.1	96.9	
Disagree			4.00	2	3.1	100.0	
Mean	4.60	Std dev	.703				

Valid cases 65

8) I am motivated by the opportunity to restructure the educational program during the postwar era.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly	Agree		1.00	27	41.5	41.5
Agree	0		2.00	22	33.8	75.4
Undecid	ed		3.00	12	18.5	93.8
Disagree	9		4.00	3	4.6	98.5
Strongly Disagree		5.00	1	1.5	100.0	
Mean	4.09	Std dev	.964			

Valid cases 65

9) I am motivated as a teacher by the recognition I receive from the principal.

			er besaute ti		Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly	Agree		1.00	20	31.3	31.3
Agree	J		2.00	21	32.8	64.1
Undecid	ed		3.00	8	12.5	76.6
Disagree			4.00	7	10.9	87.5
	Disagree		5.00	8	12.5	100.0
No Resp			99.00	1		
Mean	3.59	Std dev	1.365			

10) I am motivated as a teacher because I believe I make a difference in the lives of my students.

Strongly Agree Undecided Strongly Disagree	Value 1.00 2.00 4.00	Frequency 38 24 3	Valid Percent 58.5 36.9 4.6	Cum Percent 58.5 95.4 100.0
Mean 4.49 Std dev	.732			
No Response				

Valid cases 65

11) I am motivated as a teacher because I participate in the decision-making process in this school.

					Valid	Cum
Value La	hel		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly			1.00	10	8.6	15.6
Agree	rigioo		2.00	26	22.4	40.6
Undecide	be		3.00	9	7.8	14.1
Disagree			4.00	17	14.7	26.6
	Strongly Disagree		5.00	2	1.7	3.1
No Resp			99.00	1	.9	
No Nesp	onse					
Mean	3.39	Std dev	1.136			
Valid cas	ses 64					

striken 4.91 Sta de

12) I am motivated as a teacher because the principal makes most of the decisions in the school.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Disagree	1.00	16	25.8	25.8
Disagree	2.00	23	37.1	62.9
Undecided	3.00	12	19.4	82.3
Agree	4.00	9	14.5	96.8
Strongly Agree	5.00	2	3.2	100.0
No Response	99.00	3		
No Response				
Mean 3.68 Std dev	1.113		31	

all staff members.			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree	1.00	18	27.7	27.7
Agree	2.00	26	40.0	67.7
Undecided	3.00	9	13.8	81.5
Disagree	4.00	8	12.3	93.8
Strongly Disagree	5.00	3	4.6	100.00
No Response	99.00	1	.9	
Mean 3.65 Std dev	1.408			

13) I am motivated as a teacher because of the sense of equality I perceive among all staff members.

Valid cases 64

14) Being able to participate in the planning of the future of the school process is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly	Agree		1.00	23	36.5	36.5
Agree			2.00	26	41.3	77.8
Undecide	ed		3.00	7	11.1	88.9
Disagree			4.00	4	6.3	95.2
	Disagree		5.00	3	4.8	100.0
No Resp			99.00	2	3.1	
Mean	4.91	Std dev	1.085			

Valid cases 63

15) Acknowledgement is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree	1.00	22	34.9	34.9
Agree	2.00	24	38.1	73.0
Undecided	3.00	6	9.5	82.5
Disagree	4.00	8	12.7	95.2
Strongly Disagree	5.00	3	4.8	100.0
No Response	99.00	2	3.1	

Mean 3.86 Std dev 1.176

16) I am motivated by the respect trust and empathy I receive from those in the workplace.

					Valid	Cum	
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent	
Strongly	Aaree		1.00	31	48.4	48.4	
Agree			2.00	29	45.3	93.8	
Undecide	ed		3.00	2	3.1	96.9	
Disagree			4.00	2	3.1	100.0	
No Resp			99.00	1			
Mean	4.39	Std dev	.704				

Valid cases 64

17) Reforming the educational program and school structure is a source of motivation to me as a teacher.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Strongly Agree	1.00	29	44.6	44.6
Agree	2.00	22	33.8	78.5
Undecided	3.00	6	9.2	87.7
Disagree	4.00	5	7.7	95.4
Strongly Disagree	5.00	3	4.6	100.0
Mean 4.06 Std dev	1.130	1	alid Cases 6	5

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1) Does your principal involve you in the decision making process

					Valid	Cum
Value La	ibel		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Yes			1.00	27	41.5	41.5
No			2.00	38	58.5	100.0
Mean	1.585	Std dev	.497			

Valid cases 65

2) Do you feel involvement in the decision making process at your school improves your attitude and commitment to your school?

			Label	Frequency	Percent
Yes			1.00	55	84.6
No			2.00	10	15.4
Mean	1.154	Std dev	.364		

Valid cases 65

3) Does your principal offer you professional growth activities?

					Valid
Value La	abel		Value	Frequency	Percent
Yes			1.00	44	67.7
No		2.00	21	32.3	
Mean	1.323	Std dev	.471		

Valid cases 65

4) Do you feel an adequate amount of professional growth activities are offered to you at your school?

					Valid
			Value	Frequency	Percent
Yes			1.00	46	70.8
No			2.00	19	29.2
			and the second second		
Mean	1.292	Std dev	.458		
Valid cas	ses 65				
vanu out					

5) Are you recognised for the positive job you do in your school and/or classroom?

					Valid	
			Value	Frequency	Percent	
Yes			1.00	54	85.7	
No			2.00	9	14.3	
No Resp	onse		99.00	2		
	4.440	0111	050			
Mean	1.143	Std dev	.353			

Valid cases 63

6) Are you pleased with the amount of recognition you get from the principal for the job you do?

Yes No			Value 1.00 2.00	Frequency 35 27	Percent 56.5 43.5
			99.00	3	-
Mean	1.435	Std dev	.500		

Valid cases 62

7) Do you feel the amount of recognition you receive for the job you do improves your attitude and commitment to your school?

				Valid	
		Value	Frequency	Percent	
Yes		1.00	53	82.8	
No		2.00	11	17.2	
No Response		99.00	1		
Mean 1.17	2 Std dev	.380			
Valid cases 6	4 No Respons	e cases	52		

Appendix 5

Appendices

8) Is the principal the main motivator in your daily work?

0,10					Valid	Cum
			Label	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Yes			1.00	9	13.8	13.8
No			2.00	56	86.2	100.0
			Total	65	100.0	
Mean	1.862	Std dev	.348			

65 Valid cases

9) Are the children in your care the main motivators in your job? Cum Valid Percent Percent Frequency Value 93.8 93.8 61 1.00 Yes 100.0 6.2 4 2.00 No

1.256 Std dev 1.215 Mean

No Response cases 51 65 Valid cases

al that being treated as a professional person is a major motivator?

Yes No No Resp			Value 1.00 2.00	Frequency 42 22 1	Percent 64.6 33.8 1.5	Valid	Cum Percent 65.6 100.0
Mean	1.344	Std dev	.479				

64 Valid cases

11) Do you feel that working in a team involving the teachers and the principal improves your work motivation?

Value Lahel

Value

Frequency

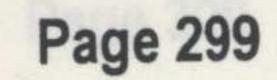
54

Valid Percent

Value Label			70 0	
Yes	1.00	45	72.6	
	2.00	17	27.4	
No				
No Response	99.00	3		

.450 Std dev 1.274 Mean

No Response cases 62 Valid cases



12) Do you feel content when you work with a principal who is highly educated and aware of educational issues?

1) Maline two feel o		Value	Frequency	Percent	
Yes		1.00	64	98.5	
No		2.00	1	1.5	
Mean 1.015	Std dev	.124			
Mcan noro		4.00			
Valid cases 65	No Respons	se cases	51		

13) Do you feel the general restructuring of schools improves your attitudes towards teaching?

					Vallu
			Label	Frequency	Percent
Yes			1.00	53	82.8
No			2.00	11	17.2
No Respo	onse		99.00	1	
Mean	1.172	Std dev	.380		

Valid cases 64

14) Do you feel your participation in inservices improves your attitude and motivation in teaching?

				_	Valid	
			Value	Frequency	Percent	
Yes			1.00	57	87.7	
No			2.00	8	12.3	
Mean	1.123	Std dev	.331			

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONS

1) Makes	s me feel	ready to sacr	ifice my own	self-interests fo	or the good o	of the group.
Always			1.00		Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	15	23.1	23.1
Often			2.00	26	40.0	63.1
Sometim	es		3.00	17	26.2	89.2
Rarely			4.00	1	1.5	90.8
Never			5.00	6	9.2	100.0
Mean	3.67	Std dev	1.136			

Valid cases 65

2) Finds out what I want and tries to help me.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	14	21.5	21.5
Often			2.00	18	27.7	49.2
Sometim	es		3.00	17	26.2	75.4
Rarely			4.00	9	13.8	89.2
Never			5.00	7	10.8	100.0
Mean	3.35	Std dev	1.268			

Valid cases 65

3) Shows interest and respect towards my word.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always	1.00	28	43.1	43.1
Often	2.00	24	36.9	80.0
Sometimes	3.00	4	6.2	86.2
Rarely	4.00	6	9.2	95.4
Never S.27 Side	5.00	3	4.6	100.0

1.138

Mean 4.05 Std dev

4) Is a good team player

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
		1.00	22	33.8	33.8
		2.00	25	38.5	72.3
s		3.00	12	18.5	90.8
		4.00	3	4.6	95.4
		5.00	3	4.6	100.0
3.92	Std dev	1.065			
	s 3.92		1.00 2.00 3.00 4.00 5.00	1.00 22 2.00 25 3.00 12 4.00 3 5.00 3	Value Frequency Percent 1.00 22 33.8 2.00 25 38.5 3.00 12 18.5 4.00 3 4.6 5.00 3 4.6

Valid cases 65

5) Recognises me when I perform well.

Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
1.00	14	21.5	21.5
2.00	25	38.5	60.0
3.00	19	29.2	89.2
4.00	5	7.7	96.9
5.00	2	3.1	100.0
	1.00 2.00 3.00 4.00	1.00142.00253.00194.005	1.001421.52.002538.53.001929.24.0057.7

Valia

Mean 3.68 Std dev 1.002 Valid cases 65

6) Rewards those involved when tasks are completed

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	9	14.1	14.1
Often			2.00	18	28.1	42.2
Sometimes			3.00	24	37.5	79.7
Rarely			4.00	7	10.9	90.6
Never			5.00	6	9.4	100.0
No Response		99.00	1			
Mean	3.27	Std dev	1.130			

2.....

Valid

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7) Looks out for the personal welfare of individuals.

						valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency		Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	8	6.9	12.5	12.5
Often			2.00	5	4.3	7.8	20.3
Sometim	nes		3.00	23	19.8	35.9	56.3
Rarely			4.00	12	10.3	18.8	75.0
Never			5.00	16	13.8	25.0	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1			
Mean	2.64	Std dev	1.289				

Valid cases 64

8) Keeps the staff well informed

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	15	23.8	23.8
Often			2.00	14	22.2	46.0
Sometim	es		3.00	15	23.8	69.8
Rarely			4.00	14	22.2	92.1
Never			5.00	5	7.9	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	2		
Mean	3.32	Std dev	1.280			
A starting						

Valid cases 63

9) Is willing to make changes.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always	1.00	24	37.5	37.5
Often	2.00	24	37.5	75.0
Sometimes	3.00	11	17.2	92.2
Rarely	4.00	5	7.8	100.0
No Response	99.00	1		
Mean 4.05 Std dev	.933			

10) Offers staff the opportunity to participate in professional development activities.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	26	40.0	40.0
Often			2.00	21	32.3	72.3
Sometim	es		3.00	10	15.4	87.7
Rarely			4.00	4	6.2	93.8
Never			5.00	4	6.2	100.0
				•		
Mean	3.94	Std dev	1.171			

Valid cases 65

11) Runs staff meetings successfully.

		Valid	Cum
Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
1.00	30	46.9	46.9
2.00	16	25.0	71.9
3.00	10	15.6	87.5
4.00	3	4.7	92.2
5.00	5	7.8	100.0
99.00	1		
v 1.241			
	1.00 2.00 3.00 4.00 5.00 99.00	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	ValueFrequencyPercent1.003046.92.001625.03.001015.64.0034.75.0057.899.001

Valid cases 64

12) Encourages everyone to share in decision making

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	10	15.6	15.6
Often			2.00	18	28.1	43.8
Sometim	es		3.00	21	32.8	76.6
Rarely			4.00	5	7.8	84.4
Never			5.00	10	15.6	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1		
Mean	3.20	Std dev	1.262			

13) Makes most of the decisions without consultations of teachers.

			Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Never			1.00	14	21.5	21.5
Rarely			2.00	15	23.1	44.6
Sometim	ies		3.00	20	30.8	75.4
Often			4.00	7	10.8	86.2
Always			5.00	9	13.8	100.0
Mean	3.28	Std dev	1.305			

Valid cases 65

14) Motivates me by his/her educational model

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always	1.00	13	20.3	20.3
Often	2.00	14	21.9	42.2
Sometimes	3.00	18	28.1	70.3
Rarely	4.00	12	18.8	89.1
Never	5.00	7	10.9	100.0
No Response	99.00	1		
Mean 3.22 Std dev	1.278			

Valid cases 64

7) Ere im us with higher implemention of new curriculum contant and structure

15) Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	12	19.0	19.0
Often			2.00	16	25.4	44.4
Sometim	les		3.00	16	25.4	69.8
Rarely			4.00	14	22.2	92.1
Never			5.00	5	7.9	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	2		
Mean	3.25	Std dev	1.231			

Valid cases 63

16) Excites us with his/her vision of school restructuring

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	23	36.5	36.5
Often			2.00	15	23.8	60.3
Sometim	es		3.00	8	12.7	73.0
Rarely			4.00	10	15.9	88.9
Never			5.00	7	11.1	100.0
No respo	onse		99.00	2		
Mean	3.59	Std dev	1.410			

Valid cases 63

17) Excites us with his/her implemention of new curriculum content and structure.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Always			1.00	15	26.3	26.3
Often			2.00	20	35.1	61.4
Sometim	les		3.00	9	15.8	77.2
Rarely			4.00	11	19.3	96.5
Never			5.00	2	3.5	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	8		
Mean	3.61	Std dev	1.176			

SATISFACTION QUESTIONS

1) Being somebody in the school community

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	tisfied		1.00	27	42.2	42.2
Satisfied			2.00	34	53.1	95.3
Undecide	ed		3.00	1	1.6	96.9
Dissatisf	ied		4.00	2	3.1	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1		
Mean	4.34	Std dev	.672			

Valid cases 64

2) The way my principal handles his/her workers.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied	1.00	19	29.7	29.7
Satisfied	2.00	36	56.3	85.9
Undecided	3.00	5	7.8	93.8
Disatisfied	4.00	2	3.1	96.9
Very Disatisfied	5.00	2	3.1	100.0
No Response	99.00	1		
Mean 4.06 Std dev	.889			

Valid cases 64

3) The competence of my principal in making decisions.

			200	31	Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied	ł		1.00	20	31.3	31.3
Satisfied			2.00	25	39.1	70.3
Undecided			3.00	13	20.3	90.6
Disatisfied			4.00	3	4.7	95.3
Very Disatisfi	ed		5.00	3	4.7	100.0
No Response			99.00	1		
Mean 3	.88	Std dev	1.062			

Appendix 5

4) My pay and the amount of work I do.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	tisfied		1.00	10	15.9	15.9
Satisfied	1		2.00	21	33.3	49.2
Undecid	ed		3.00	8	12.7	61.9
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	16	25.4	87.3
Very Dis	atisfied		5.00	8	12.7	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	2		
Mean	3.14	Std dev	1.318			

Valid cases 63

5) The freedom to use my own judgement

	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Very Satisfied	1.00	12	18.5	18.5
Satisfied	2.00	31	47.7	66.2
Undecided	3.00	12	18.5	84.6
Disatisfied	4.00	10	15.4	100.0
Mean 3.69 Std dev	.951			

Valid cases 65

6) The working conditions.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	tisfied		1.00	14	22.2	22.2
Satisfied			2.00	31	49.2	71.4
Undecide	ed		3.00	10	15.9	87.3
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	8	12.7	100.0
Very Dis	atisfied		99.00	2		
Mean	3.81	Std dev	.931			

7) The way my co-workers get along with each other.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	isfied		1.00	13	20.6	20.6
Satisfied			2.00	30	47.6	68.3
Undecide	ed		3.00	18	28.6	96.8
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	2	3.2	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	2		
Mean	3.86	Std dev	.780			

Valid cases 63

8) The praise I get from doing the job

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	isfied		1.00	13	20.0	20.0
Satisfied			2.00	29	44.6	64.6
Undecide	ed		3.00	14	21.5	86.2
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	7	10.8	96.9
Very Dis	atisfied		5.00	2	3.1	100.0
Mean	3.68	Std dev	1.017			

Valid cases 65

9) The feeling of accomplishment I get from doing the job.

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied	1.00	29	45.3	45.3
Satisfied	2.00	29	45.3	90.6
Undecided	3.00	5	7.8	98.4
Disatisfied	4.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Response	99.00	1		
Mean 4.34 Std dev	.695			

10) Changing students' attitudes and behaviour in a positive way

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied		1.00	31	48.4	48.4
Satisfied		2.00	27	42.2	90.6
Undecided		3.00	4	6.3	96.9
Disatisfied		4.00	1	1.6	98.4
Very Disatisfied		5.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Response		99.00	1		
Mean 4.34	Std dev	.801			

Valid cases 64

11) Working with a well qualified and experienced principal who has a clear vision of the school.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	isfied		1.00	34	53.1	53.1
Satisfied			2.00	24	37.5	90.6
Undecide	ed		3.00	4	6.3	96.9
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	1	1.6	98.4
Very Disa	atisfied		5.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1		
Mean	4.40	Std dev	.809			

Valid cases 64

12) My relationship with my colleagues at my school

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	isfied		1.00	20	31.3	31.3
Satisfied			2.00	38	59.4	90.6
Undecide	ed		3.00	5	7.8	98.4
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1		
Mean	4.20	Std dev	.647			

Mean 4.20 Std dev

13) The feeling of belonging, teamwork and collegiality at my school.

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied		1.00	28	43.8	43.8
Satisfied		2.00	31	48.4	92.2
Undecided		3.00	3	4.7	96.9
Disatisfied		4.00	1	1.6	98.4
Very Disatisfied		5.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Response		99.00	1		
Mean 4.31	Std dev	.774			

Valid cases 64

14) The quality of principalship in my school

			Valid	Cum
	Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied	1.00	18	28.1	28.1
Satisfied	2.00	35	54.7	82.8
Undecided	3.00	4	6.3	89.1
Disatisfied	4.00	4	6.3	95.3
Very Disatisfied	5.00	3	4.7	100.0
No Response	99.00	1		
Mean 3.95 Std dev	1.015			

Valid cases 64

15) The amount of acknowledgement I receive for my efforts.

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied		1.00	10	15.6	15.6
Satisfied		2.00	30	46.9	62.5
Undecided		3.00	11	17.2	79.7
Disatisfied		4.00	10	15.6	95.3
Very Disatisfied		5.00	3	4.7	100.0
No Response		99.00	1		
Mean 3.53	Std dev	1.083			

Mean 3.53 Std dev

16) The process of restructuring.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfie	d		1.00	13	20.0	20.0
Satisfied			2.00	29	44.6	64.6
Undecided			3.00	16	24.6	89.2
Disatisfied			4.00	7	10.8	100.0
Mean 3	3.74	Std dev	.906			

Valid cases 65

17) The way promotion on merit has occurred in my school.

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied		1.00	9	14.5	14.5
Satisfied		2.00	31	50.0	64.5
Undecided		3.00	14	22.6	87.1
Disatisfied		4.00	7	11.3	98.4
Very Disatisfied		5.00	1	1.6	100.0
No Response		99.00	3		
Mean 3.65	Std dev	.925			

Valid cases 62

18) The amount of activities promoting professional growth provided at my school.

				Valid	Cum
		Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Satisfied		1.00	13	20.0	20.0
Satisfied		2.00	22	33.8	53.8
Undecided		3.00	11	16.9	70.8
Disatisfied		4.00	17	26.2	96.9
Very Disatisfied		5.00	2	3.1	100.0
Mean 3.42 \$	Std dev	1.171			

19) The respect, trust and support I receive from other staff at my school.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	tisfied		1.00	19	29.7	29.7
Satisfied			2.00	28	43.8	73.4
Undecid	ed		3.00	14	21.9	95.3
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	1	1.6	96.9
Very Dis	atisfied		5.00	2	3.1	100.0
No Resp	onse		99.00	1		
Mean	3.95	Std dev	.933			

Valid cases 64

20) The progress of curriculum reform.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	tisfied		1.00	10	15.4	15.4
Satisfied			2.00	30	46.2	61.5
Undecide	ed		3.00	14	21.5	83.1
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	11	16.9	100.0
Mean	3.60	Std dev	.949			

Valid cases 65

21) The amount of involvement in the decision making process at my school.

					Valid	Cum
			Value	Frequency	Percent	Percent
Very Sat	isfied		1.00	6	9.4	9.4
Satisfied			2.00	20	31.3	40.6
Undecide	ed		3.00	18	28.1	68.8
Disatisfie	ed		4.00	14	21.9	90.6
Very Dis	atisfied		5.00	6	9.4	100.0
No Resp			99.00	1		
Mean	3.09	Std dev	1.137			

APPENDICES

Australian school system

Australian schools in the late of 10⁴ century were conducted by chardles and other groups and later by the State (King and Young, 1960). Since then, the organizational structure of schools and actival systems has changed and developed. Today, Australia has two main schooling sectors, the government school system and the non-government school system. The government plays a central rate in Australian aducation and has constituted a responsibility for providing subcation to all colliders of school age, regardless of physical and interfectual shifty, rectifies and scoreins by an information of school age, regardless of physical and interfectual shifty,

Responsibility for Australian actualing is shared among the Commonwealth Government, six State Governments and two Territory Governments. The State Moreters for Education are responsible typic are responsible for actual and secondary schooling to all interferes of actual age. In periodical, they are responsible for actual and teacher registration policies and processes, system entropy of policies, dotermitiation of control/ors content, course accurations and certification procedures, includes of stational accurations and teacher registration entropyment and stations certification procedures, includes of stational accurations and teacher employment and stations collicies (stational Report of Schooling in Australia, 1994).

The Australian school system plays a critical role in providing the iour dations for a highly skilled fexible and production isofatorce and in providing the basis for a well informed and converte

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Appendix 6.

Australian school system

Australian schools in the late of 19th century were conducted by churches and other groups and later by the State (King and Young, 1986). Since then, the organisational structure of schools and school systems has changed and developed. Today, Australia has two main schooling sectors: the government school system and the non-government school system. The government plays a central role in Australian education and has constitutional responsibility for providing education to all children of school age, regardless of physical and intellectual ability, social and economic circumstances, cultural background and beliefs.

Responsibility for Australian schooling is shared among the Commonwealth Government, six State Governments and two Territory Governments. The State Ministers for Education are responsible for the provision of primary and secondary schooling to all students of school age. In particular, they are responsible for school and teacher registration policies and processes, student enrolment policies, determination of curriculum content, course accreditation and certification procedures, methods of student assessment and teacher employment and staffing policies (National Report of Schooling in Australia, 1994).

The Commonwealth Government plays an important role in schooling more broadly at the national level. Its responsibility is to promote national consistency and coherence in the provision of schooling in the context of a nation undergoing significant social and economic adjustment. In cooperation with the State Governments, through general, recurrent and specific purpose programs, the Commonwealth Government plays a significant role in addressing resource, equity and quality issues. The Commonwealth Government also has specific responsibilities to ensure the proper education of Aboriginal people and migrants, in addition to being responsible for international relations in education.

The Australian school system plays a critical role in providing the foundations for a highly skilled, flexible and productive workforce and in providing the basis for a well informed and cohesive

society. In order to strengthen the Australian school system, the State Governments and the Commonwealth Government have identified a set of national goals for schooling and are developing cooperative approaches to priority areas such as school curriculum, reporting on the outcomes of education and the quality of teaching.

National goals

In 1989, a new set of national goals for schooling was launched. The goals, delineated in clear objectives, constitute a solid foundation for the Australian school system and aim to achieve important educational outcomes for all Australian primary and secondary school students. These goals are periodically reviewed by the Australian Education Council, by means of a consultative process involving both government and non-government schools, parents, teachers and the community.

The Australian national goals for schooling (National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1989, pp. III - IV) are as follows:

- To provide and excellent education for all young people one which develops their talents and capacities to full potential and is relevant to the social, cultural and economic needs of the nation.
- To enable all students to achieve high standards of learning and to develop self confidence, optimism, high self-esteem, respect for others, and achievement of personal excellence.
- To promote equality of educational opportunities, and to provide for groups with special learning requirements.
- 4. To respond to current and emerging economic and social needs of the nation, and to provide those skills which allow students maximum flexibility and adaptability in their future employment and other aspects of life.
- To provide a foundation to future education and training, in terms of knowledge and skills, respect for learning and positive attitudes for life-long education.
- 6. To develop in students:

- skills in English literacy, including skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing;
- skills in numeracy, and other mathematical skills;
- skills in analysis and problem solving;
- skills in information processing and computing;
- understanding of the role of the science and technology in society, together with scientific and technological skills;
- knowledge and appreciation of Australia's historical and geographical context;
- knowledge of languages other than English;
- appreciation and understanding of, and confidence to participate in, the creative arts;
- understanding of, and concern for, balanced development and the global environment; and
- capacity to exercise judgement in matters of morality, ethics and social justice.
- To develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which will enable students to participate as active and informed citizens in an Australian democratic society within an international context.
- 8. To provide students with an understanding and respect for Australia's cultural heritage including the particular cultural background of Aboriginal and ethnic groups.
- To provide for the physical development and personal health and fitness of students and for the creative use of leisure time.
- 10. To provide appropriate career education and knowledge of the world of work, including an understanding of the nature and place of work in our society.

The primary objectives of the different states for 1995 (National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1995) are closely related to the national goals. The strategy contains a broad range of objectives aimed at improving the quality of learning and teaching in Australian schools. These include:

- Curriculum: to meet the needs of pupils in a world of change and to enhance students' opportunities for a plethora of employment and lifestyles options.
- The learning environment: to ensure positive learning environments by providing parents with clear information on their children's learning progress as well as about safety and security issues.
- Equity: to provide appropriate facilities to pupils with particular needs and learning difficulties and support for pupils of a non-English speaking background.
- Parents and community involvement: to enhance mutual relationships by giving the parents and community the opportunity to have a say in the teaching and learning programs offered at schools.
- Educational services: to improve efficiency by changing structures and to develop accountability through the improvement of quality assurance.
- School staff: to ensure the continuing improvement of educational quality through professional development and to increase the involvement of staff in decision making and leadership.

In turn, all states have developed their own goals and strategies in order to meet the needs of students and society according to the social and economic context of each state.

In relation to the shared goal of excellence and equity, the National Report on Schooling in Australia (1994, p. 6) places a particular emphasis on increasing encouragement and support to all students in various areas. In addition, the National Strategy for Equity and Schooling establishes a set of categories of students who require additional support and resources to improve their educational outcomes. These categories are:

- 1. students with disability, difficulties in learning and/or emotional or behavioural disorders;
- 2. students at risk of dropping out of school;
- 3. students from low socio-economic status backgrounds (SES) or living in poverty;
- 4. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students;

- students from non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB) who need English as a Second Language (ESL) assistance; and,
- 6. students who are geographically isolated.

State and Territory school systems

The Australian school system is currently undergoing great change. State and territory education systems are devolving responsibility to individual schools. Schools and TAFE colleges are working together to provide improved opportunities for students, in terms of emphasising education to enhance employment prospects.

Of the two major schooling sectors in Australia, government schools are under the administration of the States' Ministries of Education. State Governments have constitutional "responsibility for providing school education to all children of school age, of whatever physical and intellectual ability, social and economic circumstances, cultural background and beliefs. Parents, however, have the right to choose non-government schooling for their children and many do so for educational, religious, cultural or other reasons" (National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1991, p.1, cited in Turney et al. 1993).

Non-government schools, which function under conditions determined by government registration authorities, are required to fulfil particular state requirements in relation to the establishment of schools, the quality of facilities, the salary level of teachers and the curriculum that is offered. They are also responsible for policies and processes in the areas of school and teacher registration, teacher employment, student enrolment, curriculum content, course accreditation and student assessment.

It is crucial to note that there are smaller systems, usually associated with religious denominations and a number of independent schools that are not a part of the system in the true sense of the term. (Turney et al. 1993). All schools, however, at the secondary level offer a curriculum that meets the requirements of the State for the award of the Higher School Certificate.

The structure of schools varies among the different states and territories. Schooling is compulsory from ages six to 15 in all states and territories except Tasmania, where the minimum school leaving age extends to 16. Most students begin school by entering a kindergarten or preparatory year around the age of five (National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1993). Primary education is either six or seven years in duration, depending on the states concerned. Secondary education is provided for either five or six years, depending on the length of the primary schooling in that particular state. Students ordinarily commence secondary school at about age 12. The majority of government secondary schools are co-educational but a significant number of non-government schools are single sex.

It is impossible to review the movements in education that have been occurring throughout each state. Rather, it is planned to outline elements common to all states, such as the structure of schooling as shown in Table 3 below.

Approximate Age	Year Level	NSW, Vic, Tas, ACT	SA, NT	Qld, WA
17	12			
16	11	ants can choose at	o a war ne ye a	and the oblight
15	10	SECONDARY	SECONDARY	SECONDARY
14	9			
13	8	1, Science, Technic	logy, Mathematica,	Studios of Block
12	7	Manny Inchasting	Survey Carles	next and Physics
11	6		Chronie Principal	event serie i ulan
10	5	ning in Australia, 19	94, cited in McGin	r, 1097). Studen
9	4		a la companya de	
8	3	PRIMARY	PRIMARY	PRIMARY
7	2	These key learning	interes there have not	ino courses offer
6	1			
5	Pre-year 1	(a)	(b)	

Table 3: The Structure Of Primary And Secondary Schooling In Australia

Note: (a) Pre-year 1 is known as Kindergarten (K) in NSW and the ACT, and Preparatory (P) in Vic and Tas. (b) Pre-year 1 is known as Reception (R) in SA, and Transition (T) in the NT.

Source: Turney C., Hatton N., Laws K., Philps R., and Teo R., (1993). <u>Closing the gaps</u>, Sydmac academic Press, Australia, p.22.

Teacher education

Universities in each state offer courses for Australian teachers to attend. Each university seeks to meet the needs of beginning teachers as well as meet the demand for postgraduate education. Courses tend to be specialised and aim at preparing students for roles in a particular field or level of teaching. At the same time teachers are well equipped to cope with the rapid and ongoing changes which characterise teaching now and will influence it in the decades to come.

Professional development and upgrading qualifications are considered important factors in the long-term career prospects for teachers. For their professional development, teachers attend seminars and courses conducted by subject associations or continue their university studies. The majority of Australian teachers hold some kind of university degree.

Australian national curriculum

Each Australian state offers a plethora of courses. New South Wales students for the 1996 Higher School Certificate, for instance, were able to chose from 145 Board of Studies developed courses (McGaw, 1997). While students can choose from a wide range of subject options, all students in all states must study courses from eight different areas. These are English, Languages other than English (LOTE), Science, Technology, Mathematics, Studies of Society and the Environment, the Arts and Health, including Personal Development and Physical Education (National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1994, cited in McGaw, 1997). Students choose their subjects according to their interests but with the intention of laying a foundation for future work and study. Within each of these key learning areas there are many courses offered which vary according to the goals of each state.

oppendix 7

APPENDICES

Lahanasa school system

As a consequence of the over the Lebence between 1975 and 1991; the quality of Lebence education meters has been protocolly diministed. This is evident in the increasing number of explained features, the lack of school administratory skills, the debitating lack of resources, the destruction of action buildings and the kidnepping and arrest of teachers and procipula (Tencors, 14, 1995). With the end of the distance in 1991, the Republic of Lebence initiates a move towards educational reform in order to remedy the destruction to the telescore techest syntem during the war. Much emphasis to new placed on the metodowing of actions, the inclusion during the war. Much emphasis to new placed on the metodowing of actions, the

The National Center to Educational Personnich and Cevelopment established the principles and puddition for the coversition structure and curriculum and was developed in accordance with the guidelines set by the Lebanova Ministry of National Education, Youly and Scotta in the 'Plan for Educational Reform 1994', and the 'New Framework for Education in Lebanon 1995' The role of education in developing the Lebonese student as a human being, member of excisive and national citizen is stressed in addition to be cate in developing cultural operators, everyness and exchange. The aniqueness and romans of Lebanese history and culture is adiacated ged and valued.

School structure

APPENDIX 7

The contemporary action structure, effective fance twick, encomposites students from the aper four to the age of eighteen years. The structure comprises four levels: the Kindurguyten level its equivalent), the Elementary level (Frimagy school), the Intermediate level and the Veccedo extend level.

Appendix 7.

Lebanese school system

As a consequence of the civil war in Lebanon between 1975 and 1991, the quality of Lebanese education system has been profoundly diminished. This is evident in the increasing number of untrained teachers, the lack of school administrators' skills, the debilitating lack of resources, the destruction of school buildings and the kidnapping and arrest of teachers and principals (Tannous, H. 1996). With the end of the civil war in 1991, the Republic of Lebanon initiated a move towards educational reform in order to remedy the damage done to the Lebanese school system during the war. Much emphasis is now placed on the restructuring of schools, the implementation of new curricula and the physical rebuilding of schools.

The National Centre for Educational Research and Development established the principles and guidelines for the new school structure and curriculum and was developed in accordance with the guidelines set by the Lebanese Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports in the "Plan for Educational Reform 1994", and the "New Framework for Education in Lebanon 1995". The role of education in developing the Lebanese student as a human being, member of society and national citizen is stressed in addition to its role in developing cultural openness, awareness and exchange. The uniqueness and richness of Lebanese history and culture is acknowledged and valued.

School structure

The contemporary school structure, effective since 1995, encompasses students from the age of four to the age of eighteen years. The structure comprises four levels: the Kindergarten level (or its equivalent), the Elementary level (Primary school), the Intermediate level and the Secondary school level.

1. Kindergarten level

The principle aim of this stage is to aid transition between the home and school environments, ensuring a smooth change from familiar to unfamiliar surroundings. Pupils are encouraged to interact with their peers of the same age and self-confidence is encouraged during their introduction to reading and writing. Independence and responsibility are promoted through experimentation with the environment and culture of the school.

Two sub-strands exist at this level: Kindergarten One and Kindergarten Two. Pupils complete one year at each level. To be eligible for Kindergarten One, pupils are required to be four years of age by 31st December of the calendar year preceding enrolment.

Pupils at this stage spend a minimum of four hours a day at school, five days a week. During this period, the curriculum reflects recreation time being dominated by activities that encourage creative expression (particularly dancing, music and drawing).

2. Elementary (Primary) school

This stage takes six years to complete. Pupils begin at six years of age and complete the stage by age 12. Elementary school is sub-divided into two strands each constituting three years. Attendance for six hours per day, thirty hours per week is required. As with the Intermediate school, Elementary school is considered one of the basic levels of schooling. This is the initial compulsory stage of schooling for all citizens. It consists of two phases. Phase one involves grades one, two, and three, while phase two involves grades four, five, and six. To be eligible for enrolment, pupils must be six years of age before 31st of December of the year preceding enrolment.

This stage emphasises the development of the reading, writing and communication skills of the pupils. Introduction to the fields of science, health, physical education, and the environment are the norm. General knowledge of history, geography and Lebanese culture is provided. Basic qualities of self confidence, independence and the importance of respecting others is highlighted at this stage.

Pupils in phase one attend classes five days a week, with six hours a day spent at school, with a minimum period allowance of forty-five minutes. Opportunities are provided for an increase in this period allowance for phase two students.

Table 4 below shows the distribution of subjects and periods per week for the Elementary (Primary) School.

Subjects Year/Level	Arabic Language	Foreign Language	Civics, History	Science	Maths	Arts/ Activities	Health/ Sports	Periods/ week
One	7	7	3	2	5	4	2	30
Two	7	7	3	2	5	4	2	30
Three	7	7	3	3	5	3	2	30
Four	6	6	3	4	5	4	2	30
Five	6	6	3	4	5	4	2	30
Six	6	6	3	5	5	3	2	30

Table 4: Distribution Of Subjects And Period	s For Lebanese Elementary (Primary) Schools
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Source: The Minister of Education, Youth & Sport, (1995). The new framework for education in Lebanon, Beirut, p 47.

3. Intermediate school

This stage comprises a period of three years where pupils are encouraged to accentuate the technical, creative, and imaginative facets of human life. Introduction to computer studies, a second foreign language, and further investigation into the world of science are characteristic study pursuits of this stage. The Intermediate level consists of three years from grade seven to grade nine. These grades are considered complementary to elementary schooling. Compulsory attendance by all citizens is required at the Intermediate school as with Elementary schooling. This is known as 'basic' or 'essential' education.

Pupils are equipped at this level with the knowledge and skills which will enable them to become active, educated citizens. Introductions are made to public life in general, and to the immediate society in which they abide.

Numeracy and literacy standards are also improved at this level. Overall, pupils become equipped to think scientifically and to develop selective vocabulary that facilitates knowledge and clarifies perceptions. Experience is also gained in computer studies which is fundamental to technology studies.

The students are required to attend classes on five days a week for a total of 34 hours per week; each period has a minimum duration of 50 minutes at the Intermediate level.

Table 5 below shows the distribution of subjects and periods per week for the Intermediate level.

Subjects Year/ Level	Arabic Language	Foreign Language	2nd Foreign Language	Civic, History Geography		Maths	Technology Computer	Arts/ Activities	P.E.	Periods per week
Seven	6	6	2	3	6	5	2	2	2	34
Eight	6	6	2	3	6	5	2	2	2	34
Nine	6	6	2	3	6	5	2	2	2	34

Table 5: Distribution Of Subjects And Periods For Lebanese Intermediate Schools

Source: The Ministry of National Education, Youth & Sport, (1995). The new framework for education in Lebanon, Beirut, p. 51.

4. Secondary school

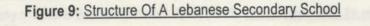
Secondary schooling is held in high esteem in the Lebanese educational system. At this level pupils are assisted in academic development and are provided with the opportunity to undertake future career planning, either vocational or academic. Students who have successfully completed the Intermediate level are automatically eligible for the secondary level. This level consists of three years: First, Second and Third which ends with a final compulsory official national exam. At the completion of the three years, students who successfully matriculate will araduate with a "higher school certificate", or the "Baccalaureat".

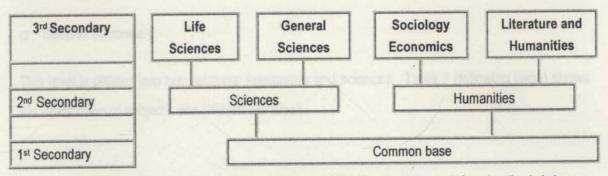
The principle objective of Secondary school is to have students learn to apply the knowledge they are gaining in the educational institution to outside society in general. This desired outcome

is achieved by providing students with the necessary knowledge and skills to make informed decisions in relation to ongoing university studies, or future career paths.

In addition to this principle objective, this stage strives to foster in pupils a philosophical understanding that nourishes and guides their personalities in a spiritual, moral and social manner. The Secondary level encourages pupils to uphold these values and to exercise them (with much respect) whilst operating within the wider community.

Equally, students are cognitively challenged with exposure to economic issues, computing and higher forms of mathematics, in addition to challenges posed by studies in philosophy, literature and civics education. Figure 9 below illustrates the structure of the secondary school.





Source: The Ministry of National Education, Youth & Sport, (1995). <u>The new framework for education in Lebanon</u>, Beirut, p. 55.

The timetable for three years of secondary schooling is divided as following:

First Secondary.

This year is considered to be the common base of secondary education. In it are contained all the necessary subjects which will eventually help students to choose their major for the following two years.

Table 6 (following page) shows the distribution of subjects and periods per week.

Table 6: Distribution Of Subjects And Periods In The First Secondary School Level Of Lebanese

High Schools

Subjects	Periods per week	Subjects	Periods per week	
Arabic literature	5	Foreign Literature	5	
Second Foreign Language	2	Sociology and Economics	2	
Civics	1	History	1	
Geography	2	Mathematics	5	
Physics	3	Chemistry	2	
Biology	2	Technology	1	
Informatics	1	Physical Education	2	
Arts	1		1.	

Source: The Ministry of National Education, Youth & Sport, (1995). <u>The new framework for education in Lebanon</u>, Beirut, p. 56.

Second Secondary

This level is divided into two sections: humanities and sciences. Table 7 (following page) shows the distribution of subjects and periods per week.

Table 7: Distribution Of Subjects And Periods In The Second Secondary School Level Of

Subjects	2 nd Secondary Humanities	2 nd Secondary Sciences Periods / week		
	Periods / week			
Arabic Language and Translation	6	3		
Foreign Language and Translation	6	Science 3		
Second Foreign Language	2	2		
Philosophy and Civilisation	3	2		
Sociology and Economics	3	2		
Civics	1	1 2		
History	1	1		
Geography	2	1		
Mathematics	4	6		
Culture	3			
Physics	- 2	5		
Chemistry	-2	3		
Biology		2		
Technology	1	1		
Informatics	1	/ 1		
Physical Education	1	1		
Arts	1	1		

Lebanese High Schools

Source: The Ministry of National Education, Youth & Sports, (1995). <u>The new framework for education in Lebanon</u>, Beirut, pp. 57-58.

Third Secondary

This level is divided into four sections: Literature and Humanities, Sociology and Economics, General Sciences and Life Sciences. Students at this level spend seven periods a day at school for 35 periods a week with a minimum duration of 50 minutes per period.

Table 8 below shows the subjects studied and the number of periods per week Lebanese students have for these subjects.

Table 8: Distribution Of Subjects And Periods In Third Seconda	ry School Level Of Lebanese
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High Schools

Subjects	Literature and Humanities	Sociology and Economics	General Sciences	Life Sciences
	Periods	Periods	Periods	Periods per
	per week	per week	per week	week
Arabic Literature and Translation	6	4	2	2
Foreign Literature	6	4	2	2
Second Foreign Language	2	2	2	2
Philosophy and Civilisation	9	3	2	2
Civics	1	rele print 1	1	1
History	1	1	1	1
Geography	2	1	1	1
Mathematics	2	4	10	5
Informatics	1	1	1	1
Physical Education	1	1	1	1
Arts	1	1 /	1	1
Culture	3	4	- 1	1 I
Sociology and Economics	-	8	-	
Physics		- 5	7	5
Chemistry		-	4	5
Biology		a second the first second		6

Source: The Ministry of National Education, Youth & Sport (1995). <u>The new framework for education in Lebanon</u>, Beirut, pp. 59-62.

Figure 10 (following page) illustrates the structure of primary and secondary school in Lebanon.

		YEAR	LEVEL		Approx. Age
Secondary	3 rd Secondary Literature and Humanities	3 rd Secondary Sociology and Economics	3 rd Secondary General Sciences	3 rd Secondary Life Sciences	18
School	2 nd Secondary	Humanities	2 nd Secondary	Sciences	17
	First Secondary				16
Desis		ntermediate	N	line	15
Basic		School	Eight		14
		F	Seven		13
Education.			ſ		
			Second	Six	12
Compulsory	en normal de reg	Elementary	Cycle (phase)	Five	-11
	a Prosent ins 1	(Primary)	nel Educat	Four	10
Attendance			First	Three	9
		School	Cycle (phase)	Two	8
Meniday of Education				One	7
		and products of		iting/for use in its	hools. On 1
	Kindergarten		rten	KG 2	6
	1			KG1	5
		Prescho		Preparatory	3-4
				Nursery	1-3

Figure 10: Structure Of Primary & Secondary Schools In Lebanon

Source: Adapted from New Lebanese educational structure, Centre for Educational Research and Development (Arabic) 1995, p.29.

The reformed education system in Lebanon is based on a consideration of the needs of the pupils as well as the needs of the nation. As a result new courses are being developed and students are being provided with a greater opportunity to contribute to life, society and development both nationally and internationally. Pupils are now able to make more choices in the direction of their studies and careers. Firstly, the number of subjects offered has increased; technology, computer science, and economics have been introduced to the program. In addition, students now have the opportunity to enter into technical or trade (vocational) schools at twelve

years of age. This system, therefore, permits pupils to withdraw from formal academic education at an early age in order to commence a trade or vocational training.

The new educational structure is still centralised. The Ministry of Education is solely responsible for all levels of education. Decisions concerning policy, curricula, national examinations, public schools and Lebanese universities are centralised in the capital, Beirut, and are administered by regional and local offices. While the private schools system is decentralised, it has to follow the official curriculum that has been designed and approved by the Ministry of Education.

National school system

Like Australia, Lebanon has two sectors of schooling: a government and non-government sector. The Lebanese government is responsible for primary and secondary government schools. Control is exercised through the Ministry of National Education and the National Centre for Educational Research and Development, both of which the Minister of Education administers. The Ministry of Education recruits and appoints teachers to government schools, supplies buildings, equipment and materials and provides discretionary funding for use in schools. On the other hand, non-government schools are required to meet particular national requirements in relation to the establishment of schools, the salary level of teachers and, in most instances, the curriculum which is offered by the government. Non-government schools are supported mainly by students fees. The Catholic education system is by far the largest component of the nongovernment school sector. Also included in the non-government sector are schools usually associated with other religious denominations and a number of independent schools. Both government schools and most non-government schools at the secondary level offer a curriculum which meets the requirements of the Ministry of Education.

Lebanese national curriculum

The common themes and trends evident in the development of the Lebanese education system will be outlined in this section with a focus on the key learning areas. The subjects vary from elementary school to secondary school. All students must study a minimum of nine courses and

may study up to sixteen different courses in key learning areas. The areas of study are: Arabic, French, English, Mathematics, Science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Technology and Computer studies, Health and Physical Education, Civics, History, Geography, Arts, Sociology and Economics, Culture, and Philosophy and Civilisation. Of these, the majority of Lebanese communities emphasise the importance of History, Civics and Religion because they help to encourage harmony between and acceptance of religious diversity in a country that is home to seventeen different ethnic and religious communities.