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**Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation of
Secondary School Teachers: A Case Study of the
South West Region of Cameroon**

By

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

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DEDICATION

To God and my Mom

For your unconditional and boundless love, support and guidance throughout my life.

You have always been and will always be the pillars and inspiration of my life. Thank

you for giving me a family.

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Before I can thank anyone on earth, I would first like to take this opportunity to thank God for his infinite mercy, grace, boundless blessings, gift of life and the energy to complete this project. I sincerely owe a huge debt of gratitude to everyone who has helped, supported and encouraged me throughout these years.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is entirely my own work and efforts. No material from this thesis has been used or previously published, and where I have used other sources of information, appropriate acknowledgements have been made.

ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction and work motivation are very important management concepts but the conceptual and empirical literature are predominantly from western countries, with only limited literature from African scholars and very little focused on the Cameroon context. This study contributes to the current research and literature by examining teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in the South West region of Cameroon, through a mixed methods design. In the quantitative phase, data were obtained from a stratified sample of 265 teachers from 20 secondary government schools from Fako (an urban setting) and Ndian (a rural setting). In the qualitative phase, two case studies (one in Fako and another in Ndian) were undertaken to provide greater depth and understanding.

The study relied on a set of descriptive and inferential statistics to represent the findings of the survey on job satisfaction and work motivation. A series of non-parametric statistical analysis techniques were carried out in order to gather evidence to decipher whether teachers' levels of teachers' job satisfaction was related to a specific number of selected demographic variables. The study also utilized qualitative data to provide depth on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. Data from interviews were analysed using a thematic approach, while field notes were compiled and analysed using broad codes and themes.

The findings showed that, though intrinsic variables are commonly cited to underpin teachers' job satisfaction in Western literature, both intrinsic and extrinsic elements are important components that shape teachers' emotional and cognitive assessment of their job satisfaction and work motivation in Cameroon. The study showed that economic factors (salaries, allowances and benefits), situational circumstances (environmental factors and working conditions), as well as the behavioural dispositions of other members of the school (students, other teachers, and administrators), were the most prominent elements impinging on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

ABBREVIATIONS

JSS (Job Satisfaction Survey)

CP (Cours Préparatoire)

FSLC (First School Leaving Certificate)

BACC (Baccauleureat)

BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation)

BEPC (Brevet d'etudes du Premier cycle)

BSc (Bachelor's Degree in Science)

CAPIEMP (Certificate d'Aptitude Pedagogique d'Instituteurs de l'Eseignement Maternel et Primaire)

CE1 (Cours Elémentaire 1)

CE2 (Cours Elémentaire 2)

CEP (Certificat d'Etudes Primaires)

CM1 (Cours Moyen 1)

CM2 (Cours Moyen 2)

DIPES I (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 1e Grade)

DIPES I, II (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 2e Grade)

ENS (Ecole Normale Superieure)

ERA (Emotional Regulation Ability)

GCE A/L (General Certificate of Education Advanced Level)

GCE O/L (General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level)

GDP (Gross Domestic Product)

HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus Virus)

HOD (Head of Department)

MINATD (Ministry of Territorial administration and decentralization)

MINEDUC (Ministry of Basic Education)

MINISEC (Ministry of Secondary Education)

NASUWT (National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers)

NQT (Newly Qualified Teacher)

OTS (Orientation For teaching Survey)

PCEG (Professeur Des Colleges d'enseignement Generale)

PLEG (professeur des Lycée d'enseignement Générale)

PTA (Parent Teacher Association)

SIL (Section d'Initiation à la Lecture)

UK (United Kingdom)

UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation)

US (United States of America)

XAF (Central Africa CFA franc)

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This chapter outlines the conceptual background and contextual setting of my thesis. It presents an outline of the aims, objectives and contribution to the literature that the research seeks to achieve. The chapter begins by presenting the conceptual background of the study and an overview of the context of the study.

Conceptual Background

Event though head teachers are held accountable for the school's overall performance (Heck 1992), and considered central in promoting students' achievement (Leithwood and Slegers 2007, Witziers et al 2003) or teachers' job satisfaction (Griffith 2004, Evans 1998), the quality of any education system depends primarily on its teachers. Gansle et al (2012) add that the extent to which students are prepared for postsecondary education links to the quality of their education, most of which is mediated by their teachers. It is widely accepted that teacher quality is the single most important school-related factor influencing student achievement (Gabriel 2005, Stronge et al 2006). Collectively, this would imply that an understanding of what motivates teachers to invest work related efforts to accomplish the goals of the education system would be of immense interest to any education system.

Despite this recognition, the recruitment and retention of high quality teachers appears to be a challenging problem in many countries (Scott et al 2001, World Bank

2007). The shortage of well-qualified teachers is also a significantly related issue (Ingersoll 2001). This is partly because teaching has been described as a profession with heavy emotional demands and excessive workloads (Richardson and Watt 2006), compounded by stress (Griva and Joeke 2010, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978), inadequate salary and a deteriorating professional status (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Evans 1998). According to Scott et al (2001) these factors collectively evoke discontent amongst teachers. Given this background, the importance of understanding teachers' job satisfaction and motivation cannot be overstated, especially when it provides useful insight relevant for school leaders who may want to enthuse and challenge teachers to perform better, so that they are satisfied with their jobs (Evans 1999).

Spector (1997) offers a humanitarian and utilitarian perspective as to why the concept of job satisfaction should be of concern. Similarly, Stipek (1998) and Mortimore (1995) have both suggested that schools can become more effective if both staff and students are well motivated. The overall benefits of such knowledge could improve our understanding on what increases teachers' motivation, enthusiasm and commitment to the job (Evans 1998). It could also provide insights to teachers' performance and efficacy (Capara et al 2006, Ostroff 1992), which can enhance retention (Crossman and Harris 2006) and reduce turnover and absenteeism (Bridges 1980). Teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation are concepts, which if understood and properly addressed, could influence students' academic achievement positively, and overall school effectiveness, since highly qualified and motivated teachers are key to students' academic success (Darling-Hammond and Berry 2006).

Concepts of Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Job satisfaction is an attitudinal and emotional response that reflects a person's feeling about their job overall, as well as various aspects of the job (Evans 1997, Locke 1976, Spector 2008). Job satisfaction "is simply how people feel about their jobs and the different aspects of their jobs (Spector 1997: 2). Sempane et al (2002) assert that job satisfaction relates to people's own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them.

Teacher job satisfaction has been empirically linked to teachers' efficacy and work performance (Capara et al 2007, Titanji 1994), motivation to teach (Adelabu 2005), and their overall commitment to the job (Borg and Riding 1991, Reyes and Shin 1995). On the other hand, dissatisfaction with teaching has been associated with teachers' absenteeism and attrition (Huberman 1993), dysfunctional behaviours (Bennell and Akyeapong 2007), as well as low morale and esteems (Evans 1998). Teacher job satisfaction, according to Evans (1997:833), is "a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs are being met". She divides job satisfaction into job fulfilment (which concerns how *satisfying* something is) and job comfort (which concerns how *satisfactory* something is), reflecting different facets of a teacher's job, which collectively form a global sense of job satisfaction. Evans (1998) adds that teachers' job satisfaction and motivation also revolve around a realistic expectation and a relative perspective. She describes realistic expectations as the expectations a teacher has towards his or her job. When the expectations are realistic, and are met in their jobs, the teacher will be satisfied (Evans 1998:151). The relative perspective refers to the views teachers presently have towards their jobs that are shaped by their earlier experiences, perhaps

from previous schools or from their life in general (Evans1998).

Addison and Brundrett (2008) suggest that schools in the twenty-first century need to be clear about the factors affecting motivation and demotivation for a number of practical reasons. This of course, is to ensure that teachers are given the right conditions that can motivate and enable them work at the peak of their capacities. Motivation plays a vital role in shaping attitudes, which applies to both teachers and students (Ames and Ames 1984, Brophy 1988, Stipek 1988), which is also reflected in the way learning objectives, academic goals and needs are achieved (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Roth et al 2007, Skinner and Belmont 1993). Bush and Middlewood (2005) suggest that understanding motivation remains an essential task for those who lead and manage at all levels and in all phases of education.

Despite existing theories of motivation, work motivation, which is crucial and popular within management research, still has a need for a comprehensive model and interpretations that can sufficiently explain the various components and processes associated with work motivation and human behaviour (Locke and Latham 2004, Steers et al 1996). This is even more important in a context such as Cameroon where there is very little empirical evidence on this subject. Even though motivation and work motivation are used interchangeably, Molander and Winterton (1994:133) define work motivation as, “the willingness of employees to expend effort and exhibit desired patterns of work behaviour in terms of levels of performance and commitment to the enterprise”. Pinder (1998:11) provides another useful definition, stating that work motivation is “a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as

beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration". Similar to these definitions, which suggest that work motivation deals with the efforts invested and behaviours exhibited for a given cause, Kanfer (1987: 239) states that it involves the multiple processes by which individuals allocate personal resources, in the form of time and efforts, in response to an anticipated outcome or consequences. Amongst these definitions, Pinder's (1998) definition follows the notion that motivation could also be described to be either intrinsic (doing an activity for its own sake) or extrinsic, which is doing an activity for some external reward (DeCharms 1968, Ryan and Deci and Ryan 1975).

Although job satisfaction and motivation are often used interchangeably in the literature, they remain distinct concepts (Bush and Middlewood 2005, Evans 1998). Nonetheless, job satisfaction has been found to have a positive correlation with work motivation (Singh and Tiwari 2011). Similarly, low motivation leads to a decline in teachers' morale because, in the absence of motivational factors at work, engagement and performance levels decrease, regardless of the qualification or capability of the work force ((Evans1998, Thomas 2010).

National Context of the Study

History of Cameroon

The national context of this study is Cameroon, and particularly the South Western region of the country. Cameroon got its name from a Portuguese sailor who named it "Rio dos Camarões", meaning the Prawn River (Mac Ojong, 2008). In July 12, 1884, the name was changed to Kamerun when Gustav Nachtigal signed a treaty with the Chiefs of Doula on behalf of the German Kaiser Wilhelm, making it a German

protectorate. After World War I, this colony was seized from the Germans and partitioned between Britain and France under a League of Nations mandate. France gained the larger geographical share, transferred outlying regions to neighbouring French colonies, and ruled from Yaoundé. The British territory, a strip bordering Nigeria from the sea to Lake Chad, was ruled from Lagos, in Nigerian (U.S Department of State 2011). In 1960, Cameroon later gained independence to become the Republic of Cameroon, merging both the English and French territories.

Geography

With a surface area of 475 442 km², and a population of 19.406.100 inhabitants as of January 1st, 2010, Cameroon is one of the averaged size countries in Africa (Republic of Cameroon, 2010). Cameroon is one of the West Central African nation situated on the Gulf of Guinea, bordered by Nigerian to the west; Chad to the northeast; the Central African Republic to the east and Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and the Republic of the Congo to the south. Mount Cameroon, near the coast, is the highest elevation in the country and is a major tourist site, alongside other geographical features, such as plateaus, rivers, lakes and the ocean. The country is described as "Africa in miniature" because it exhibits all the major climates, which vary with terrain, from tropical along the coast, to semi-arid and hot in the north (The Cameroon News 2010).

Economy

Endowed with favourable agricultural conditions, Cameroon has one of the best-endowed primary commodity economies in sub-sahara Africa (U.S Department of States 2011). It is also endowed with an abundance of natural resources, including

in the agricultural, mining, forestry, and oil and gas sectors. Cameroon is one of the major commercial and economic leaders in the sub-region.

Its economy is highly dependent on commodity exports, and swings in world prices strongly affect its growth. Despite its position in the commercial market within African countries, the country remains one of the lowest-ranked economies on the World Bank's annual surveys and regularly ranks among the most corrupt countries in the world (U.S Department of State 2011, Transparency International 2013). The CFA franc is the common currency of Cameroon alongside 13 other African countries. The GDP stands at \$44.33 billion, with an estimated 3% growth rate as of 2010, and per capital income of \$2.300 (C.I.A 2011).

Educational context of Cameroon

The presence of two official languages in Cameroon has led to two distinct educational sub-systems, (Ministry of Education, 2008) a unique situation that poses both advantages and disadvantages. These two major distinctive education systems are the French (Francophone) Cameroon education system, modeled on the French system, and an English (Anglophone) Cameroon education system, modeled on the British system. These systems are designed, operated and governed by a central system that is sub divided into the four Ministries of Education. These ministries include the ministry of basic education, the ministry of secondary education, the ministry of employment and vocational training and the ministry of higher education (UNESCO 2011). Although both systems are governed and managed by a common body, with some similarities, the two systems also have certain differences. These differences may include the school's culture, the daily, termly and yearly schedule, the curriculum, teaching styles, students' evaluation and certifications.

In the Francophone sub-system (with French as the language of instruction), English language is taught as a compulsory subject throughout secondary education. Similarly, French language is taught as a compulsory subject in the Anglophone sub-system (with English as the language of instruction) throughout secondary education (Kouega 2011). Nevertheless, these two sub-systems practice and use two different curricula designs, methods of evaluation, and training for educational experts, as well as different styles of evaluation. Also, although students in both secondary education systems spend a maximum of seven years in school (first and second cycle), the schooling sequence and experience are different for both systems. For example, while Anglophone students spend five years in junior secondary (first cycle: form 1-5) and two years in senior secondary school (second cycle: lower sixth and upper sixth), students in the Francophone system spend four years on the first cycles and three years in the senior secondary. Another different is that, while students within the Anglophone sub-system are allowed to specialize as early as in the third year (form three) by choosing a specific academic trajectory, either science or arts subjects, with a maximum of 11 subjects at ordinary level (first cycle) and a minimum of three subjects at advanced level (second cycle), this is not the case for their francophone counterparts. In the Francophone sub-system, all subjects are compulsory and their candidates take the BEPC (Brevet d'etudes du Premier cycle), which is evaluated on the average mark for all the subjects (Nuffic 2011). Candidates with the BEPC spend another three years to obtain a BACC (Baccalaureat), which is equivalent to the GCE A level (Kouega 2011, Nuffic 2011). Tables 1.1 and 1.2 summarise the two educational sub-systems for both primary and secondary education.

Francophone system			Anglophone system		
Year	Class	Certificate	Year	Class	Certificate
1	SIL	-	1	Class one	-
2	CP	-	2	Class two	-
3	CE1	-	3	Class three	-
4	CE2	-	4	Class four	-
5	CM1	-	5	Class five	-
6	CM2	CEP	6	Class six	FSLC

Table 1.1 Nature of primary education in Cameroon (Source: Adapted from MINEDUC (2008) and Ministry of basic education 2011)

Table 1.1 shows that both education sub-systems in Cameroon include six years of instruction at primary education, and learners achieve either the CEP in the Francophone sub-system, or the FSLC (First School Leaving Certificate) in the Anglophone sub-system¹. Similarly, in secondary education (see Table 1.2), both systems have seven years of instruction².

¹ CE1(Cours Elémentaire) = Name used for the third year of primary education in Francophone primary schools, CE2 (Cours Elémentaire 2) = Name used for fourth year of primary education, CEP (Certificat d'Etudes Primaires) = The examination that marks the end of primary education in Francophone primary schools, CM1(Cours Moyen 1) = Name used for fifth year of primary education, CM2 (Cours Moyen 2) = Name used for sixth (last) year of primary education, CP (Cours Préparatoire) = Stands for second year of primary education, FSLC(First School Leaving Certificate) = The examination/certificate that marks the end of primary education in Anglophone primary schools. SIL (Section d'Initiation à la Lecture) = Name used for first year of primary education in Francophone primary schools.

² Baccalauréat = G.C.E advanced level equivalent, Cinquième = equivalent to form two, G.C.E = General Certificate of Education, Probatoire = an end of term exam (promotion examination) for candidates going to terminale, première = is the equivalent of lower sixth form Seconde = is the equivalent of form five, Sixième = equivalent to the first form or the form one of the Anglophone system, Troisième = the equivalent of form three, Quatrième = is the equivalent of form four, (second cycle of senior secondary

Francophone system			Anglophone system		
Year	Class	Certificate	Year	Class	Certificate
1	Sixième	-	1	Form one	
2	Cinquième	-	2	Form two	
3	Troisième	-	3	Form three	
4	Quatrième	BEPC	4	Form four	
5	Seconde	-	5	Form five	G.C.E O/L
6	Première	Probatoire	6	Lower sixth form	
7	Terminale	Baccalauréat	7	Upper sixth form	G.C.E A/L

Table 1.2 Nature of secondary education in Cameroon (adapted from the Ministry of Education 2008)

Table 1.2 shows that the Francophone sub-system has three certificates; the BEPC at the end of the first cycle, the Probatoire at the end of the Première Class, and the Baccalauréat at the end of the second cycle. In the Anglophone sub-system, there are two certificate examinations, the GCE ordinary level, which marks the end of the first cycle, and the GCE advanced level, which marks the end of the second cycle.

Although the education system in Cameroon is notionally bilingual, in practice, this is far from the reality. This is partly because students only master the language of instruction that their educational system and experiences exposes them to, which draw from the main colonial language. Even when schools are labelled “Bilingual”, (a school where both systems may be found and operating on the same campus), there is often very little integrated effort or procedures in place to adopt a teaching and learning framework that reflects both systems, which could in turn produce rounded bilingual students. The Anglophone system is predominantly practiced in the English

speaking regions (former British colonial territory), comprising the South West and North West provinces of Cameroon, while the French system is practiced in the remaining eight provinces of Cameroon.

The Anglophone educational system

The Anglophone system operates within the English-speaking provinces (now regions), which are the North-West, with Bamenda as the provincial capital, and the South-West, with Buea as the provincial capital. The system has all levels of education, comprising primary (elementary school), secondary (middle and high school), and tertiary (universities and professional institutions). Primary education usually lasts for six years, and pupils are expected to obtain a FSLC (first school leaving certificate) at the end of this period. Secondary education runs for seven years and candidates can obtain an ordinary level GCE (junior secondary) certificate within five years. The senior secondary school section runs for two years, and candidates can complete the two-year programme graduate with a GCE advanced level certificate. At the tertiary level, state and private universities offer prospective undergraduate candidates a variety of undergraduate degree (BSc/BA/B.Ed) programmes, alongside postgraduate degrees at Master's and Doctoral level.

Hierarchical structure of the educational system

All levels of education are under the jurisdiction and centralized control of the central government that is further divided within four ministries of education, to cater for the various levels of education (primary, secondary, vocational training and higher education). The respective ministries are directly responsible for all educational issues (setting of educational objectives and goals, planning and development of the national

curriculum, implementation and improvement plans) in their respective departments. Despite this centralized structure, there is some delegation from the Ministries to the schools.

Power delegation at the primary level

Table 1.3 shows the hierarchical structure of administration for primary education in the Anglophone regions. At the apex is the minister who is closely assisted by the regional and divisional delegates, supported by chiefs of service and pedagogic inspectors. School-based personnel are the head teachers and classroom teachers.

Table 1.3 shows that, even though the overall educational system is centralized, with key decisions, such as setting and designing the national curriculum, and the allocation of annual budgets, coming from the Ministry of Basic Education, there is some delegation to lower levels, including schools.

Power delegation at the secondary level

The secondary education system has a more complex organizational structure than that of primary schools (see table 1.4). This is influenced by the nature, size and capacity of secondary schools.

Authority	Basic Function/Major Activity
Minister of basic education	<p>Develops and design the national curriculum and the objectives of the educational system that strives to promote gender equality in the educational system.</p> <p>Appoints and distributes personnel into the various state owned schools.</p> <p>It organizes and manages pre-school and primary education and monitors and assesses the quality of teaching in primary schools.</p>
Regional delegates	Develop and supervise the coordination and launching of pedagogic activities in primary schools found in his/her region
Divisional delegates	Coordinate all developmental and pedagogic activities in the primary schools of his/her division
Sub-divisional delegates	Oversee the effective implementation of all pedagogic activities in primary schools found in his subdivision
Chiefs of service	Supervise and coordinate all government examinations and actively supervise the running of these examinations.
Pedagogic inspectors	Visit the schools to evaluate the quality of teaching taking place.
Head Master	Manages the school budget and controls all the teachers and pupils in school
Classroom teachers	Deliver lessons and impart knowledge to the pupils and train them to be upright citizens.

Table 1.1 Hierarchical structure and personnel in basic education (adapted from Commonwealth Network, 2011 and Ministry of Basic Education 2011).

Authority	Basic Function/Major Activity
Minister of Secondary Education	<p>Develops and design the objectives of the educational system.</p> <p>Develops and designs the national curriculum, coordinates all the activities and personnel in the secondary education throughout the national territory</p> <p>The formulation of programmes and syllabi of study at both the secondary and technical levels</p> <p>Promotion of a well rounded approach (moral, civic and intellectual) in education</p> <p>Assessment and monitoring for quality in the delivery of education</p>
Directors	Supervise and control the appointments and transfers of personnel under this Ministry
Regional delegates	Develop and coordinate the launching of all activities in secondary schools found in his/her region
Divisional delegates	Coordinate all school activities in his/her division
National Pedagogic Inspectors and Advisers	Manage all the personnel in the national territory who are under his/her discipline (subject).
Regional Pedagogic Inspectors	Follow up teachers through seminars and visits in schools to improve on new methods of teaching. They also produce schemes of work for teachers in order to facilitate teaching.
Pedagogic Inspectors	Evaluate subject-specific teachers in the field.

Table 1.4 Hierarchical structure and personnel in secondary education (adapted from MINISEC 2008)

School calendar

The official school calendar begins in September and ends in June with two termly breaks within the academic year and an end of year break for all levels (basic, secondary and higher education). These breaks include a Christmas break in December, an Easter break in March, and an annual academic year break in June (Ministry of Basic Education 2011).

Primary education

The primary section of the Cameroonian education system is divided into two main units. The first stage is known as nursery school education (nursery one –nursery two) and receives pupils of age four or five. They spend two academic years in nursery and move-up to primary (class one), after showing evidence of some basic cognitivprogress (not often grade-based progression). The primary stage is further divided into junior and senior primary with the former consisting of children aged six-eight years (classes one-three) while the senior primary ranges from nine-12 years (classes four- six).

Education at the primary level is compulsory and it is officially free based on a presidential decree of 2000. However, a PTA (Parent Teacher Association) levy is charged by the school to support its day-to-day running. This annual levy is not standardized and can range from 2000 FCFA – 5000FCFS (£3-£7) depending on the school. Also, parents are expected to pay for uniforms, books and other learning materials. During their sixth year (class six), pupils are expected to sit for the FSLC (First School Leaving Certificate), which certifies them as having finished the primary stage of education in Cameroon. Nevertheless, another similar examination

(the Government Common Entrance Exam) is taken by this same category of pupils who intend to enrol in a college (secondary school education).

These exams are summative in nature and are written almost at the end of the academic year. The results are published and displayed in the various centres, and grades are presented in two forms (A and B grades). The division into grade A and grade B provide a basis for top students (those with grade A) to enjoy preferential treatment for admission to secondary schools. Successful candidates in the government entrance examination are thereafter provided with the opportunity to choose three colleges or schools for their secondary education.

Secondary education

The secondary phase comprises a lower level (junior secondary) and an upper level (senior secondary), with the latter often referred to as high school. At this stage, education is optional. This level of education usually runs through a seven-year period, with five years at the secondary phase and two years at the senior phase. The enrolment at this level of education drops because most parents are unable to afford secondary school fees, especially when the student decides to embark on science oriented educational careers. The age range of students entering this level of education is usually from 11-13years of age.

Nature and structure of government secondary schools

Depending on its size and overall population, a school may have more than four discipline masters, a vice-principal or a maximum of two vice-principals (deputy principals) and a principal, with a minimum of 14 teaching staff and an average of

three ancillary staff. The teacher-student ratio of a typical government school is 1:60. Classes are tagged from forms one – seven (the sixth form). Teaching and learning at these schools are guided and shaped by the national curriculum, which is designed by the Ministry of Secondary Education, with three compulsory subjects; Mathematics, French and English. There are also optional subjects, including Home Economics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Additional Mathematics, Religion Studies, Physical Education, History, English Literature, Geography, Economics, Accounting, Civics and Commerce. This national curriculum is linked to the examination syllabus prescribed by the Cameroon GCE Board (General Certificate of Education). From this range, students can choose a maximum of 11 for their ordinary level exams.

By the end of form three, students are allowed to select between an Arts or Science course of study. Studies in forms 4 and 5 are more specialized and geared towards the final GCE exams. At the end of form 5, the students sit for the Cameroon GCE O/L. The marking and grading of the GCE O/L is such that grades are assigned to specific score ranges, and could be A, B, C and U grades, with A being the best pass grade and U being the fail grade. Successful students are those with a minimum of four subjects with at least a C grade. Similarly, by the end of the two years of high school (forms six and seven), students are expected to sit for the advanced level, which has A, B, C, D, E as pass grades while O and F are compensatory and failed grades respectively. Successful candidates are those who emerge with a minimum of two subjects with at least a grade E. These students are qualified to attend institutes of higher education.

Staffing of government secondary schools

All Government secondary school teachers go through a National Teacher Training College known as Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS). Prospective teachers gain admission to these colleges through a competitive examination (subject – specific), with a basic qualification of either a GCE A/L or a university degree. With the A/L, candidates spend three years to graduate as a PCEG (Professeur Des collèges d’enseignement Générale), which is a diploma and qualifies them to teach the first level of secondary schools (Form1- Form 5). With the PCEG status, teachers can upgrade their professional status by spending another two years at the Higher ENS. After these two years, their teaching status is upgraded from the PCEG to a PLEG (Professeur des Lycée d’enseignement Générale), which is accompanied by an increase in salary. Besides the extra financial benefit, the main difference between a PCEG and a PLEG relates to the range of classes they can teach (from form one to seven). Prospective teachers with a first degree obtained from a government university can sit for the examination, where successful candidates spend two years and graduate as PLEG. Similarly, candidates with a master’s degree spend just a year and graduate as a PLEG.

Upon completion of their preparation programme, these newly qualified teachers are integrated into the system and posted to various regions. In the course of their career, these teachers may be promoted to higher positions, such as discipline master, vice-principal and principal. Table 1.5 summarizes the various personnel in the system at the school level, with their major functions, qualifications, and basic criteria for promotion.

Personnel	Basic Qualification	Major function	Criteria for promotion	Additional Financial Benefit
Principal	PLEG	-Manages school budget and personnel. -Responsible for administrative documents	Appointed after 10-11 years of service as a teacher	35000 - 40000FCF (£47- £54)
Vice Principal	PLEG	-Similar to Principal's but focuses more on academic issues	Appointed after 5 years of service as a teacher	20000FCFA (£27)
Discipline Master	PLEG/PCEG	-Maintains discipline in the school campus (discipline both students and teachers) -Grants permissions for absences.	Appointed after 5 years of service as a teacher	15000FCFA (£20)
HOD	PLEG	-Manages the department, organizes departmental meetings with teachers to identify areas of lapses in the teaching and learning process.	Appointed after 5 years of service as a teacher	9000FCFA (£12)
Classroom Teacher	PLEG/PCEG	-Teaching	Successful ENS candidates	Only basic salary

Table 1.5 Personnel in government secondary schools at the school level and their basic functions (adapted from Ministry of Secondary Education 2011)

Table 1.5 shows the typical hierarchical structure of the personnel of government secondary schools in Cameroon, with the exception of the school bursar, whose sole responsibility is to receive and account for fees and any form of payment made into the school's account. The principal, who is accountable to the Ministry on how effectively the school operates and performs, officially leads the school with assistance from the vice-principal.

Purpose of the Study

The only study on teachers' job satisfaction in the South West region of Cameroon (Titanji 1994) was carried out during a period of economic crisis, which led to a decline on government spending on education (Forgha and Mbella 2013). According to Titanji (1994), this situation was also marked by a decline in the quality of the education. The fact that it has been two decades since his study was conducted warrants a revisit of teacher's job satisfaction with new insights in Cameroon. Although, it is claimed that the economy situation has more or less stagnated over this period, there are also claims that government spending on secondary education has increased marginally since the 1990s (Forgha and Mbella 2013, World Bank 2012). Against this background, a revisit of teachers' job satisfaction in this region is timely and also imperative to aid our understanding on what motivate teachers to do their job within the Cameroon context.

The purpose of this study therefore is to investigate the level of job satisfaction and work motivation amongst secondary school teachers in the South West region of Cameroon. Due to the paucity of research on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, this study intends to establish the level of job satisfaction and sources of work motivation amongst Cameroon teachers. The study is also a response to Titanji's (1994) call for further research on teacher's job satisfaction with a more probabilistic sample, which cuts across the rural and urban divide. The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. *What is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?*

This question intends to establish the overall *level* of job satisfaction amongst secondary school teachers, drawing on the assessment scale proposed by Spector

(1997), which would identify teachers' perception of their job satisfaction from a faceted and overall perspective. The question is intended to identify the overall job satisfaction experienced by the teachers expressed as high, modest or low based on the addition of all the facet scores to form an overall score.

2. *What is the level of teacher motivation among secondary school teachers?*

Similar to question 1, this question seeks to capture the level of work motivation amongst secondary school teachers, drawing on an assessment scale developed and adapted from the motivation literature (Daniel and Ferrell 1991, Deci and Ryan 1985, 1991). To identify teachers' perception of the level of their motivation to work, scores from the questionnaire will be computed on SPSS to achieve a level of motivation, which will be expressed as high, modest or low.

3. *What are the specific factors influencing intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?*

This question seeks to capture the various factors that influence intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers, drawing from the intrinsic factors identified in the job satisfaction and work motivation literature (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Barmby 2006, Capara et al 2007, Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 1998, Scott et al 1999, Titanji 1994) such as teaching itself and professional development. Answers to this question will establish those intrinsic factors, which teachers perceive as influencing their job satisfaction and motivation.

4. *What are the specific factors influencing extrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?*

Similar to question 3, this question seeks to capture the various extrinsic factors that influence job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers, drawing from the extrinsic factors identified in the literature (Chevalier and Dolton 2004, Crossman and Harris 2006, Gazioglu and Tansel 2006, George and Mensah 2010, Greenglass and Burke 2003, Monyatsi 2012). Answers to this question will establish which extrinsic factors teachers perceive as influencing their job satisfaction and motivation.

Thesis outline

This thesis comprises nine chapters. The introduction (chapter one) provides an overview of the research context and discusses aims and research questions. Chapter two comprises a literature review of theories of job satisfaction and work motivation, as well as empirical findings in the UK and Africa. Chapter three outlines the research design and methodology. Chapters four and five present quantitative findings in Fako and Ndian respectively. Similarly, chapters six and seven present qualitative findings in Fako and Ndian. Chapter eight analyses and discusses the findings while chapter nine provides the conclusion.

Overview

This chapter introduces the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation, as well as discussion of their significance in education. It also outlines the background and national context, including an overview of the Cameroon education system. The chapter also discusses the aims and research questions.

The next chapter comprises a review of theoretical and empirical literature.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the literature on job satisfaction and motivation. It begins by examining major theories of job satisfaction and motivation. The chapter also discusses empirical literature within the UK and Africa, exploring the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation.

Concepts of Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation

Introduction

The dynamic nature of contemporary business and educational organizations, with changing times and fluctuating economies, have led managers to recognise the importance of grasping employees' job related attitudes and behaviours (Bolin 2007, Pardee 1990, Mark and Myers 1998, Spector 1997). In the business world, the *Carrot* (rewards) and *Stick* (sanctions) method is still one of the most commonly used motivational techniques (Dickinson 2001). Even though this approach was introduced to promote positive work related attitudes, its efficacy is debateable. Research on job satisfaction and motivation provides a broader understanding of people's feelings, perceptions and behaviours towards their jobs, which has also facilitated the identification of work components that employees find satisfying (Spector, 1997).

Even though job satisfaction and motivation may seem to be straightforward concepts, there is a need for conceptual clarity (Evans 1997, Mumford 1991, Steers et al, 1996). The absence of an accepted universal definition for both concepts is evident, both separately and as interrelated concepts. This section reviews theories of job

satisfaction and work motivation and considers the extent to which the concepts appear to be similar or dissimilar.

Job satisfaction

Research on job satisfaction began with the Hawthorne studies, conducted from 1924-1932, focusing on the psychological and social factors in the work place. Hoppock (1935) published the first intensive study of job satisfaction, based on interviews with adults and 500 schoolteachers in a small town. His study focused on two major questions; to know if the workers were happy and if some workers were happier than others. Using verbal self reported opinions through interviews, he identified that job satisfaction was influenced by many factors found in the work environment, such as supervision, family expectation and emotional maladjustments. This study, and the factors identified, has contributed to our understanding of job satisfaction today.

Job satisfaction may simply be described as how contented an individual is with the job. This is assumed to encompass all aspects of a job, which Evans (1997, 1998) describes as aspects of the job that are either *satisfactory* or *satisfying*. She adds that these two distinct states (satisfactory and satisfying) relate to job comfort and job fulfilment respectively. This represents the overall or global job satisfaction of an individual. It is expected that the happier people are with their job, the more satisfied and energized they are.

The next section explores some definitions of job satisfaction and how the concept has evolved, from its focus on underlying needs, to more cognitive processes. A subsequent section explores the differences between job satisfaction and motivation.

Definitions of job satisfaction

Hoppock (1935: 47) defined job satisfaction as “any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, “I am satisfied with my job”. Schaffer (1953: 3) interprets job satisfaction “to be one of individuals’ needs fulfilment; and that the overall job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied; the stronger the need, the more closely will the job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment”.

According to Vroom (1964), job satisfaction is “*the affective orientation of individuals towards work roles that they are presently occupying*”. This definition supports Hoppock’s (1953) interpretation that job satisfaction is shaped by the emotional state of an individual, after considering the physiological, psychological and environmental circumstances that affect the job.

According to Wanous and Lawler (1972), job satisfaction is “*the fulfilment acquired by experiencing various job activities and rewards*”. This definition implicitly recognizes the interplay of physiological, psychological and environmental circumstances that affect the job, as presented by Hoppock (1953) and Vroom (1964). It also incorporates aspects of need fulfilment as proposed by Schaffer (1953).

Locke (1976:1304) defined job satisfaction as “*a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation or appraisal of one’s job or job experiences*”.

This is one of the most widely used definitions and it is similar to those outlined by Hoppock (1953) and Vroom (1964).

Spector (1997:2) defines it as "*the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs*". Contrary to Locke's (1976) interpretation, which focuses only on the positive or pleasurable outcomes from an evaluation of the job, Spector (1997) suggests that job evaluation could result in two opposing descriptive features of job satisfaction (i.e. liking or disliking the job), which can lead to satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively.

Combining the emotional dimension of Locke's (1976) definition, and Spector's (1997) dichotomy of satisfaction (*like* or *dislike*) of a job, Strumpfer and Mlonzi (2004:2) define the term as being an emotional state of either liking or disliking one's job because of either a global feeling or a set of related attitudes that produce either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Lofquist and Davis (1991) define job satisfaction as "*an individual's positive affective reaction of the target environment, as a result of the individual's appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment*". The idea of individual disposition, and the ability to make valid judgments, is central to this definition. Also, it supports the affective dimension of needs-fulfillment, as suggested by Wanous and Lawler (1972) and Locke (1976).

Evans (1999) defines job satisfaction as "*a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met.*" This definition takes into account the psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances, as well as individual dispositions that determine how individuals judge the extent to which their needs are fulfilled by

the jobs. It corroborates Locke's (1976) definition, that job satisfaction is perceived as a state of mind (resulting from physiological and psychological circumstances) expressed as "all the feelings" (i.e. of like or dislike) (Spector 1997).

These definitions collectively suggest that job satisfaction is an affective or emotional and cognitive evaluation of a job (Locke 1976:1304), a judgment and comparison between expected, desired or deserved outcomes and the actual outcomes. In contrast, Organ and Near (1985) argue that the actual measures of job satisfaction are more cognitive. Judge et al (2001:26) add that, in evaluating jobs (reporting levels of job satisfaction), both cognitive and affective domains are involved.

Job satisfaction within education has also been of global interest. Coupled with a demanding and complex job (Friedman 2002), school leaders are faced with concerns not only about student achievement levels (Witziers et al 2003), but also with the responsibility to encourage and motivate their staff to work better (Evans 1998), to be committed and to stay longer in the profession. With respect to teachers, Evans (1998) notes that personality variables interfere with the effect of school-based variables that impinge on job satisfaction and motivation. In addition, the school's micro-politics and culture (Dinham 2005), and non-school based variables (government policies or imposed curriculum), have been cited as variables that influence teachers' job satisfaction (Crossman and Harris 2006, Dinham and Scott 1998).

Evans (1999) argues that school managers and heads need to know what makes teachers 'tick' (adhere positively to the goals of the profession) and what make them 'cross' (disengage), irrespective of other intervening variables. Spector (1997) asserts that, whether job satisfaction is a result of personal differences in response to

situations, or whether situations themselves are the more important factor in determining job satisfaction, is debatable. Although personal correlates of job satisfaction have captured the interest of researchers (Hickson and Oshagbemi 1999), some have shown that personal correlates, such as age, (Sarker et al 2003) and gender (Clarke et al 1996), are not significant variables.

The drive to understand and explain job satisfaction, especially teacher job satisfaction, has been motivated by utilitarian reasons as well as humanitarian interest (Bamrby 2004, Spector 1997). Satisfied incumbents tend to engage in altruistic behaviours that exceed the formal requirements, such as organizational citizenship behaviours (Smith, Organ and Near 1983). McClay (1995) adds that teachers are expected to be twice as good, twice as altruistic, twice as flexible, and one-half as concerned with salary, as other professions. These extra demands from society and other stakeholders, with the low status of the profession (Hargreaves et al, 2006), may add to the reasons why teachers continue to leave. It is generally held that teachers are poorly rewarded (Chevalier et al, 2002), compared to their counterparts in different professions, which may lead to dissatisfaction.

According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable, which is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. He warns that, while researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also a need to measure the different "facets" or "dimensions" of job satisfaction. He argues that a more careful examination of employee satisfaction, with critical job factors, will lead to the identification and understanding of areas of the job that produce satisfaction or dissatisfaction (*ibid*, p. 3). This facet approach provides a more detailed picture of a person's job satisfaction than a global approach can achieve.

This is because an employee can have different feelings about the various facets of work. He also acknowledges that patterns could change, and be different across countries, and that, not only do people differ in their satisfaction across facets, but the facets are only modestly related to one another.

Building on Locke's (1976) work, Spector (1997: 4) identifies nine facets of job satisfaction; pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. He adds that people have distinctly different feelings about the various facets of the job and tend not to have a global feeling that produces the same level of satisfaction for each job aspect.

Evans (1998) notes that there is heterogeneity amongst teachers with respect to what they find satisfying and/or satisfactory. One of the key distinguishing constituents, common to her sample, was whether or not a sense of personal achievement was associated with the factors of satisfaction. For example, "good staff relations may be satisfactory to some teachers but would only be satisfying to individual teachers who felt they had contributed towards achieving them" (*ibid*, p. 11).

Evans (1998: 11) proposes two distinct terms; *job comfort* and *job fulfilment*, as constituents of job satisfaction. Job comfort refers to the extent to which individuals feel satisfied with the conditions and circumstances of their job. Job fulfilment involves the individual assessment of how well they perform the job. An overview of these definitions suggests that job satisfaction results from a general (internal and external) assessment of one's job which can simply be expressed as an individual liking more aspects or facets of a job than he or she dislikes (Mumford 1991).

Theories of job satisfaction

Mumford (1991:4) argued that few studies of job satisfaction take a wide scan of a large number of related variables at any one time. However, despite this claim, there has been a comprehensive amount of work in this area with theories, models, operational and conceptual definitions proposed (Judge et al, 2001, Miles et al, 1996), which has led to the identification of dispositions, and individual variables affecting job satisfaction (Judge and Bono 200, Judge et al 1997, Oshagbemi 2003).

Despite the distinctive nature of job satisfaction and motivation (Bush and Middlewood 2005), their inextricable link has led to an overlap in most theories and models describing any one of the concepts. This has often led to the use of the terms interchangeably. A regrouping of some established theories of job satisfaction, by Judge et al (2001:28), produced three distinct theoretical frames of thought. First, the situational theories, which hypothesize that job satisfaction results from the nature of one's job or another aspect of the environment. Second, the dispositional theories, which assume that job satisfaction is rooted in the person's characteristics. Third, the interactive theories, which propose that job satisfaction is a result of the interplay between situations and personality. Other classifications include content theories, process theories, as well as a mix of situational, dispositional and interactive theories (Madsen 1974). However, in this review, both content and process theories will be discussed within the section on motivational theories, leaving three situational theories (social information processing, the job characteristics model and the situational occurrence theory) to discuss in this section.

Situational theory

The situational occurrences theory emerged in 1992, with Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman stating that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational occurrences. Situational characteristics are items such as pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job. The situational occurrences are factors that occur after taking a job. These may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative. Positive occurrences might include extra vacation time, while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment or strained co-worker relationships. Within this theoretical framework, job satisfaction is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrences. Quarstain et al (1992) hypothesized that overall job satisfaction could best be predicted from a combination of situational occurrences and situational characteristics. The theory assumes that many hedonic, affective, or emotional states are automatically opposed by central nervous system mechanisms, which reduce the intensity of hedonic feelings, both pleasant and aversive.

Social Informational Processing

This theory argues that job satisfaction is a socially constructed reality (Salanick and Pfeffer 1978), and builds on the fact that needs-based theories fail to consider the social context in which work occurs. Central to the theory is that individuals are apt to provide the responses they are expected to, and then seek to rationalise or justify their responses (Judge et al 2001). Individuals do not really form judgments about their job satisfaction until they are asked and, when asked, rely on social sources of information such as interpretations of their own behaviour, cues by co-workers, or even the way survey questions are asked.

Thomas and Griffin (1983) argue that both objective task characteristics and social information cues appear to influence individuals' perceptions of their tasks at work. Despite its limited application in educational research, studies with employees' behaviour within media organisations have supported the theory (Fulk et al 1987). Conversely, Hilin (1991), cited in (Judge et al 2001), disagrees with the theory, stating that the same job attributes that appear to predict job satisfaction are recurrent within different cultures, even though the social environments and values differ.

Job Characteristics Model

The job characteristics model (JCM) suggests that jobs with intrinsically motivating characteristics will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham 1976). The theory posits that, for a job to be intrinsically motivating, it must have five core job characteristics; '*Task identity*', -degree to which one can see one's work from beginning to end; '*Task significance*', - degree to which one's work is seen to be important and significant; '*Skill variety*'- extent to which one's job allows them to do different tasks; '*Autonomy*'- degree to which employees have control and direction over how to conduct their task. Finally, '*Feedback*' refers to the degree to which the work itself provides feedback on how the employee is performing the job (Barnabe and Burns 1994).

The theory proposes that the core job characteristics lead to three critical psychological states; experienced meaningfulness of the work, responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of results, which, in turn, lead to outcomes such as job satisfaction. Despite criticisms that the theory focuses only on one type of motivation (internal motivation) (Gagné and Deci 2005), it is also criticized for being inappropriate, especially in treating perceptions as real data (Roberts and Click, 1981).

Spector and Jex (1991) note that it is oversimplified. However, there has been empirical evidence supporting the model in the field of education (Bernabe and Burns 1994). Also, Fried and Ferris (1987) support the validity of the model's basic proposition that core job characteristics lead to more satisfying work.

Dispositional theories

Staw, Bell and Clausen's (1986) dispositional theory suggests that affective disposition is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) claim that the core self-evaluations are fundamental premises that individuals hold about themselves and their functioning in the world. They also argue that core evaluations are all encompassing and that situationally specific appraisals depend on these core evaluations. The theory posits that core self-evaluation is a broad personality construct composed of several specific traits. These include self-esteem, which refers to an individual's self-acceptance, self-liking, and self-respect. In addition, generalized self-efficacy represents individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of situations, and neuroticism. According to the theory, neuroticism represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment and experience negative effects such as fear, hostility, and depression. The theory adds that individuals must have a sense of control over their jobs, described as "locus of control", representing the perceived degree of control an individual has in directing his/her job.

This theory has been criticized on methodological and conceptual grounds, lacking empirical support for the links between the core self-evaluation factors and job satisfaction (Barry 1987), and especially to job performance (Judge and Bono 2000). However, it has received empirical support to justify dispositions as a source of

attributions employees make concerning job attitudes such as absenteeism (Judge and Martocchio 1996).

Work Motivation

Motivation is at the heart of psychology (Atkinson 1964, Maslow 1954) and management (Locke and Latham 2004, Steers et al 2004), and particularly conspicuous in organizational psychology publications (Jones and page 1987), as well as leadership and educational administration (Butt et al, 2005, Evans 1999, Mercer and Evans 1991). Hoy and Miskel (1991) suggest that, motivation is a combination of factors that start and maintain work related behaviours towards the achievement of personal goals (*Ibid*, 168). In spite of its significance, motivation appears to be a difficult concept to define and to apply within organizations (Atkinson 1964, Evans 1998, Locke and Latham 2004). However, it is widely accepted that the word motivation was derived from the Latin word “movere” meaning to move (Charles and Centre 1995:72, Steers et al 2004:379). Research on motivation has led to the identification of some specific sources of motivation, explaining the psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary goal directed actions (Bernard et al 2005).

Motivation is either intrinsic or extrinsic (DeCharmes 1968). These two distinct branches of motivation have received considerable attention (Cameron and Pierce 1994, Carton 1996, Deci 1975, Deci and Ryan 2000, Gagné and Deci 2005), and the distinction between them has shed important light on both developmental and educational practices. Intrinsic motivation (autonomous motivation) remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate.

However, extrinsic motivation (exogenous motivation) is said to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation (Deci 1975, Deci and Ryan 2000). Intrinsic motivation, which leads to behaviours that occur in the absence of external controls or influence, is said to have internal causality, while behaviours that are induced by external forces (extrinsic motivation) are said to represent external causality.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Early theories of motivation, especially the reinforcement theories, proposed that motivated behaviours are triggered by an underlying need, deficiency, purpose or drive. However, White (1959) criticized theories of motivation built upon primary drives for not being able to explain exploratory and playful behaviour. As a result of this critique, a new approach to the concept of motivation emerged in order to explore the different dynamics that occurred in exploratory activities (White 1959). Studies which have empirically supported these dimensions have identified “the sense of competence”, and “perceived locus of causality”, as major factors central to the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci 1972, Deci and Ryan 1985, 2000).

The dichotomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation developed through attempts to explain motivation based on competence and locus of causality, provided elucidation on exploratory behaviours or goals that led to an individual’s action, which could not be explained by need and drive theories. Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task for its own inherent interest or enjoyment, while extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task for some separate outcome (Deci and Ryan, 1985, Isen and Reeve, 2006, Hayenga and Corpus, 2010, Ryan and Deci, 2000). While early studies and

theories of motivation were premised on external control, (see Skinner 1953), the development of cognitive evaluation theories (CET), and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) by Ryan and Deci (1985), advocate that behaviour could either be of an intrinsic or extrinsic nature (Deci and Ryan 2000).

Deci and Ryan (2000:56) suggest that intrinsic motivation is “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence”. According to this definition, intrinsic motivation is the need for one to have a sense of competency and pride in any activities undertaken. Proponents of intrinsic motivation assume that this kind of motivation provides satisfaction of innate psychological needs (e.g. needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness) (Amabile 1993, Ryan and Deci s1985). Amabile (1993) suggests that intrinsically motivated activities are characterised as a form of self-expression. Deci and Ryan (2000) add that intrinsically motivated behaviours that are performed out of interest, and satisfy the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy, are prototypes of self-determined behaviours.

In contrast, extrinsic motivated behaviours are those that are executed because they are instrumental to some separable consequence (Ambabile 1993, Deci and Ryan 2000, Gagné and Deci 2005). According to Deci and Ryan (2000), extrinsic motivation can vary in the extent to which it represents self-determination (self-directed motivation). As a form of controlled motivation (Gagné and Deci 2005), Deci (1971) suggests that extrinsic motivation could be further explained across an autonomy spectrum, depending on the degree of *internalization*, which refers to the degree to which an externally regulation has been internalized. According to Gagné

and Deci (2005:334), this occurs when people take in values, attitudes, or regulatory structures, such that the external regulation of behaviour is transformed into an internal regulation and thus no longer requires the presence of an external contingency. This type of extrinsic motivation represents three difference processes; introjection, identification and integration (see self-determination theory).

Extrinsic motivation, especially that centred on pay and financial reward appears to be an important motivator for employees (Rynes et al 2004). Clifford (1985) adds that job satisfaction is influenced by job rewards. Some research show that rewards and other benefits are essential factors in enhancing employees' job satisfaction and work motivation (Fletcher 2001, Maurer 2001). According to Rehman et al (2010), job satisfaction is more related to extrinsic rewards for employees than intrinsic rewards. Azumi and Lerman (1987) found that teachers valued extrinsic and other rewards more than intrinsic rewards. Capitalizing on pay (extrinsic factor), findings on job satisfaction have been inconclusive, with some studies suggesting that the motivational potential of pay is very short-lived and minimal (Evans 1997) and its relationship with overall job satisfaction also marginal (Spector 1997).

One of the early behavioural theories of motivation is Skinner's (1974) "operant conditioning", describing the effects of consequences of a particular behaviour on the future occurrence of that behaviour. He believed that extrinsic rewards would enhance motivation for a task that was already intrinsically motivating. In economics, this assumption is evident, where extrinsic incentives are prominent tools used in management (Kerps 1997). In contrast, some scholars have argued that the use of external rewards can undermine or inhibit intrinsic motivation (Lepper et al 1973, Lepper and Greene 1975, Ryan and Deci 1985.). According to Ryan and Deci

(2000:55), the quality of experience and performance can be very different when one is behaving for intrinsic rather than extrinsic reasons.

The last three decades have witnessed debates on the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Pierce 1994; Deci, Koestner and Ryan 2000), which are common strategies employed within schools to motivate learners (Stipek 2002). This debate has focused on the undermining effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci 1985), and the view that an extrinsic reward reinforces motivation (Cameron and Pierce 1994, Carton 1996). Similarly, economists argue that individuals would respond positively to incentives, (Gibbons 1997, Hreps 1997, Lazear 2000). The use of monetary reward as a central motivational strategy is practical and appealing since most people work to earn money (Gagné and Deci 2005). Conversely, for psychologists and sociologists, rewards and punishment are often counterproductive because they undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci 1971, Deci, Koestner and Ryan 2001).

Cameron and Pierce (1994) report that the negative effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation were limited and could be easily prevented in applied settings. In contrast, Deci et al (1999) stress the negative effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation. They posit that, while rewards are not harmful to motivation to perform a task, rewards given for low-interest tasks enhance free choice intrinsic motivation, while undermining the motivation to perform high-interest tasks. Extrinsic reward (in the form of verbal rewards) produced positive effects on free-choice motivation and self-reported task interest, while there was a negative effect on intrinsic motivation on high-interest tasks when the rewards were tangible, expected or offered beforehand

(Deci et al 1999).

Despite this on-going debate, there is some common ground of understanding. Cameron and Pierce (1994) argue that the undermining effects of extrinsic reward on intrinsic motivation are minimal and largely inconsequential for educational practitioners. Verbal rewards, a form of extrinsic reward, have been shown to have a positive effect on free-choice behaviours for college students (Deci et al 1999). However, the effects of praise on individuals are complex, as Henerlong and Lepper (2002) indicate that extrinsic rewards and praise in particular, can conflict with intrinsic motivation, as individuals may perceive it as controlling and dehumanizing.

Although Grant (2008: 54) asserts that intrinsic motivation is difficult to sustain in repetitive tasks, the benefits of intrinsic motivation in every setting are well established and cannot be ignored. Intrinsic motivation is associated with high quality learning and creativity (Deci and Ryan 2000:55), and contributes to maximizing instructional outcomes and achievement motivation. This natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive, social and physical development because it is, through acting on one's inherent interests, that one grows in knowledge and skills (Deci and Ryan 2000:56).

However, Carton (1996:247) purports that tangible reward may also be valuable, and warns that attention must be paid to how they are administered. This is because incentives are only weak reinforcers in the short run, and may become negative reinforcers in the long run (Benabou and Tirole 2003). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are both vital, especially with evidence suggesting that optimal

performance may be attained when high intrinsic motivation coexists with low or moderate extrinsic motivation (Harter 1992, Hayenga and Corpus 2010, Lin et al 2003). Finkelstien (2006) adds that personal characteristics also vary and has the potential of influencing the choice of behaviour, suggesting that motivation is not a unitary phenomenon as proposed by Ryan and Deci (2000).

Theories of Motivation

According to Deci and Ryan (1985), theories of motivation are built on a set of assumptions about the nature of people and about the factors that give impetus to action. One set regards them as mechanistic (theories that view humans as passive to the interaction of physiological drives and environmental stimuli) or organismic (theories that view organisms as active and being volitional in initiating behaviours). The premise of organismic theories is that organisms have intrinsic needs and physiological drives that could provide the energy for the organism to act (Deci and Ryan 1985:3-4).

Another set of assumptions regards motivation theories as “mechanistic” and “cognitive”. Weiner (1972:1) asserts that most theories on motivation have conceptualized behaviour in one of these two ways. Mechanistic analysis of behaviour is characterized as stimulus-response (S-R) while cognitive theories conceive an action sequence as instigated, not by stimulation, but by some source of information. This approach is characterized by stimulus- cognition- response (S-C-R). Another classification of motivation theories, which incorporates Deci and Ryan’s (1985) and Wiener’s (1972) dichotomy of motivation theories, has grouped these theories into three broad categories; content theories, process theories and reinforcement theories (Telfer and Swann 1986:39).

Needs or content theories

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Still acknowledged as one of the most widely utilized theories of motivation, Maslow's (1954) five-tier model of human needs acknowledges that humans do certain things in order to satisfy their needs. The theory states that humans will only seek higher level needs once lower level needs are satisfied. The assumption that the satisfaction derived from a lower level need can serve as a motivator to achieve satisfaction for a higher level need, from the most basic (physiological) toward the most complex (self-actualization) is directly relevant to the study and understanding of job satisfaction and motivation.

Maslow (1987) explains that the needs of an individual exist in a logical order and that, once the basic needs are fulfilled, they no longer serve as motivators for the individual. He hypothesized that human beings have five needs which exist in a hierarchical order, physiological (hunger, thirst, shelter, and sex), safety needs (security and protection from physical and emotional harm), social needs (affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship), ego or esteem (self-respect, autonomy and achievement, and recognition) and finally self-actualization (growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment), (Maslow 1970, Jones and Page 1986).

Maslow's basic needs (Maslow 1943, 1965, 1970) are thought to be structured so that the satisfaction or gratification of the lower-order needs leads to the activation of the next higher-order need in the hierarchy. This is the gratification/activation principle. The other principle is the deprivation/domination principle, which states that the most deficient need is the most important need. A distinction is sometimes made between

deficiency and growth needs. Needs for belonging, love, and self-actualization are referred to as growth needs; the others are deficiency needs. To achieve growth needs, deficiency needs must first be satisfied (Maslow 1987).

Despite being one of the most popular and accepted theories of needs classification, Jones and Page (1986) note that the theory is not supported by research, and has been criticized on both methodological and theoretical grounds. Similarly, Deci (1975) adds that empirical results on the significance of the theory have been inconclusive. This is because, while Maslow's theory, particularly its hierarchical nature and pursuit of needs, may appear more applicable to low income countries (Bennell and AKyeampong 2007), it may not be the same for developed countries. However, Maslow's theory is a useful framework for the understanding of need motivation in education and organizations, and the relevance of the conceptualisation of individual needs has been modified and adapted into organizational research. Although the theory is culturally insensitive, Staw (1983) notes that the theory has paved the way for the development of job design theories, since job enrichment has emphasized how job characteristics appeal to underlying needs for social interaction, competence and personal achievement.

McClelland's needs achievement theory

Using a similar approach to Maslow, McClelland (1962) based his theory on three needs. Need for affiliation (N-Affil), which he describes as the desire for positive relationships with others, need for power (N-Pow), the desire to influence and control over others and, finally, a need for achievement (N-Ach), which is the desire for productivity and to reach desirable goals. McClelland asserted that a person's needs

are influenced by their cultural background and life experiences. A person's motivation and effectiveness can be increased through an environment, which provides them with their ideal mix of each of the three needs (N-Ach, N-Pow and/or N-Affil).

Alderfer's ERG theory

Attempts were made to revise Maslow's work to align it with empirical research. One such approach is the modified and condensed hierarchy of Maslow's needs theory. Alderfer (1969), proposed three core needs in his ERG (existence, relatedness and growth) theory. He argues that these three core needs underlie all human action. Alderfer's (1969) existence needs embrace the two lower needs of Maslow's hierarchy theory, while relatedness emphasizes the desire humans have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied. They align with Maslow's social need and the external component of his ego need (Jones and Page 1986). Growth needs referred to intrinsic desires for self-confidence, and personal development, which overlaps with Maslow's ego need and self-actualization.

In contrast to Maslow's approach, this theory avoids the assumption that a certain group of needs must be satisfied before another set can emerge. There is also empirical evidence that individuals' (employees) needs may vary, could be at different levels (Shneider and Alderfer 1973), and do not necessarily start from basic needs. In addition, claims that satisfied needs can still remain motivators, which does not feature in Maslow's theory, has been empirically supported (Alderfer, Kaplan and Smith 1974).

McGregor's Theory "X" and Theory "Y"

McGregor (1960) drew from Maslow's (1954) work to suggest two distinct views of human nature. The first one, basically negative, labeled Theory X, and the other, positive, labeled Theory Y. After viewing the way managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of human nature is based on certain groupings of assumptions and that managers tend to mould their behaviour towards subordinates according to those assumptions.

Under Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers were that employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, attempt to avoid it. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve desired goals. Employees will shirk responsibilities, and seek formal direction wherever possible. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work, and will display little ambition.

In contrast to these negative views, McGregor listed four other assumptions that he called Theory Y, (positively oriented). He states that employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play, and people will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the organization's objectives (Jones and Page 1986, James 1987).

Theory X has been criticized as a pessimistic theory. Cole (1996:34) asserts that neither theory X nor theories Y have been empirically validated. In addition, the theories are extremes and an over simplification.

Hertzberg's Two-Factor Hygiene Theory

Related to Maslow's ideology of needs, Hertzberg's (1974) theory recognized that motivation could be achieved only by one set of factors. He argued that aspects of work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman's (1959) study of the job satisfaction of 200 accountants and engineers found that certain responses were consistent across the sample, revealing that job satisfaction was affected by two sets of the factors. One set they called "motivators" (intrinsic) and the other "hygienes" (extrinsic). Their study identified five specific motivators; achievement, recognition (for achievement), responsibility, advancement and the work itself, as well as seven hygiene factors; salary, supervision, interpersonal relations, policy and administration and working conditions (Herzberg et al 1959).

According to the two-factor theory, factors capable of creating job satisfaction are separate and distinct from factors capable of creating job dissatisfaction. Central to this theory is the view that the opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction but is no job dissatisfaction. Herzberg et al (1959) posit that (motivators) intrinsic factors such as the work itself, possibilities for recognition and growth, achievement, responsibility and autonomy, are central to human satisfaction, since they lead to growth and advancement. However, extrinsic factors, such as working conditions, salary, job security, and the interpersonal relationships workers shared with each other, are environmental factors that prevent humans from job dissatisfaction. According to them, although job dissatisfaction ensues in the absence of these factors, on their own, they can't cause job satisfaction.

Herzberg's theory has been discredited on grounds of methodological validity, (Schneider and Locke 1971), operational ambiguity of the terms motivation and job satisfaction (Bush and Middlewood 2005), and dual factor classification of motivators and hygiene factors (Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010, Shipley and Kiely 1988). Despite these shortcomings, the theory continues to attract a lot of attention (Jones and Page 1986). Research on teachers has shown that, contrary to Herzberg et al's (1959) classification, extrinsic factors such as pay and financial benefits, have been reported to lead to satisfaction in African countries (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010)

Process theories

These theories attempt to understand how individuals determine the amount of effort to exert in their jobs.

Vroom's expectancy theory

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory holds a major position in the study of work motivation, since it relies on an action-output contingency. His valence, instrumentality and expectancy model, in particular, has been the subject of numerous empirical studies, and has served as a rich source for theoretical innovations in domains such as organizational behaviour, leadership and compensation (Eerde and Thierry 1996: 575). Focusing on individuals' effort expended to fulfill a need or goal, Vroom (1964) suggests that people prefer certain goals or outcomes to others. Vroom adds that the strength and tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectation, as well as the attractiveness of the given outcome to the individual.

Hinging on performance motivation and expected outcomes, the theory advocates that job satisfaction is a function of the perceived relationship between an individual's effort and performance as well as the outcomes associated with the performance (Vroom 1964).

Vroom (1964) suggests that valence refers to all possible affective orientations toward outcomes, which are the importance, attractiveness, desirability, or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes. Instrumentality was described as an outcome-outcome association, and it has been interpreted not only as a relationship between an outcome and another outcome but also as a probability to obtain an outcome. While the theory suggests that individuals can experience high motivation and satisfaction when effort, performance and outcome are high, Eerde and Thierry (1996) note that expectancy is a subjective probability of an action or effort leading to an outcome or performance. This implies that individuals may encounter a set of other variables (personality type, working environment, ability and knowledge, supervisor's support) that could affect their effort, performance and outcomes, since effort alone cannot guarantee an outcome.

Although this theory has received some empirical support, empirical findings have not been consistent. However, research in Africa has shown that newly qualified teachers (NQTs) tend to experience a drop in motivation when their first posting is at a school that is operating under challenging circumstances, or in a remote locality, and falls beneath their expectations (Akeayampong and Lewin 2002). This is probably because the extent to which teachers' realistic expectations of their job are fulfilled also appears to be an important contribution to their job-related attitudes (Evans 1998).

Equity theory (Inequity theory)

Proposed by Adam (1963), this theory suggests that evaluation of rewards is based partly on comparison with others. The theory assumes that individuals are equally sensitive to equity (Huseman et al 1987), and that the outcomes/input ratio has to be equal for any form of comparison. According to this theory, workers are constantly monitoring and observing the amount of work related effort they invest in their job, alongside or in comparison to those of their colleagues, and how they are rewarded. This implies that a worker's motivation is influenced by the outcome of a comparison of their input-out ratio and the input-output ratio of their colleagues. Adam suggests that this comparison is often linked to employees' input (skills, education, time, training and efforts) and out-put (pay, fringe benefit, promotion as well as recognition and prestige). For example, if the ratio is perceived to be equal to the relevant others 'referents', a state of equity is said to exist. If the ratios are unequal, a state of inequity exists, leaving people to view themselves as under-rewarded or over-rewarded. The theory also suggests that dissatisfaction is popular with the state of inequity where the employee's outcome-input ratio is less than the outcome-input of comparable colleagues. Overall, the theory is based on the assumption that employees are motivated or experience more job satisfaction when their desire to be equitably treated is fulfilled at their job.

Although the theory is not exempt from criticism, there is some empirical evidence supporting this theory, particularly its simple conceptual model of predicting employees' attitudes and motivation with reward and work resources (Ahmad 2010, Takupiwa et a 2013). The theory has been criticized for its limited and narrow focus on pay as the basic outcome and basis for any work related comparison. The theory is

also criticized because it ignores personality types and orientations. For example, Huseman et al (1987) warn that people are not equally affected by inequity. Jones and Page (1987:16) posit that the theory has limitations, especially around operational and conceptual issues. For example, bearing in mind that job satisfaction and motivation are subjective concepts, all workers at any given time cannot appreciate or seek the same outcomes.

Goal setting theory

Championed by Locke (1964), this theory is based on the premise that much of human action is purposeful, in that it is directed by conscious goals (Locke and Latham 1990a). The motivational imperatives that follow from goal theory are that the goals of work should be specific, clear, attractive, and difficult but attainable. Locke (1969) notes that the successful accomplishment of goals leads to a satisfying and pleasurable state. His theory suggests that employees will experience a higher pleasurable state when they are more successful, or succeed beyond their set goal. However, employees are said to experience displeasure when a discrepancy between the set goal and the outcome of their performance exists. In other words, the non-accomplishment of a set goal creates a state of displeasure.

The theory also points that other factors, such as employees' work effort, organisational support and personality, can affect the attainment of goal-directed behaviours and performance. For example, feedback or knowledge of results on goal attainment is useful for maintaining the motivational force of goals (Locke, Cartledge and Koepel 1968). A study by Latham and Locke (2002) shows that the nature and characteristics, especially how specific and difficult they could be, can affect the extent to which it is successfully attained. There is evidence supporting this theory,

stating that people are motivated to perform better when goals are specific and difficult as opposed to when goals are simple and vague (Locke 1964).

Reinforcement theories

These theories are primarily concerned with behaviour modification, demonstrating the power of extrinsic rewards on motivation and behaviour. Proponents of these theories assume that behaviour is caused by events external to the person and that behaviour can be understood in terms of simple laws that apply to both human beings and animals. Central to it is the 'law of effects', by Thorndike (1898), that behaviour is determined by its consequences (Stipek 2002). Skinner (1974) expanded Thorndike's law and proposed a new dimension of the concept (operant conditioning). Operant conditioning refers to the use of consequences to modify behaviour through a process of reinforcement (Skinner 1953).

The reinforcement model assumes that the frequency of a behaviour increases if an individual is positively rewarded for the behaviour or if an unpleasant condition is removed or reduced in intensity (negative reinforcement) (Stipek 1988). It also holds that the frequency of bad behaviour decreases if the individual is punished for it. It generally assumes that, if a previously reinforced behaviour is no longer reinforced, its rate of occurrence decreases, and the behaviour becomes extinguished (Stipek 1988:19).

Although reinforcement techniques are commonly used in educational settings in the form of grade allocation, praise and tangible reward as motivators, the model appears problematic (Stipek 1988). There is a conceptual misunderstanding, in that negative reinforcers and punishment are often confused with each other (Stipek 2002). The

theories are considered mechanistic in their approach, with no reference to variables such as individual characteristics, choice, beliefs, expectations, or emotions, and it also ignores intrinsic dimensions of human behaviours (Steer and Porter 1991)

Self-determination theory

The theory focuses especially on volitional or self-determined behaviour and the social and cultural conditions that promote it. Self-determination theory also postulates a set of basic and universal psychological needs, namely those for autonomy, competence and relatedness, the fulfillment of which is considered necessary and essential to vital, healthy human functioning regardless of culture or stage of development (Deci and Ryan 1985).

According to the Self-determination theory (SDT), three basic psychological needs must be satisfied to foster well-being and health; the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy. The theory equally posits that any particular need(s) could be more salient than others at certain times and may be expressed differently, based on time, culture or experience. Competence need seeks mastery. Relatedness refers to the need to be connected with others, and to be cared for, while autonomy is the quest to be the causal agent of one's own behaviour (Ryan and Deci 2000).

The theory distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see above) and supports its justification primarily on locus of causality through two other sub-theories; cognitive evaluation theory, which explains intrinsic motivation, and organismic integration theory, which explains extrinsic motivation. Cognitive evaluation theory, being a sub theory of SDT, explains intrinsic motivation and

focuses on the needs for competence and autonomy, while organismic integration theory focuses on the various ways in which extrinsically motivated behaviour is regulated. The organismic integration theory (OIT), as a sub-theory, outlines four different types of extrinsic motivation with varying degrees of autonomy.

First, is the externally regulated or “amotivation”, which is the state of lacking an intention to act. According to this theory, an amotivated person’s behaviour will lack intentionality and a sense of personal causation. Amotivation therefore results from not valuing an activity (Ryan 1995), not feeling competent to do it (Deci 1975), or not believing it will yield a desired outcome (Ryan and Deci 2000).

Second is introjected regulation. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation, which is still quite controlling, because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride. Put differently, introjection represents regulation by contingent self-esteem. A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through identification. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own.

Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action, and assimilates them to the self, the more one’s extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined (Ryan and Deci 2000: 62).

Differences between Job satisfaction and Work Motivation

Job satisfaction and motivation both play central roles within organisations worldwide, and often appear to be intricately linked as each one can influence the other (Dinham and Scott 1998). This has led some researchers to employ the terms (job satisfaction and motivation) interchangeably; notably in Herzberg's (1956) seminal two-factor theory. This problem emanates from the neglect of conceptual clarity (Evans 1998). However, Bush and Middlewood (2005) say that, although job satisfaction and motivation are understandably often linked together, these terms are quite distinct.

Bush and Middlewood (2005:78), describe the difference between job satisfaction and motivation as the former being the state affecting the work someone currently does, while the later relates to the notion of anticipation that is looking forward to what will be achieved. This distinction is also found in Evans (1998) and Spector (1997), as "*perceived gratification*" and "*perceived anticipation*" for job satisfaction and motivation respectively. Moreover, job satisfaction is linked closely with "*psychological content or discontent*", originating from an affective and cognitive evaluation of one's current job (Hoppock 1935, Locke 1976, Vroom 1964). Motivation, in contrast, underpins the "*psychological propensity to act*" originating from motives or drives that energize an individual's readiness towards a certain reaction or behaviour (Evans 1999, Golembiewski 1973).

With both concepts being able to influence one another, a distinction based on this influential potential could be reached by analyzing each construct's relatedness with performance. Generally, job satisfaction is one variable that is part of the motivational process, as it has the ability to reinforce behaviour and motivation of performance

(Sergiovanni 1993). This is because, not only does it play a significant role in stimulating future and subsequent task-oriented behaviours by employees, it also serves as a predictor of the will to leave or remain in a profession (Ahmed et al 2010). This distinction is apparent when each construct is evaluated vis-à-vis a performance quotient, as a can be illustrated by figures 2.1 and 2.2.



Figure 2.1: Link between job satisfaction and level of performance



Figure2.2: Link between motivation and level of performance

(Source: adapted from Osttoff (1992), Gagne (1999) and Schultz and Teddlie (1989).

Figure 2.1 shows that the reported level of employee job satisfaction has a bearing on the level of employee motivation. This level of motivation sets the basis on which the employee makes an appraisal of the choices s/he would make in order to get the job done, which subsequently affects the level of performance. Figure 2.2 represents the initial motivation, which on its own influences the choice of actions an employee may embark on, which translates into performance based on the chosen behaviours.

In summary, the presence of job satisfaction will act as a motivator and foster an individual's initial motivation. Schultz and Teddlie (1989:461) note that a teacher's job satisfaction may serve to influence their morale, motivation and willingness to

maximise their teaching potential. According to Sergiovanni (1993), achievement, recognition and responsibility are key factors that contribute to teachers' job satisfaction, and the latter reinforces behaviour and serves a motivational purpose.

Empirical Studies in the UK

Introduction

Although the Anglophone education system in Cameroon today is different from that existing in the UK, there exists a deep-seated link between them from the colonial history of Cameroon (Marc-Ojong 2008). The curriculum, during the colonial period and up to the mid 1990s, originated from Britain (Fanso 1989, Law on Education 1998). This Anglo-Saxon education culture linking these systems provides the rationale for focusing on empirical studies from the UK in this section.

Trends in teachers' job satisfaction and motivation

Klassen and Anderson (2009) studied teachers' job satisfaction in southwest England, and compared their results to a similar study published in 1962. They noticed that, teachers in 1962 were most concerned with extrinsic aspects of their job (e.g. salary, condition of buildings, equipment and poor human relations). This contrasted with teachers in 2007, who expressed concern mostly with factors relating to teaching itself (e.g. time demands and pupils' behaviour). These intrinsic factors are now being heavily reported as determinants of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in the UK (Barmby 2006, Crossmann and Harris 2006).

Oswald and Gardner (2001) claimed that Britain experienced a sharp decline in the levels of job satisfaction in its public sector in the 1990s. This situation was even more critical in the education sector, where a teacher attrition crisis was declared

(BBC News 2001). According to Pachler (2001), teaching is viewed as a badly paid job, characterized by heavy workloads, high levels of bureaucracy, poor student behaviour, negative media coverage and lack of status. Writing for the *Guardian* Newspaper, Sutcliffe (1997), reports that “morale in staffrooms has hit rock bottom, with teachers feeling disillusioned, demoralised and angry at being forced to carry out unpopular government policies”. He also stated that teachers were not only dissatisfied, but were unhappy to teach children in large classes, and working in schools that are dilapidated, underfunded and overstretched.

Research projects have indicated significant differences in the overall job satisfaction scores of UK teachers. These differences could be explained by the variations existing in teachers’ individual and school characteristics (Barmby 2006, Spear et al. 2000), the type of leadership (Dinham, 2005, Evans 1998), or in the conceptual ambiguity of job satisfaction (Evans 1997). However, certain themes recur within these studies, such as students’ behaviour, workload/marking and hours worked, and the status of the profession (Butt et al 2006, Barmby 2006, Boreham et al 2006).

Rose (2007) reports that job satisfaction increased dramatically between 1999 and 2006, with the profession rising from 54th to 11th in a league table of job satisfaction. Contradictory evidence showing that UK teachers are satisfied (Crossmann and Harris 2006; Sturman 2002), and dissatisfied (Gardner and Oswald 1999) may be due to the use of dissimilar methodologies. For example, findings from one region (e.g. Wales, Scotland and England), or one educational level (primary or secondary education), or type of school, may not represent all sectors across the UK.

Turnover and retention

The failure of any education system to retain its qualified, motivated and experienced staff would suggest that aspects of teachers' motivation and job satisfaction are being neglected (Dolton and Newson 2003). This situation was observed in the UK in the 1980s (Mercer and Evans 1991), with Smethem (2007) reporting a high rate of teacher turnover, indicating retention problems. According to the NAS/UWT union (2008), threats of a perennial teacher retention crisis were prevalent. Dolton (2006) notes that the challenges of assuring the supply of high-quality schoolteachers in the UK are a result of government budget constraints and structural demographic changes within the teaching sector.

Barmby (2006) reports that, not only has this retention crisis affected the general teaching force, but it has also produced an increasing teacher shortage in some specific subject areas such as Mathematics and Science. Pachler (2001) adds that shortages have also been observed among foreign language teachers. In addition, Cooper and D'inverno (2005) claim that 24% of full-time mathematics teachers in English secondary education have 'weak' or 'nil' qualifications in the subject, with 31% of these teachers over the age of 50. Though these claims may reflect some issues of concern, See et al (2004) dismissed the idea of a teacher shortage crisis in the UK, claiming that when teacher shortages do occur, they are only regional or subject-specific. In contrast, Crossman and Harris (2006) note that the reported teacher crisis in the UK may be a consequence of low job satisfaction.

The introduction of a national curriculum following the 1988 Education Reform Act was seen to lead to a significant increase in workload (Scott et al 1999). Similarly, the implementation of the non-compulsory policy of modern languages at the age 14 in

2004, for example, was a demoralizing factor, which contributed to a decline in the number of teachers (Smethem 2007). This was perceived to exacerbate role ambiguity and role complexity for modern language teachers and was a demotivator for this group of teachers. In addition, the lack of professional development and growth opportunities has also been identified as a cause of dissatisfaction (Scott et al 1999), especially with the unprecedented level of policy change.

Occupational stress is regarded as one of the main antecedents of turnover (Travers and Cooper 1993), which also correlates with teachers' job satisfaction (Chaplain 2006). Empirical studies show that UK teachers have high stress levels from their profession (Griva and Joeekes 2010, Johnson et al 2005). This includes frustration, physical and emotional exhaustion (Griva and Joeekes 2010, Kinman, Wray and Strange, 2011, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978). In a comparative study of occupations in the UK, the teaching profession was reported to have a worse than average score on physical health, psychological well-being and job satisfaction (Johnson et al, 2005). With respect to gender, Chaplain (1995) adds that men are more stressed than women, especially in respect of pupils' behaviour and attitudes. Similarly, Travers and Cooper (1993) note that women are typically less at risk than men from the hazards of stress-related illness.

Factors influencing UK teachers' job satisfaction and motivation

A comprehensive review of research in the UK has identified several factors to influence job satisfaction and motivation (Spear et al 2000). According to Dinham and Scott (1998), these variables could be grouped into three categories (intrinsic factors, school-based factors and system level factors). Intrinsic factors entail aspects

of the job directly dealing with the core business of teaching. School-based factors relate to school-level working conditions. System level factors relate to aspects of the educational system and society at large. According to Dinham and Scott (2000, 2004), system level factors can be regrouped as the “third domain”, which comprises the educational and socio-political context, and depicts forces as the status of teachers, imposed responsibilities placed on schools, recognition of teachers by systems and employers, and the pace and nature of educational change (Scott et al 2001). This section will explore these factors following Sergiovanni’s (1967) intrinsic and extrinsic classification, adding consideration of differentiating factors such as type of school and demographic variables.

Intrinsic factors of job satisfaction and motivation

Work itself

Although evidence suggests that UK primary teachers are more satisfied (Boreham et al 2006, Butt et al 2006, Cooper and Kelly 2011) and feel more fulfilled (Hargreaves et al 2006) than secondary school teachers, both categories of teacher cite intrinsic and altruistic reasons for joining the profession (Barmby 2006, Scott et al 1999). According to Dinham and Scott (1998), teachers are most satisfied by matters intrinsic to teaching (student achievement and mastery of professional skill), irrespective of their position in schools. These claims have been echoed by Scott et al (1999:302), who found teachers to be motivated by altruism, affiliation and personal growth as well being satisfied with what they describe as the “core business” of teaching (working with students and seeing them achieve and increasing their own professional skills and knowledge).

Working with children

The most important reason cited for entering the profession pivots on working with children (Barmby 2006, Dinham and Scott 1998, Scott et al 1999). According to Addison and Brundrett (2008), besides the love of working with children, teachers perceive their students' achievement to have a high motivational value for their profession. Collectively, working with students, making a significant contribution to learning, and helping them to modify their attitudes and behaviours, are satisfiers and motivators (Dinham and Scott 1998, Scott et al 1999, Spear et al 2000). Addison and Brundrett (2008) add that teachers feel highly motivated when they experience a sense of achievement from the completion of such enjoyable tasks. They added that teachers found this to be a principal motivator. Teachers in their study also enjoyed working with motivated and well-behaved children who make considerable progress with their academic tasks. Teachers also point to poor student academic achievement as a source of dissatisfaction (Dinham and Scott 1998), and demotivation (Addison and Brundrett 2008).

These points show that, while working with children could be a major source of satisfaction, it could also cause dissatisfaction under certain circumstances. This is often associated with long working hours, heavy workload coupled with administrative paper work, and students' misbehaviour (Barmby 2006, Evans 1998, Spear et al 2000). Stress, compounded by work overload, student misconduct and lack of recognition (Greenglass and Burke 2003, Griva and Joeke 2010, Johnson et al 2005, Kyriacou 2001), are also well-established sources of teacher dissatisfaction. Griva and Joeke (2010) show that, even though teachers derive meaning from their job, the total time spent at work is a stress predictor. Kyriacou (2001: 29) defines

stress as “the negative emotions resulting from a teacher’s work”. He notes that stress has the potential to induce certain behavioural patterns that are dysfunctional and unproductive, which could induce job dissatisfaction.

The Pathfinder project, launched in 2002 by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), was an attempt to address teachers’ concerns about students’ behaviour, workload, and work hours (Butt and Lance 2005). These authors suggest that, though there was no systematic relationship between job satisfaction and hours worked, there was a relationship between a reduction in working hours, and an improvement in the job satisfaction of secondary teachers (Butt et al 2005, Barmby 2006, Boreham et al 2006). Barmby (2006) concluded that teachers’ workload and student behaviour are the most dissuasive factors, preventing teachers from entering the profession or causing them to leave.

Professional training and development

Teachers’ preparation has also emerged in the literature as a source of dissatisfaction, particularly among new teachers, who feel ill prepared for their role (Darling-Hammond 2000, Mercer and Evans 1991). The need for capacity building among teachers is imperative (Murray et al, 2009), and opportunities for professional development contribute to teachers’ job satisfaction and efficacy (Evans 1998, Scott et al 1999). Addison and Brundrett (2008) add that the advancement of professional skills is a significant motivator for teachers. Teachers’ professional development is widely thought to enhance teachers’ knowledge, self-efficacy and subject mastery, which spills over to create higher job satisfaction (Evans 1998, Scott et al 1999, Spear et al 2000) and higher retention within the profession (Rhodes et al 2004). In addition,

Spear et al (2000) report that, in order for teachers to experience high job satisfaction, teachers need their jobs to be intellectually challenging. They add that job satisfaction can be attained when teachers have high levels of professional autonomy and possess a sense of meaningfulness (contributing to and benefiting society). Collectively, teachers' development could lead to an increased in efficacy level, autonomy, personal capacity and involvement in change processes, which could positively influence job satisfaction (Butt et al 2005).

Interpersonal relations

The collegial climate and amicable interpersonal relations teachers share within their schools, and with members of the school community (children, parents, colleagues and their superiors), have also been cited as a source of motivation (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Evans 1998, Spear et al 2000). According to Dinham and Scott (2000), the desire for teachers to work with and for people appeared to be a motivator. Butt et al (2005:463) note that, "teachers' sense of satisfaction and motivation is embedded in a large set of beliefs and attitudes, such as working with supportive colleagues and children and ethos of the school". Dinham (1995) notes that teachers derived satisfaction from the kind of interpersonal relationships they shared with their colleagues, students (current and past), especially those who kept in touch with them. He adds that good interpersonal relationships with parents also contribute to teachers' job satisfaction.

Recognition and appreciation

The need for recognition and appreciation is one common to the profession which, if appropriately provided, can cause satisfaction and vice versa (Dinham and Scott 2004, Spear et al 2000, Mercer and Evans 1991). Research evidence has also pointed at praise to be very motivational, especially in the form of positive feedback from the principal or any member of the school community (Evans 1998, Mercer and Evans 1991). Addison and Brundrett (2008) note that acquiring positive responses and feedback from children is a principal motivator for UK teachers.

Extrinsic factors of job satisfaction and motivation

Pay

Teachers' pay has been cited as one major reason why individuals decide to join the profession in the UK (Barmby 2006, Hargreaves et al 2006). It has also been cited as a source of dissatisfaction and attrition, especially when considered to be out of proportion to workload (Mercer and Evans 1991, Travers and Cooper 1993:21, Spear et al 2000). Salary appears to play a significant role in recruiting and retaining teachers in deprived areas or schools (Dolton and Newson 2003), especially in major cities such as London (Barmby 2006). Evans (2001:103) argues that the mediatisation (perennial media reports equating job satisfaction with salary and incentives) of the profession, and reports from teachers' unions in the UK, have promulgated the notion of pay as an important factors in three aspects of motivation (recruitment, retention and improvement).

Despite this observation, pay or incentives appear to be a common source of dissatisfaction reported in the literature (Barmby 2006, Chevalier and Dolton 2004,

Evans 1998, Gazioglu and Tansel 2006). According to the unions, the key cause of poor recruitment and retention of teachers is the poor position of teachers in terms of salary, compared to other graduates (Smethem 2007:316). However, Barmby (2006) notes that, even though financial incentives influence teacher supply, it is one of the least rated motivating variables by UK teachers. In addition, Evans (1998) notes that pay is not a prime motivator, because the influence it has on teachers' attitudes is limited. Generally, money is not a major variable impinging on teachers' satisfaction, as its motivational effects may be short lived (Evans 1998; Gazioglu and Tansel 2006).

Status

The professional status and prestige of teaching is identified as a factor influencing teachers' career satisfaction in the UK (Spear et al 2000, Scott et al 1999). This has been associated with negative perceptions that often provoke dissatisfaction. Coupled to dissatisfaction derived from pay, the lack of status and promotion opportunities have emerged as major predictors of job dissatisfaction (Travers and Cooper, 1993; Hargreaves et al, 2006). UK Teachers have generally reported dissatisfaction with the profession's status (Boreham et al 2006, Evans 2000), and wider societal perception (Spear et al 2000). Evans (2000) adds that both teachers and academics in the UK express concerns that their low status directly affects their morale, job satisfaction and motivation.

Leadership

Given that the Pathfinder project was similar for all sectors (special, primary and secondary schools), Butt et al (2005) observed that the uncharacteristically high, and improving, levels of teacher job satisfaction within certain schools could only be

explained by internal factors (e.g. school leadership). Evans (1998) makes a similar observation, stating that, though teachers experienced similar day-to-day ambience at school, their individual job related attitudes varied, and could be explained by leadership. In line with these views, Dinham (2005) suggests that principals' positive attitude towards change and practice is a major contributor to outstanding educational outcomes. Accordingly, the role of the headteacher in driving change and achieving satisfied staff is highlighted, because leaders have the potential to serve as buffer to school-level constraints, and can reduce the negative effects of external pressure encountered by teachers (Butt et al, 2005, Evans 1998, Dinham and Scott 1998, Mercer and Evans 1991).

Research shows that the leadership style enacted by school leaders can have a direct or indirect impact on the job attitudes of teachers (Evans 1998, Evans 2001, Evans and Johnson 1990). A survey of middle and high school teachers, by Evans and Johnson (1990), revealed that principals have the ability to impinge indirectly on teachers' job attitudes. Although their study did not show a direct relationship between principals' leadership behaviours and teachers' job satisfaction, it revealed that the principal's leadership affected the stress level of teachers, and could mitigate teachers' sense of burnout.

Although Evans (2001) notes that the relationship between the leadership of the headteacher and teachers' job satisfaction is indirect, school leadership appears to be one of the most significant school-based variables that affect the morale, job satisfaction and motivation of teachers (Dinham 2005, Evans 1998, 1999). Research suggests that the school principals' leadership is crucial, as it sets the tone and type of

school climate that prevails within the school, as well as creating opportunities that foster teachers' capacity and participation in decision-making. The principal's ability to make teachers feel part of a collegial and supportive environment is a potential satisfier as it gives teachers control of their own teaching and professional growth (Dinham and Scott 1998). The principal's support can significantly contribute to teachers' job satisfaction and personal accomplishments (Brackett et al 2010).

Harris (2002) adds that the use of praise by principals, involving teachers in decision-making, as well as giving them an opportunity to exercise professional autonomy, are significant strategies used by effective principals to raise teachers' effectiveness. These elements have been cited to increase job satisfaction and motivation levels (Dinham 2005, Evans 1998). The principal's role in providing the conditions where teachers can operate effectively, and students can learn, is significant (Dinham 2005), especially when it comes to creating and communicating a vision, which is shared by the staff (Harris 2002). Leadership has been identified as a factor in creating a climate that facilitates and fosters quality instruction and which engages teachers' commitment and enthusiasm (Evans, 1998). Nevertheless, Sergiovanni (1995) warns that the mere presence of leadership doesn't automatically result in the desired expectations. This is because the administrative style adopted by the principal could also result in dissatisfaction, which can make teachers dread going to work (Evans 1997). Although Evans (1998:27) identifies leadership as a motivator, leadership could have a double-edged effect, which is often not straightforward (Evans 2001).

The nature of supervision is also noted to influence teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Gazioglu and Tansel 2006). Teachers point to supervision as a source of

dissatisfaction, especially when there is a lack of support and feedback or a weak employee-supervisor relationship. However, Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) suggest that, compared to other professions, teachers reported high satisfaction with the respect they get from supervisors. This highlights the view that individual's affective reactions to work are largely dependent on the interactions between them and their environment (Barry 1987), and would generate pleasurable outcomes if the interactions are perceived to be positive.

Job Satisfaction and Differentiation

Type of school

Crossman and Harris (2006) note that the job satisfaction of UK teachers is affected by the type of school, which is defined by ownership, funding or religious affiliation. Their study showed that teachers in independent and privately managed schools registered higher satisfaction levels than those in foundation schools. This was probably because teachers in private schools enjoyed their working conditions, such as working in classes with fewer pupils, and benefited from other extrinsic factors, such as longer holidays, than their counterparts in public schools (Green et al 2008). This observation echoes Scott et al's (1999) finding that the satisfaction level of teachers varied across different types of schools.

Demographic Factors

Irrespective of the type of school, some studies have identified demographic variables, such as age, gender, level of education, and total years of teaching experience, as factors influencing satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Fraser et al 1998, Kyriacou and

Sutcliffe 1978, Poppleton and Riseborough 1990). For example, women tend to be more satisfied than men (Boreham et al 2006, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978, Travers and Cooper 1993, Poppleton and Riseborough 1990).

Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978) note that, despite this difference, women reported greater dissatisfaction than men in respect of classroom variables and pupils' behaviour. In contrast, men reported dissatisfaction with issues relating to administration, career development, lack of participation in decision-making, and the need for professional recognition (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978). Travers and Cooper (1993) suggest that these differences could be explained by male teachers' greater interest in managerial positions than their female counterparts. In addition, Fraser et al (1998) suggest that, while female teachers are more satisfied with recognition of their efforts, male teachers are more concerned and satisfied with their influence over school policies. They add that more experienced teachers were generally less satisfied with teaching. However, Chaplain (1995) reports that, although job satisfaction dropped significantly from teachers in the youngest bracket to teachers in the middle age bracket, it rose again for those in the older group.

Research on UK workers (including teachers) suggests higher job satisfaction for women than men (Chaplain 1995, Clark 1996, Spear et al 2000), older workers (Griva and Joeke 2010), and those with lower levels of education. Some empirical evidence suggests that the more qualified employees are rather less satisfied with their jobs (Clark 1996, Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996). Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) found that teachers with higher qualifications were more dissatisfied with their pay. See (2004)

identifies perceived low-salaries as a major reason why more highly qualified students tend not to consider teaching as a career.

Conversely, Crossman and Harris (2006) suggest that there is no significant difference in the levels of job satisfaction with regards to demographics such as age, gender and length of service. This corroborates claims that age is not related to job satisfaction (Butt et al 2005, Dinham and Scott 1998).

Personality Characteristics

Evans (1998, 2000) suggests that personality characteristics could account for the differences in reported levels of job satisfaction and motivation between teachers. She notes that individual need-fulfillment accounted for the diversity of results from studies of teacher job satisfaction. She argues that the heterogeneity of teachers reflects and reveals individual job-related needs and the individualized nature of teacher job satisfaction and motivation (Evans 1998). She adds that, coupled to teachers' professional orientation, which varies among teachers, job satisfaction and motivation are influenced by teachers' relative perspective and realistic expectations. However, Furnham et al (2002) disagree, stating that personality characteristics do not have a strong or consistent influence either on what individuals perceive as important in their work environment or on their levels of job satisfaction.

Investigating teachers' job stress, mental well-being and job satisfaction among minority ethnic teachers in the UK, Miller and Travers (200) state that teachers' ethnicity could also be a source of stress and dissatisfaction as a result of discrimination. Their study also showed that teachers' self-image, and the way they were perceived as professional by their colleague and students, were low as a result of

their accent. These issues collectively eroded teachers' job satisfaction.

Factors occurring beyond the intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions

Educational change

One aspect that has affected the job attitudes of UK teachers has been the changes in the national curriculum, educational policy, and government reforms (Evans 2000), which have been sources of great frustration and stress (Travers and Cooper 1993). Dinham and Scott (1998) reported that teachers found the educational changes and increased expectations on schools to be the most strongly felt dissatisfiers. They add that the perceived low level of support provided by the system to implement changed policies, procedures and curricula exacerbated this feeling of dissatisfaction (Dinham and Scott 1998). Also, the nature and pace of some government reforms has elevated teachers' concern with increased paper work and bureaucracy.

Generally, although evidence on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation from research studies conducted in the UK is inconsistent, the prominent view is that UK teachers appear to be more concerned with intrinsic aspects of their job (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Barmby 2006, Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 1997, 1998, Scott et al 1999, Spear et al 2000). However, a few reports show that, though UK teachers are satisfied, they are not fully committed to their jobs (The Guardian 2003, Sturman 2002).

Empirical Studies in Africa

Research on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation within African countries, has identified certain themes common to literature elsewhere. These include pay,

working conditions, student behaviour and achievement, as well as lack of respect (Adelabu 2005, Bennell and Mukyanuzi 2005, George and Mensah 2010, Hammett 2008, Mtika and Gates 2011, Ogochi 2014, Titanji 1994). However, additional Africa-specific factors include political harassment and instability, health, and school safety (Chireshe and Shumba, 2011, Masitsa 2011).

Although teachers are recognized as the main actors for quality education (Osei 2006), the declining education quality is a serious problem for African countries (Chapman and Carrier 1990). This decline may be attributable to the quality of teachers, and teacher motivation (Bennell and Akyewapong 2007). It is noted that, despite these initiatives to promote education in developing countries, such as the millennium goal (primary education for all by 2015), there exists a paucity of empirical evidence on teacher job satisfaction and motivation (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Garrett 1999).

While a very few studies have examined these concepts within the overall African context (World Bank 2004), some have employed a comparative approach, focusing on Francophone Sub-Saharan African countries (Michaelowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). Others have included Asia with Sub-Saharan Anglophone African countries (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). This empirical review will first examine overview studies, and then focus on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation within specific African countries.

Overview studies

Bennell and Akyewapong's (2007) study, conducted in Anglophone sub-Sahara

African countries, (Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania and Zambia) and South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan), found that a sizeable proportion of primary school teachers have low levels of job satisfaction and are poorly motivated. They add that the low teacher motivation is reflected in the deteriorating standards of teachers' professional conduct and performance. This confirms reports from other studies that have noted cases of malfeasance among teachers (World Bank 2004), with dysfunctional and inappropriate behaviours within schools as a result of low job satisfaction (Michealowa 2002). Even though results from these countries varied considerably, making generalization difficult, they collectively suggest that teachers' job satisfaction in African is low.

According to Bennell and Akyeampong (2007:25), most schooling systems within Sub-Saharan Africa are faced with a teacher motivation crisis, which has far reaching implications for teacher performance and educational development. Although teachers in their study cited the same negative and positive motivating factors, they invariably reached different conclusions about the overall impact on motivation. Bennell and Akyewapong (2007) add that over one-third of the sample indicated that teachers were poorly motivated, with motivation levels in Ghana and Zambia appearing to be chronically low. Michaelowa's (2002) survey of Francophone teachers from Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Madagascar and Senegal, also shows evidence of low motivation.

Overview studies have collectively noted that accountability, policy environment, security and conflict, pay, career progression, status, vocational commitment, teachers' competence, working and living conditions, teacher management and professional

support, and the AIDS epidemic, are the main factors influencing teachers' job satisfaction (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michealowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). The effects of these variables differed considerably across the different countries.

Major intrinsic factors

Teaching itself and workload

The motivation to impart knowledge resonates as a positive drive for teachers, even though heavy workload contributes to lower morale. This is a particular concern for teachers in rural areas, who face staffing and other operational challenges (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Increases in teachers' workload have also been exacerbated by recruitment freezes, which are prompted by the acute fiscal crisis in many countries (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007), and extended absences as a result of teachers travelling long distances to collect their salary (Michaelowa 2002). Michaelow (2002:10) notes that teachers are generally less satisfied when they have to teach classes with high numbers of students in isolated rural areas far from the next city.

Student Factors

Even though working with, and helping, children explains why individuals join the profession, they may also cause dissatisfaction and stress. Students' aptitude level at the beginning of the school year, their learning outcomes and behavioural issues, are at the centre of teachers' concerns (Bennell and Akeayampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Bennell and Akyeapong (2007) also claim that students' misbehaviour is a major factor that negatively affects teachers' motivation and job satisfaction. They

add that students' attitudes, coupled with high absenteeism also erodes teachers' motivation. Implicitly recognising the indirect link between students' socio-economic background, learning outcomes and teachers' job satisfaction, Michaelow (2002), notes that students from homes with radio, television and books performed better than those without. These outcomes also affect teachers' achievement standards and job satisfaction.

Teacher efficacy, recognition and promotion prospects

According to Bennell and Akyeampong (2007), most African teachers, particularly primary school teachers, are untrained and incompetent. They add that poor training and limited development programmes could account for this observation. Teachers' dissatisfaction with in-service development opportunities is linked to the nature of the programmes/events, which are usually one-shot, top-down, and unrelated to the broad strategy or teachers' needs.

Career progression, particularly promotion, is also cited to contribute to teachers' motivation and satisfaction, because of the espoused prestige and financial benefits (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). However, the limited promotion prospects pose challenges in many African countries, with promotion criteria perceived to be highly vulnerable to malpractices and subjectivity (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007).

Major extrinsic factors

Pay, allowances and incentives

The overview studies reveal interesting contradictions in respect of pay. In the French

speaking Sub-Saharan African countries for example, Michealowa (2002) reports that, even though some countries had low salaries, notably Cameroon, this had no significant impact on teachers' job satisfaction. Dismissing the notion that an increase in pay can increase teachers' job satisfaction, Michealowa's (2002) study showed that teachers with relatively higher salaries, particularly those in Cote d'Ivoire and Senegal, were less satisfied with their jobs compared to their counterparts in other countries (*ibid*: 16-17). This contradicts findings in Bennell (2004), and Bennell and Akyeampong (2007), suggesting that pay level affects the job satisfaction and motivation of Sub-Saharan Africa teachers.

Allowances and incentives schemes available to the profession are also unattractive and inadequate. The failure to institutionalise attractive additional incentives to teachers, particularly in remote areas, is a key source of dissatisfaction with incentives (Bennell 2004). Although teachers in some remote areas are given additional incentives (Bennell and Akyeampon 2007), these incentives are often too small to have a significant effect on teachers' well-being or to counteract the challenges of their deployment (Bennell 2004). Dissatisfaction is also cited with the managerial procedures for resource deployment, which leads to late payments and other inconveniences (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007).

Working conditions

Dissatisfaction with teachers' working conditions is often associated with lack of infrastructure and teaching resources (Bennell and Akyewapong 2007, Michaelowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). Insufficient classroom equipment, large class sizes, and issues within the classroom, are prominent sources of dissatisfaction

(Bennell and Akyewapong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Teachers are generally less satisfied working in schools and classrooms that are poorly equipped. This is particularly dissatisfying when the effect of large class size on teachers' well being is negative (Michaelowa 2002).

Bennell and Akyewapong (2007) note that the pursuit of the millennium goal of Universal Primary Education has negatively affected teachers' motivation, as efforts to attain this goal have led to an increase in enrolments, without increases in teacher recruitment. This has led to large class sizes and heavy workloads, which has significantly eroded teachers' morale and motivation, reducing classroom performance (Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007).

Status

The low and declining professional status is also a source of concern, especially when the perceptions held by the society are negative (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) note that teaching no longer holds the prestige it used to during the colonial era, which was highly valued and closely associated with strong intrinsic motivation. The shortening of pre-service training in many African countries to just one year in college, followed by one year of on-the-job training, has also lowered the overall standing of teaching in relation to other professions (Bennell and Akyewapong 2007).

According to Michaelowa (2002), teachers who are affiliated to the profession on a contract basis are particularly unhappy. She notes that contracted teachers were particularly concerned with job security, incentive mechanism, their overall well-being, and showed a strong desire to change school or acquire a more

secure government position. This is also because contracted teachers usually earn less than civil status teachers (Bennell 2004).

Government policy and teacher management

The ban on corporal punishment is perceived to be a counterproductive policy on teachers' administrative and corrective power (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). Teachers, particularly newly qualified teachers (NQT) in rural schools, tend to favour the use of the cane to maintain discipline (Hedges 2000). This demonstrates a lack of effective classroom management techniques and skills. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) note that the growing student population and large classes, as a result of the Millennium Development Goal, has exacerbated teachers' challenges with discipline and classroom management issues.

The accountability system and teacher management operations in most African countries are poor and inefficient (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). Teacher deployment and overall management are among issues that affect teachers' motivation and job satisfaction in most of sub-Saharan Africa. According to Bennell (2004), the weak correlation between school enrolment and the number of teachers present to take up service is a clear indication of a poor deployment mechanism. The effect of poor teachers' deployment is negative on teachers' motivation, especially when it translates into an increase in workload and stress levels (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). This concern is acute for teachers working in rural schools, with staffing challenges and a disproportionate number of unqualified teachers (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelow 2002). This is because teachers (particularly females) resist or alter their deployment to rural schools

through bribes and unethical practices to secure favourable urban postings, making it common to find more female teachers in urban schools than rural schools (Bennell 2004). According to Bennell (2004), most educational systems are inadequately controlled, and have little or no behavioural sanctions, and this undermines professional conduct and performance. However, Bennell (2004) opines that the decentralization of school management functions could significantly improve teachers' recruitment and deployment practices.

Leadership and supervision

School leadership, as well as the supervisory role of the head teacher, has been cited in overview studies to contribute to teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Michaelowa 2002). School-based factors, such as the quality of leadership and supervision, are also cited to explain why teachers seek transfer from one school to another in most African countries (Bennell 2004). Bennell and Akyepong (2007) note that, coupled to headteachers' lack of formal administrative control over teachers, their weak pedagogic supervisory role adds to teachers' dissatisfaction. This is also because inspections are infrequent and with little or no follow up. They add that headteachers in remote areas tend to be authoritarian in nature, and base their leadership on the hierarchical structure of their position, limiting delegation, teachers' participation and communication. These conditions tend to leave teachers demotivated and dissatisfied with their job. However, Michaelowa (2002) notes that teachers are more attuned to like their supervisors but disliked the control aspect of supervision partly because it often takes a punitive approach rather than coaching and mentoring.

External support

Teachers are likely to be happier and more efficient when appropriately supported by various stakeholders (parents, community, school authority, ministry of education) (Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Teachers are less likely to change their school when parents and other stakeholders are active, providing manpower, finance, and learning resources or other material assets to improve teaching and learning (Michaelowa 2002). Conversely, in the absence of this support, teachers feel abandoned, neglected and even incapacitated in extreme cases. Bennell (2004) suggests that community participation can enhance teachers' accountability.

Differentiation issues

Qualifications

Bennell and Akyeampong's (2007) study with Anglophone teachers shows that the relationship between qualifications and motivation is complex, with inconclusive findings. Levels of job satisfaction varied with academic qualifications beyond the Baccalauréat for Francophone teachers (Michaelowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007:28) note that no sizeable differences existed between the motivation levels of qualified and unqualified teachers in nearly all the case study countries. These findings were surprising given that unqualified teachers are usually paid much less and have limited opportunities to acquire basic teaching qualifications. They claimed that the inconsistencies were partly due to other factors such as regional imbalances (rural and urban), gender differences, or teachers' longevity in the profession.

Age and gender

Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) found that younger and better-qualified teachers in urban schools are generally more dissatisfied with their jobs as compared with the older generation of teachers, who still felt privileged to be teachers. In Michaelowa and Wittmann's (2007) study, male teachers were found to be less satisfied than female teachers.

Geographical Location

Teachers are generally less satisfied when posted to isolated rural areas, far away from the city (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) add that teachers working in rural schools face more difficulties than those in urban regions, and are demotivated due to their poor living and working conditions. Schools located in rural areas are characterized by a lack of resources and limited support from education authorities, and even when incentivized, these efforts are generally too small to have a major impact on teacher deployment (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002).

School type

Though speculative, and with limited evidence, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007: 28) note that the motivation of secondary school teachers appears to be generally higher than primary school teachers in most case study countries. This stems from evidence suggesting that most African primary school teachers (especially Ghana) reported a desire to upgrade to the status of a secondary school teacher (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). This suggests that secondary school teachers benefited from some form of reward, incentive or prestige.

Similarly, private school teachers are usually better motivated than those in government schools, as a result of higher pay, better working and living conditions, and more effective management (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007). However, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) warn that exceptions to this pattern may exist due to the size, fees and group of clients of the private schools, which may affect the schools' environment. The availability of school equipment can play a significant motivational role especially in respect of prestigious items such as electricity and computers (Michaelowa 2002). She adds that basic items such as chalk, blackboard, and the availability of textbooks, are some of the most important school-based factors that influence teachers' motivation.

Cumulatively, it is apparent from these studies that factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in most African countries are common. However, irregularities and contradictions within these studies could be linked to two main reasons. First, the methodological approaches utilized in these studies were not consistent and robust. Michealowa (2004), for example, acknowledges the absence of valid and recent data in drawing some of her conclusions. Second, the differences across the various countries' socioeconomic or sociopolitical structures could account for this disparity, as it determines the national GDP per capita, as well as the budget for education and the incentive systems for educators.

Country-specific empirical studies in Africa

Country specific research within African countries has highlighted certain themes common to research on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation elsewhere. These factors include low pay, poor working conditions, and lack of respect from students

and society (Bennell and Mukyanuzi 2005, George and Mensah 2010, Hammett 2008). Additional Africa-specific variables include the effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, political harassment and instability, poor accommodation facilities, lack of basic facilities such as electricity (Chireshe and Shumba 2011), and school safety (Masitsa 2011).

This section presents some empirical findings within specific African countries.

Intrinsic Factors

Research shows that teachers experience dissatisfaction with their students' achievement, recognition, responsibility and the work itself (George et al 2008; Mwamwenda 1995). Certain intrinsic aspects have been recurrent in the literature irrespective of teachers' position, gender and age (Monyatsi 2012).

Teaching itself

Teachers' satisfaction and motivation are rooted within the key aspects of teaching itself, and central to this is their drive to impart knowledge to young minds and contribute to social development (George et al 2008, Hammett 2008, Monyatsi 2012, Titanji 1994). However, teaching itself is a potential source of dissatisfaction, especially when combined with crowded classrooms (Semali and Metha 2012), poor student achievements and misbehaviour (Rangraje et al 2005), or poor working conditions (George et al 2008; Mwamwenda 1995.) Teachers are unhappy with the complexity and multiplicity of their role (Isaiah and Nenty 2012), and are dissatisfied when assigned extra-curricular tasks that do not directly align with teaching (Rangraje 2005).

Autonomy, subject mastery and self-efficacy

Teachers' satisfaction and motivation are linked to their perceived efficacy, performance, autonomy, knowledge mastery and responsibility at work (George et al 2008, Titanji 1994, Rangraje 2005). In South Africa, Rangraje et al (2005) found that, despite a general negative perception of teaching efficacy, individual teachers were more likely to express positive comments about their own efficacy. This highlights the significance teachers attribute to efficacy. In the Cameroon, Titanji (1994) notes that teachers are confident with their qualifications, and feel adequately prepared and committed to their job. Conversely, teachers can also feel demotivated and frustrated if their self-efficacy is perceived to be low, with limited professional support and resources, and ill-defined duties and responsibilities (Rangraje et al 2005). According to Rangraje et al (2005), a significant proportion of teachers (32%) in South Africa are unqualified for the subjects they teach. Akeayampong and Lewin (2002) note that the exposure to real classroom teaching emerges as a reality shock, leading student teachers to believe that teaching is more demanding than it is usually presented during training. These claims suggest a need for high quality professional development programmes for teachers (Buckler 2015, Hardman et al, 2012, Mokhele and Jita 2010, Owede 2014)

Professional development

Concerns are also widely expressed with the provision and quality of professional development programmes geared to supporting teachers' instructional practice in many African education systems (Hardman et al 2012, Mokhele and Jita 2010, Titanji 1994, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour 2014). This is because teachers'

professional development is vital for their efficacy, and the absence of such opportunities causes dissatisfaction (Rangraje et al 2005, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour 2014). It is also noted that, even when training programmes are available, opportunities for growth and development are often uneven among teachers and limited for rural teachers (Takupiwa et al 2013). Buckler (2015) adds that, when such programmes are offered, they often fail to meet teachers' learning goals.

Limited funds, as well as transport and time constraints, have been cited to explain why opportunities for on-going training are few (Buckler 2015). Mokhele and Jita (2010) report that, besides teachers' dissatisfaction with their professional development opportunities, teachers point to self-driven or initiated programmes as the most effective form of development. This highlights the need for teachers' involvement in their professional development planning and execution.

Student-related factors

Research has identified students' misbehaviour, attitude towards learning and education, as well as their academic outcomes, as factors affecting teachers' motivation and job satisfaction (Isaiah and Nenty 2012, Rangraje et al 2005, Titanji 1994). Buckler (2015) suggests that teacher quality is conceptualised through the attainment of their students, making students' academic outcomes an important component of the motivation equation. This implies that teachers will experience more satisfaction when students are successful and excel in their academic pursuit, and vice versa (Bahahundeen 2014). Studies have collectively suggested that teachers tend to achieve more satisfaction and feel motivated when students are cooperative in class and perform well academically (Bahahundeen 2014, Gesnide and Adeyumo

2012, Titanji 1994). Evidence from Namibia suggests that secondary school teachers are dissatisfied with their work, especially when students' achievement levels are unsatisfactory (George et al 2008).

At the class level, teachers' job satisfaction and motivation are affected by workload, class size, students' motivation to learn and behaviour or indiscipline (Altinyelken 2010, George and Mensah 2010, Rangraje et al 2005, Titanji 1994). Teaching itself cannot be enjoyable within a disruptive or indiscipline environment, nor can it be effective when conducted with disengaged and poorly behaved students (George et al 2008, Isaiah and Nenty 2012, Rangraje et al 2005, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour 2014). If such conditions prevail, teachers are more likely to find their work stressful and exhaustive. In Cameroon, the most cited source of dissatisfaction among teachers was the need to deal with unmotivated and disruptive attitudes from students (Titanji 1994). In South Africa, Rangraje et al (2005) note that almost half of the teachers pointed to student's attitudes and behaviour to account for their disagreement with the item that 'teaching is a rewarding task'. Learners' poor attitude and academic achievement are important elements that can erode teachers' motivation (George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994, Rangraje et al 2005).

Class size and workload

Large class size exacerbates the effect of teachers' workload and students' misbehaviour in most African schools. In Uganda, Altinyelken (2010) notes that class size is identified as a major concern posing classroom management challenges. Teachers also complain of time invested in preparing teaching and learning materials, and in providing comprehensive and helpful feedback, which also negatively affects

teachers' well-being (George and Mensah 2010, Rangraje et al 2005). Similar concerns are echoed in Tanzania, (Davidson 2007), as well as in Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, South Africa, and Uganda. The main issues contributing to teachers' workload are marking scripts, recording marks for continuous assessment, preparing daily lesson notes, managing student behaviour, and classroom control (Altinyelken 2010, Titanji 1994, George and Mensah 2010).

School climate and culture

The school climate is also noted to influence teachers' motivation, especially when teachers express the desire to work in schools that promote and encourage camaraderie, and mutual respect (Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemforu 2014, Isaiah and Nenty 2012, Titanji 1994). Teachers derive satisfaction working in schools with an efficient communication channel, and transparent management procedures (Isaiah and Nenty 2012). Conversely, school climates that are hostile and lack harmony are capable of eroding teachers' morale and motivation. The school leadership or management team is also cited to contribute to the quality of the school culture and climate. Isaiah and Nenty (2012) note that, teachers are dissatisfied with school cultures that are counterproductive, especially when created and promoted by the leadership team.

Interpersonal relations

Research from Cameroon, Botswana and Uganda collectively show that teachers value social bonds with collaborative and supportive colleagues, especially with responsible and trustworthy individuals (Altinyelkin 2010, Monyatsi 2012, Titanji

1994). Also, teachers are satisfied with good interpersonal relationships with supervisors and principals (Singh and Manser 2008, Titanji 1994). According to Njiru (2014), teachers like working with administrators who promote good interpersonal relations among teachers. Teachers value the social capital created from relationships that are built on mutual trust, which are also capable of extending beyond the boundaries of the school (Monyatsi 2012, Titanji 1994).

Recognition and appreciation

Even though praise and recognition are fundamental human motivators, teachers are concerned with their absence and rarity (Ariko and Simatwa 2011). Teachers value timely praise from their students and immediate supervisors (Isaiah and Nenty 2012, Titanji 1994). In Cameroon, Titanji (1994) notes that teachers enjoy moments when they receive positive feedback from students, either in the form of oral or written thank you messages. He adds that this form of recognition is very motivating and rewarding to teachers. Conversely, in the absence of praise, teachers feel undervalued and unappreciated for their efforts. In Kenya, Ariko and Simatwa (2011) note that due to lack of recognition and limited promotion opportunities, teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs. Isaiah and Nenty (2012) add that many teachers in Botswana wish to leave the profession because of lack of recognition.

Promotion prospects

Teaching is perceived as a 'dead-end' profession with few opportunities for promotion (Monyatsi 2012), leaving teachers with promotion more satisfied than their counterparts without such positions (Takupiwa et al 2013, Titanji 1994). Satisfaction

with promotion is tied to its extrinsic rewards and social prestige (Titanji 1994). In addition, the limited promotion opportunities often pave the way for unethical procedures and activities, which are criticized by teachers (Mtika and Gates 2011, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour 2014). Titanji (1994) notes that teachers who are most likely to be promoted are those with connections in the Ministry of Education. Isaiah and Nenty (2012) note that promotion prospects are perceived to be unfair, irrational and not based on competence. Takupiwa et al (2013) add that the promotion system in Zimbabwe tends to favour urban teachers, compared to rural teachers. In Cameroon and Malawi, teachers' promotion procedures have been criticized for not being transparent and fair (Mtika and Gates 2011, Titanji 1994). Mtika and Gates (2011) report that teachers in Malawi perceive their promotion prospects to be considerably worse than in other civil occupations.

According to Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour (2014), career advancement is difficult for South African teachers, because the majority stay at the same level for their entire teaching career. The lack of equal opportunities for growth and promotion is a pervasive source of dissatisfaction in most African countries (Takupiwa et al, 2013, Titanji 1994, Quan-Baffour and Arko-Achemfour 2014).

Extrinsic factors

Pay

Dissatisfaction with pay or salary is pervasive and stands out as a major issue in most African countries. Empirical evidence supporting this observation can be found in Botswana (Monyatsi 2012), Cameroon (Titanji, 1994), Nigeria (Adelabu 2005, Akiri and Ugborugb 2009, Ofuani 2010), Tanzania (Towse et al 2002), Uganda

(Altinyelken 2010), Ghana (George and Mensah 2010, Tanaka 2011 and Zimbabwe (Chireshe and Shumba 2011, Takupiwa et al 2013). Salaries are insufficient to provide teachers with a reasonable standard of living (Adelabu 2005, Altinyelken 2010, Takupiwa et al 2013). Altinyelken (2010) notes that teachers in Uganda believe their salary are insufficient to provide a decent life, especially in urban areas. Monyatsi (2012) makes a similar point about teachers in Botswana. In contrast, Schulze and Brown (2007) suggest that many teachers from other African countries migrate to Botswana for better income and lower income tax. They add that migrating teachers are attracted by better working conditions and economic security, suggesting that, in comparison to other African countries, the situation in Botswana may not be as bad as presented by Monyatsi (2012).

Late payment also exacerbates teachers' dissatisfaction with salary. Tanaka (2011) notes that teachers' salaries in Ghana are paid up to six months in arrears. In Cameroon, Titanji (1994) notes that dissatisfaction with late payment increases teachers' frustration and financial insecurity. These conditions have led teachers to adopt alternative and illicit sources of income to support their basic needs and families (Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010, Titanji 1994). Ofuani (2010) adds that inflationary trends in the economy push teachers to take on private practices while in government employment. This observation is also echoed in Ghana (Osie 2006). In Uganda, Altinyelken (2010) notes that teachers' pre-occupation with financial problems distracts their attention from classroom issues. These conditions negatively affect teachers' well-being and health (Osie 2006).

Dissatisfaction also relates to pay comparisons with other colleagues or civil servants

(Titanji 1994). In Kenya, suggestions have been made for teachers' salaries to be harmonized with those of other civil servants so as to attract and retain experienced teachers (Sirima and Poioi 2010).

Incentives and allowances

Attractive incentives can stimulate teacher recruitment, and encourage retention (Chapman et al 1993). However, teachers have expressed dissatisfaction with the incentives and allowances available to the profession, especially when compared to other professions (Chapman et al 1993, Titanji 1994). In Tanzania, Davison (2007) indicates that most teachers are unhappy with their housing arrangements and other benefits. Concerns with incentives include pensions, housing allowances, health insurance, and maternity allowances (Agezo, 2010, Davison 2007, Titanji 1994).

While there is a reported need to improve the incentive systems of most African countries, to ensure that incentives are paid accordingly and on time, Chapman et al (1993) note that their motivational value can be short lived.

Working conditions

Dissatisfaction with working conditions is widespread across African countries. Evidence of this is found in Botswana, Cameroon, Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe (Altinyelkin 2010, Semali and Metha 2012, Takupiwa et al, 2013, World Bank 2004). Poor working conditions contribute to teachers' decision to leave the profession (Altinyelkin 2010, George and Mensah 2010), and the absence of resources renders the job more challenging (Titanji 1994, George and Mensah 2010). According to Semali and Metha (2012), students in Tanzania, and elsewhere in Africa,

lack access to culturally and employment-relevant education due to lack of textbooks. In Cameroon, Titanji (1994) notes that the lack of textbooks, teaching aids, adequate infrastructure and library compound teachers' dissatisfaction. He adds that teachers sometimes buy textbooks out of their personal funds, which adds more pressure on teachers' budgets.

The availability of learning and support facilities, and their physical conditions, have also been associated with teachers' working conditions. Teachers are dissatisfied and demotivated working in poorly constructed and equipped schools (Adeabu 2005, Akiri and Ugborugb 2009, Iwu et al 2014, Njiru 2014, World Bank 2004). Altinyelkin (2010) notes that, the absence of a conducive working environment and limited resources limit the performance of even the best teacher. In Tanzania, Semali and Metha (2012) report that low motivation, particularly among science teachers, was a result of poor working conditions. This is because science teachers worked in very crowded classrooms and poorly equipped laboratories, and also had poor compensation for the extra time invested in laboratory sessions. Sirima and Poiio (2010) suggest that the provision of facilities, and opportunities for growth and development, are likely to raise job satisfaction.

Status

The declining professional status of teachers is a major source of dissatisfaction and demotivation (Altinyelken 2010, Titanji 1994). This decline in status has engendered pessimism among incumbent and prospective teachers (Mtika and Gates 2011, Towse et al 2002), pushing Azare (1992:6) to state that, in Nigeria, teachers are the most under-rated professionals. In Namibia and Tanzania, the effects are prominent, as

both incumbent secondary and trainee teachers perceive teaching as not only a low status profession, but one considered being a last resort (George et al 2008; Towse et al 2001).

Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010) note that the increase in employment opportunities after Nigeria's independence led to a decline in the professional status of teachers. Similar considerations apply in Malawi and Uganda (Mtika and Gates 2011, Altinyelken 2010). According to Agezo (2010), the low status and prestige of teaching, among other reasons, leads teachers to abandon the profession.

Principal's leadership and management style

The quality of school leadership has the potential to affect teachers' job attitudes and ability to part take in decision-making (Singh and Manser 2008, Njiru's 2014, Ogochi 2014, Pongoh 2014, Takupiwa et al 2012). This implies that the principal's leadership could positively/negatively affect teachers' competence (Pongoh 2014). In South Africa, Singh and Manser (2008) found that the principal's inter/intrapersonal emotional intelligent behaviours affected teachers' job satisfaction, and was key to the creation of positive staff morale among teachers. They added that teachers expressed a strong desire to be led by principals who demonstrated self-confidence in their leadership role, maintain self-control, and were adaptable and flexible to face the future with optimism. This suggests that, in order for schools to reach their full potential, and encourage job satisfaction, principals need to demonstrate an appropriate level of emotional intelligence relevant to nurture an effective collegial school environment. Njiru (2014) adds that teachers are happy working with headteachers who motivate and encourage them to think and work independently.

Enueme and Egwunyenga's (2008) study in Nigeria suggests that teachers also derive satisfaction working with principals who are effective instructional leaders. This is because teachers feel encouraged and motivated when the principal performs their instructional role effectively. Accordingly, this could entail principals promoting teachers' professional development, consistently checking lesson notes and offering feedback and advice where necessary. Similarly, Nguni et al (2006), in Tanzania, found that principals who operated as transformational leaders had a significant impact on teachers' job satisfaction. Charismatic leadership, in particular, had a great influence on teachers' commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

The influence of the leadership or management team has also been identified to contribute to job satisfaction (Isaiah and Nenty 2012). George et al's (2008) study in Namibia showed that the quality of school management and administration affected teachers' work and level of satisfaction. In Botswana, Isaiah and Nenty (2012) report that teachers are dissatisfied and frustrated with their conditions of service at the school, particularly with the management team, which was perceived to be ineffective and lacking vision and purpose.

African school principals are not formally trained in leadership and management (Bush and Glover 2013, Bush and Oduro 2006, Chapman et al 1993), making it difficult for principals to fully understand the relevant strategies to motivate their staff. This is evident from African studies that have reported dissatisfaction with the leadership style enacted by school heads (Takupiwa et al 2012, Rangraje et al 2005). Studies in South Africa and Zimbabwe show that principals rarely consult teachers on

professional matters, fail to inform teachers about management decisions that affect their work and neglect to develop the professional capacity of their staff (Bush and Oduro 2006, Takupiwa et al 2012, Rangraje et al 2005).

The majority of the teachers in leadership positions are males, which seems to encourage the adoption of an authoritarian approach in executing leadership and administrative duties (Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010). In Kenya, teachers' absenteeism, lacks of collaboration and collegiality as well as transfer requests are sometimes caused by poor leadership style, especially when it heavily relies on hierarchical power (Ariko and Simatwa 2011). Ogochi (2014) adds that principals in Kenya do not value their staff, nor support them. Takupiwa et al (2012) report that a high proportion of headteachers in Zimbabwe, particularly those in rural schools, are autocratic and make decisions independently. They add that, unlike urban teachers, rural teachers are usually intimidated and deprived of freedom of speech, which contributes to their dissatisfaction.

Supervision

Depending on its frequency and quality, the instructional supervision teachers experience in schools contributes to their job satisfaction (Chapman et al, 1993, Isaiah and Nenty 2012). Generally, teachers are dissatisfied when supervision is poor and not targeted towards their development (Isaiah and Nenty 2012). In Kenya, supervision has been reported to be a source of dissatisfaction for teachers, especially as it is perceived to have detracted from the quality of teachers' instructional work (Wanzare 2012). Similarly, Altinyelkkin (2010) notes that teachers in Uganda perceive supervision as an administrative measure to reduce absenteeism. In

Zimbabwe, Nhundu (1994) found that, while the supervisor's appraisal was a weak predictor of teachers' job satisfaction, self-appraisal and role clarity emerged as factors that influenced teachers' overall job satisfaction.

The performance of the supervisor has also been cited to contribute to the quality of supervision (Titanji and Yuoh 2010). Chapman et al, (1993) point out that head teachers do not possess the skills and knowledge required to execute instructional supervision. This could potentially make instructional judgements difficult and challenging. Reporting on supervision in Cameroon, Titanji and Yuoh (2010) note that pedagogic inspectors do not know how to effectively execute their duty, linking it to the lack of formal or informal training prior and throughout their supervisory role.

Although Titanji's (1994) study in Cameroon showed that teachers were satisfied with supervision, as well as the relationship they shared with supervisors, Titanji and Yuoh (2010) claim that the interpersonal relationships supervisor shared with teachers are poor and contributed to the inefficiencies attributed with supervision. On the contrary, Monyatsi's (2012) study shows that teachers found their supervisors to be skilled and up to date with supervisory tasks, and expressed general satisfaction about the praise they received from their supervisors. However, it appears that teachers enjoy the social aspect of supervision (meeting and talking), but dislike those aspects that they perceive to be a form of administrative control (Wanzare 2012).

Curriculum and policy changes

Teachers are often negatively affected by the bureaucratic and administrative demands of policy changes, of which concerns about increasing workload and paperwork are incessant (Bantwini 2010). Dissatisfaction with the implementation of reforms (curriculum or pedagogic changes) is also linked with teachers' vague understanding of the vision, poor communication and operational plans (Bantwini 2010, Rangraje et al 2005). In Uganda, Altinyelken (2010) reports dissatisfaction with changes made within the education system, especially with little or no in-service training prior to the implementation of change. Similar claims apply in South Africa, suggesting that teachers often do not understand certain policy reforms (Bantiwini 2010). Altinyelken (2010) notes that the implementation of the new thematic curriculum increased teaching hours and led to a new assessment system that did not work effectively in reality. In South Africa, Rangraje et al (2005) report that most teachers were generally uncertain about their profession, due to such changes.

Limited resources and lack of support during the implementation of the change process is a source of concern (Altinyelken 2010). Increase in administrative routines, paper work, and lack of training compound teachers' concern with policy change (Appiah-Agyekum et al, 2013, Bantiwin 2010, Rangraje et al, 2005). Bantiwin (2010) notes that the lack of support and in-service training to reinforce the policy eventually leads to ambiguity, since teachers are excluded from policy development. Altinyelken (2010) adds that, despite the provision of training, the understaffed inspectorates and limited supervision exacerbates teachers' frustration. Chisholm and Leyendecker (2008:203) argue that, while the need for different and better learning outcomes are undisputed in sub-Saharan African, the scope of change is frequently underestimated,

since local contextual realities, capacities and implementation requirements are overlooked.

External support and parental involvement

The extent to which parents are involved with the learning and education of their children contributes to teachers' job satisfaction (Isaiah and Nenty 2012). Isaiah and Nenty's (2012) study, which showed that nearly 96% of the teachers were dissatisfied with the profession, added that parental involvement was found to account for 33.9% of the variability in teachers' dissatisfaction. Teachers in their study were also concerned with parents' limited interest in the educational progress of their child. Parents also hardly attended parent-teacher meetings, compounding teachers' dissatisfaction. The high adult illiteracy rate, particularly in rural areas with continuing gender disparities (Amos 2013, World Bank 2014), could partly account for parents' limited involvement, as well as their socioeconomic status and perceptions of education.

Environmental and safety issues

Teachers working in geographical locations plagued with conflict, environmental hardship, or health ailments such as the AIDS pandemic, are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and demotivation (Chireshe and Shumba 2011). Safety issues, which may involve both physical and health dimensions, are elements of concern for teachers in Africa. For example, the HIV/AIDS pandemic has huge negative implications for teachers in Zimbabwe and other countries (Chireshe and Shumba 2011, Tawfik and Kinoti 2006). It lowers the morale and productivity of

teachers due to higher morbidity and mortality of education professionals (Bennell and Mukyanuzi 2005, Chireshe and Shumba 2011).

Safety issues are also reported in South Africa, suggesting that teachers leave the profession due to the high level of insecurity (Masitsa 2011). Commenting from Botswana, Monyatsi (2012) suggests that teachers are motivated to work in a safe area, but may not be motivated by higher pay.

Differentiation factors

Demographic factors such as gender, age, length of service, and qualifications, feature in the job satisfaction literature. Empirical evidence on these variables has failed to produce consistent conclusions. Some studies have found significant relationships with job satisfaction (Ayodele 2009), while others have not (Nhundu 1994, Iwu et al, 2013). This section will present these factors, beginning with gender.

Gender

Evidence from Ghana and Kenya suggests that teachers' job satisfaction differed by gender (George and Mensah 2010, Njiru 2014), with female teachers more satisfied than their male counterparts. The authors also noted that overall satisfaction also reflected satisfaction with salary, suggesting that males' concern with salary was based on their responsibility to provide for the home regardless of the wife's financial status (George and Mensah 2010). Similar claims of this male-dominant culture are made in Titanji's (1994) study in Cameroon, showing higher satisfaction level for in favour of female teachers. His findings also showed that female teachers derived more satisfaction with teaching itself, and their relationship with co-workers, than their

male counterparts, who focused more on monetary benefits. Other African findings suggest that female teachers tend to be less ambitious with regards to promotion opportunities and financial achievements, which are often cited as sources of dissatisfaction for male teachers. (Abd-El-Fattah 2010, George and Mensah 2010).

Conversely, in Botswana, Monyatsi (2012) claims that male teachers are more satisfied than their female colleagues. Abd-El-Fattah (2010) also found that, following pay increases in Egypt, male teachers were significantly more satisfied with their profession than female teachers. This could be as a result of the cultural expectation (Appiah-Agyekum 2013, George and Mensah 2010) that men are breadwinners for their families (Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010).

Age and length of service

Evidence on the link between teachers' age and job satisfaction is elusive. In Egypt and Kenya, Abd-El Fattah (2010) and Njiru (2014) claimed that teachers between the ages of 20-30, and those older than 50, show greater job satisfaction than those aged 31-40 and 41-50, proposing a U-shape relationship. In contrast, Mwanmwenda's (1998) findings in South Africa suggest that teachers with more years of experience were more satisfied than teachers with fewer years in teaching.

Monyatsi's (2012) study in Botswana found a positive correlation between teachers' age, length of service and job satisfaction, noting that teachers' level of satisfaction increased with age and years of service. Similarly, Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) noted that Nigerian teachers' length of service, or years of experience, significantly influenced their career satisfaction. Conversely, in Cameroon, Titanji's (1994) study found very little variation in teachers' satisfaction with regards to teachers' age or

length of teaching experience. However, he warns that the apparent lack of variation between the sub- groups may be due to sample bias.

Teachers' qualifications

According to Njiru (2014), teachers' qualifications are significantly related to job satisfaction, showing that teachers with a master's degree are more satisfied than teachers with a diploma or bachelor's degree in education. On the contrary, Akiri and Ugborugbo (2009) note that, in Nigeria, the higher the educational attainment of a teacher, the lower the job satisfaction. Abd-El-Fattah (2010) reports similar claims in Egypt, suggesting that teachers with better qualifications may experience a mismatch between their job expectations, and the professional realities. The low value accorded to the profession, especially when teachers chose it as a last resort, and with no real desire to teach (Towse et al, 2002), could also compound this negative impact. Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010:77) point out that, in Nigeria, an increasing number of graduates select a teaching career only when they are unable to gain more lucrative jobs. This is because qualified teachers often compare their socio-economic status unfavourably with graduates from other occupations, as well as the nature of the rewards and opportunities available to them. In South Africa, Hall et al (2005:9) found that teachers who had qualified at a higher level (at least at the level of higher diploma or first degree), were more likely to consider leaving the profession for other jobs.

Official position and rank

While very little evidence exists on teachers' official rank and level of job satisfaction,

the benefits associated with administrative positions are often perceived to increase principals' satisfaction and comfort, compared to that of an average classroom teacher (George et al, 2008). In Botswana, Monyatsi (2012) notes that teachers in senior management team positions, and head teachers, believe their pay is satisfactory and contributes to their overall job satisfaction. He adds that job satisfaction increases with rank, because of the privileges and additional prestige. Conversely, evidence from Namibia suggests that teachers with administrative positions are more dissatisfied with intrinsic aspects of their work than teachers without such positions (George et al, 2008).

Overview

This chapter began by presenting the concepts of job satisfaction and work motivation alongside some basic definitions and theories that guided the study's design. The chapter presented prominent theories such as Herzberg's two-factor theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and theories supporting intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci 1972, Deci and Ryan 1985, 2000).

The chapter also presented a review of the literature on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, drawing on empirical evidence from the UK and Africa. It showed that, even though intrinsic and extrinsic factors are intertwined and collectively affect teachers' satisfaction, intrinsic factors are prominent for teachers in the UK, notably teaching itself, students' achievement, interpersonal relationships with colleagues, job autonomy and opportunities for professional development. (Evans 1998, Dinham and Scott 1998). In contrast, teachers' professional status, workload, student misbehaviour and unprecedented policy changes, as well as pay (identified as an instrumental

component of teacher recruitment), were prominent sources of dissatisfaction (Evans 1998, Spear et al 2000).

African studies revealed that dissatisfaction and satisfaction are also derived from both extrinsic and intrinsic factors, although the former were more significant. Low pay, poor working conditions, availability of basic resources (electricity and teaching material), housing facilities, accessibility to school and student factors, as well as low professional status, were factors that caused dissatisfaction (Akiri and Ugborugbo 2009;). Generally, extrinsic aspects of satisfaction and motivation appeared more powerful within this context, with low salaries being remarkably consistent as a major source of dissatisfaction (Altinyelken 2010)

The next chapter will present the research design and methodology adopted for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the job satisfaction and work motivation among secondary school teachers in the southwest region of Cameroon. This chapter explains the author's research approach, research methods, sampling techniques, instrument development, data collection and data analysis. The chapter also discusses issues of reliability, validity, triangulation and ethical consideration of the study.

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?
2. What is the level of teacher work motivation among secondary school teachers?
3. What are the specific factors influencing intrinsic job satisfaction and work motivation within the Cameroon context?
4. What are the specific factors influencing extrinsic job satisfaction and work motivation within the Cameroon context?

Research Paradigms

The study adopted a dual epistemological stance, combining the assumptions of the positivist and interpretivist tradition. The study is rooted in both ontological beliefs that there is an objective reality that is independent of the observer according to positivists (Mujis 2004). Concomitantly, accepting the subjective view of reality as it appears individually, subjectively or negotiated within groups according to the interpretivist tradition (Cohen et al 2011). The study anchored on such ontological

assumptions of social reality, which sprung from debates between the nominalist-realist questioning the very nature of looking at social reality, such as whether social reality is external to individuals, imposing itself on their consciousness from without, or is it a product of individual consciousness (Cohen et al 2011:5).

The purpose of this study was to understand how teachers assess and evaluate their jobs, and how these cognitive and affective processes affect their perceived level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and levels of motivation. The author drew on Guba and Lincoln's (1994:107) definition of a paradigm as a set of beliefs representing a world view that defines for its holder, the nature of the "world", the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts, to justify the interpretivist position of the study. The study adopted the ontological assumption that teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation are not constructed through absolute natural laws and mechanics imposed on teachers but, rather, are products of individual teachers' consciousness, drawn from cognitive and affective processes, based on how their perception of a satisfying job and their motivational orientation are established in their minds. It based on the ontological assumption that the realities of job satisfaction and work motivation are created through conscious processes, which may also take the form of a negotiated reality (Cohen et al 2011).

Although this study intended to measure the levels of job satisfaction and work motivation through a positivist lens, it was also based on the ontological assumption that what constitutes teachers' job satisfaction and motivation are not external to teachers, but are constructed through teachers' everyday life experiences. As such, while investigating these constructs on the premise that reality is objective and

disconnected from the researcher through a positivist lens (Cohen et al 2007, Cohen et al 2011, Mujis 2004), the author acknowledges the argument of interpretivists (see Cohen et al 2011 and Scott and Usher 1999) that the phenomena under investigation are not exclusively considered to be objective realities. This is because teachers' job satisfaction and motivation are the result of individuals' (subjective) cognition based on judgements made through conscious processes in their minds (Cohen et al 2011) with respect to their situatedness, location, and standpoint in history, society and culture (Scott and Usher 1999). Thus, in adopting the ontological and epistemological traditions of both positivists and interpretivists, the positivist lens sought to reveal facts that are objective while the interpretivist lens focused on the everyday meaning of how knowledge is constructed through social interactions and negotiations (Cohen and Manion 1994).

Based on the approach of Saunders et al (2007), the adoption of these two philosophical traditions within a pragmatic approach adopted a mixed methods design, using both quantitative (survey method) and qualitative (case studies) data collection techniques. A quantitative approach embedded within a "realistic" or somewhat positivist tradition, alongside an underlying qualitative view described as the "subjective" perspective of research (Mujis 2010), formed the basis of this study. Within the positivist lens through a survey, the study obtained its objective perspective of inquiry (Mujis 2004, Mujis 2010) with the use of a questionnaire as a data collection tool. Meanwhile, within the interpretive lens via selected cases from the surveyed sample, were used to fulfil its subjective perspective of inquiry with in-depth case studies (Cohen et al 2011, Mujis 2004), using interviews and field notes for data collection.

The concepts of job satisfaction and motivation are quite complex and nebulous (Evans 1999, Mumford 1991). As a result, the interpretation and understanding of these terms, and how they may be understood and interpreted in the Cameroonian context, certainly required an appropriate methodological design, fit to capture teachers' views and interpretation of the events that contributed to, or constructed a sense of their overall job satisfaction and motivation. Against this background, the philosophical perspectives of positivism and subjectivism underpinned this investigation.

This study intended to identify possible factors that are likely to affect, contribute to, or construct the level job satisfaction and motivation, as well as the effects of some demographic variables on these variables. The assumptions underlying these relationships were taken into consideration, especially with the belief that human behaviours are a result of external factors rather than being wholly generated by internal motivation and intention (Cohen et al 2011). To address research questions three and four, which explored the various factors impinging on intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of job satisfaction and motivation, the study drew on the assumption that certain events have causes, which may be influenced by other circumstances.

Research Approaches

The research design for this study combined quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell 2003, 2005). Yin (2011:75-76) states that research designs are *logical blueprints*, and that the logic involves the link among the research questions, the data to be collected, and the strategies for analyzing the data, so that the findings will

address the intended research questions. Through the quantitative approach, the study aimed to grasp a general description of the constructs under investigation from the sample (Babbie 1990), while the qualitative approach sought to understand how individual teachers make meaning of their social world, especially at arriving at what makes their job satisfying/dissatisfying or motivating/demotivating. This methodological approach drew on Howe's (2004:54) comment that a mixed methods approach provides an opportunity for the researcher and the researched to get at "deeper and more genuine expressions of beliefs and values that emerge through dialogue and foster a more accurate description of views held".

The study adopted an explanatory mixed methods design in which the quantitative phase preceded the qualitative phase (Creswell 2003, 2005, Creswell and Plano Clark 2007). The qualitative data helped to explain, and elaborate on, the quantitative results (Creswell 2005). The exploratory aspect of this study anchored on the paucity of published studies on these concepts (job satisfaction and motivation) within the Cameroon context. The fact that only one dated study has been conducted (Titanji 1994), could qualify the present research as an exploratory study in this specific context. However, the study is also explanatory, since job satisfaction and motivation are concepts that have been heavily researched worldwide (Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 1998, Scott and Dinham 2003, George and Mensah 2006).

The choice of a mixed methods approach fits the aims and research questions of the study, and supports the argument that methodological puritanism gives way to methodological pragmatism in addressing research questions (Cohen et al 2011, Johnson and Christensen 2012). Similarly, the chosen approaches will enhance reliability and provide for data triangulation. Denscombe (2008:272) adds that the

application of a mixed methods approach can increase data accuracy, and provide a more complete picture of the phenomena under investigation. He argues that this helps to counter the weaknesses of a single approach (either quantitative or qualitative) and complement the other. The methodological pluralism of a mixed-methods research design from which superior research results are obtained in compared to mono-method research formed the framework for this study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004).

The next section discusses how survey research was used in this study.

Survey

To establish a comprehensive picture of the overall level of job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers, a descriptive survey (Oppenheim 1992) was chosen to enable the collection of large amounts of data (Cohen et al 2011, Creswell 2005, Muijs 2011). Drawing on its basic function of measurement (Oppenheim 1992), a survey is a well-established research approach within the positivist tradition and quantitative frame in establishing (Scott and Usher 1999) the overall responses from individuals and to note how these vary among respondents (Creswell 2005:45). The use of a survey was appropriate in providing information that can be classified, analysed and allowed for patterns to be extracted and comparisons to be made (Bell 1999, Cohen et al 2011, Scott and Usher 1999).

The survey was a suitable tool for the collection of descriptive data (Oppenheim 1992), and was the major source of such data in the authors' research. Using a probability sampling techniques (see below), the survey elicited data from secondary school teachers in the Ndian and Fako sub-divisions of Cameroon. The data gathered

from the survey provided a general picture of the phenomena under investigation and provided the basis for further in-depth exploration of the phenomena through semi-structured interviews with teachers from two schools from the various districts (Creswell 2005). In providing answers to the research questions, the survey provided quantifiable information that was used for comparison between teachers in the urban and rural districts. The survey also provided information on the nature of the relationships between variables, and the impact of these variables on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Bell 1999, Creswell 2005, Oppenheim 1992).

As Cohen et al (2011) posit, surveys are suitable for gathering data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationship that exist between specific events. Muijs (2011) adds that quantitative research is good at providing information from a large number of units, which can provide generalizable descriptions of the phenomena under investigation.

The choice of the survey in providing descriptive and exploratory data seemed appropriate for this study's objectives (Cohen et al 2011, Cresswell 2005). However, data from surveys are somehow limited in depth, as they fail to provide plausible explanations for certain social phenomena under investigation (Bell 1999, Muijs 2004). In addition, surveys fail to capture and reveal the richness, complexity and depth of value questions (Morris 1991), especially with concepts like job satisfaction, which forms the focal point of this study. Moreover, since the survey instruments were self-completed by respondents, the possibilities of misinterpretation and

misunderstanding of terminologies and questions could have posed challenges, especially with questions clarity and the quality of data collected (Bell 1999).

The author intended to mitigate these problems by ensuring that the survey instrument were properly structured and designed, with carefully worded questions to reduce chances of biased responses and misinterpretation of questionnaire items (Cohen et al 2011). Secondly, a sub sample of teachers from an urban area was selected for a pilot test of the survey instrument to enhance clarity before the study was executed (Creswell 2005). Thirdly, issues pertaining to validity and reliability were addressed systematically, in constructing and administering the survey instrument. The author intended to adopt a systematic sampling technique to obtain a representative sample of the target population (Cohen et al 2011, Creswell 2005) from which a sample of teachers was selected for an in-depth qualitative study (see below).

In order to complement the breadth of the survey with meaningful interpretations of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Cohen and Manion 1994), a qualitative approach through case studies (Cohen et al, 2011, Johnson et al, 2007) was adopted to supplement the survey.

Case Study

Most prominent international research on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation used case study as a qualitative approach (Evans 1997,1998, George and Mensah 2010). In line with these projects, a case study will be incorporated as a qualitative approach within the present study.

Creswell's (2007:73) definition suggests that a case study is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information. Bloor and Wood (2006:27) corroborate this definition by adding that, "a case study is a strategy of research that aims to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings". The author's case study approach adopted the views of Crswell (2007) and Bloor and Wood (2006). While the author maintained a single case design (teachers in the south West region of Cameroon), he also adopted sub cases (teachers from two schools) as embedded units of analysis (Yin 2014). The case study therefore involved teachers from two specific schools (sub-cases) from the surveyed sample in Fako and Ndian. The teachers from these schools served as units of analysis (Yin 2014), and enabled the author to delve further into the inquiry to generate an in-depth understanding of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. The study's case study approach drew data from these two schools with clearly defined boundaries in terms of participants' location, time and context, and formed coherent units of analysis with multiple sources of evidence (Sharp 2009, Yin 2014). Their selection was underpinned by the need to provide rich information and insights into issues contributing to teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation (Patton 2002:242).

The case study approach facilitated the author aim to devlve and probe deeply in to the issues and to analyse intensively the multifarious layers of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Cohen and Manion 1994, Scott and Usher 1999). The data from the case studies provided a chain of evidence and plausible interpretations of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, revealing patterns that were dissimilar or

similar according to teachers' experiences. The use of case study also provided an avenue for unexpected variables to be identified and explored. The case studies provided room for more extensive and rich findings, and proved promising in enabling researchers develop theory from one or more cases that can later be tested by examining further cases (Scott and Usher 1999).

Recognising that one's job satisfaction relies on values (Evans 1998, Locke 1976), which are peculiar to one or shared by a group of individuals, the use of the mixed methods approach in this study was appropriate to foster data triangulation through the survey and case studies. In addition, this methodological design (survey and case study) appeared appropriate to understand both the objective and subjective/inter-subjective realities of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Cohen 2000, Cohen et al 2000, Johnson and Christensen 2012: 36).

Research Methods

To answer the research questions, a survey instrument (an integrated questionnaire to measure teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation), field notes and face-to-face, interviews were utilised to provide empirical data. The adoption of mixed methods, using both quantitative (survey) and qualitative (case study) approaches, through the use of a questionnaire, field notes and interviews, was regarded as appropriate for this investigation, to provide methodological triangulation.

Questionnaires

According to Spector (1997:5), it is easy to quantify and standardize responses on questionnaires, and the method is suitable to survey large samples. The structured

questionnaire used for this study was adapted from the JSS (Job Satisfaction Survey), by Spector (1985), and the Orientation for Teaching Survey (OTS), by Daniel and Ferrell (1991), as well as Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991). This questionnaire facilitated the collection of large amounts of data (Burton and Bartlett 2009, Cohen and Manion 1994, Cohen et al 2011), which provided straightforward information in a fairly standardized way (Sharp 2009) on teachers' overall job satisfaction and work motivation. The use of the questionnaire facilitated comparisons between groups of respondents (for example rural/urban teachers, male/female teachers or teachers with administrative position or none) and enabled generalization of findings to the population under investigation, through statistical analysis and interpretations.

However, despite the ease of questionnaires in gathering large amounts of data, the short responses from respondents often fail to reflect the varying depth or complexity of people's feelings (Burton and Bartlett 2009; Sharp 2009) and may provide just a shallow description of the phenomena under investigation (Cohen and Manion 1994).

Field Notes

Basing on Creswell's (2005:213) description of field notes as text (words) recorded by the researcher during an observation in a qualitative study, the author made field notes, notably during the first two days of field work. This helped in gathering valuable data that informed subsequent phases of the study, particularly during the interviews. The author employed an observational role that was non-participative in order to observe events that occurred in the schools during the qualitative phase (Bell 1999, Burton et al 2008, Creswell 2003, 2005, Menter et al 2011). Field notes were recorded, and took into account when and where a speech, an action or an event

occurred, the social context in which it occurred as well as the gender, age and social relationships of those interacting (Yuan 2001). This natural observation began at the start of field work on a more open-ended and wider observational approach to understand the recurring patterns of behaviour and interpersonal relationships amongst teachers, and amongst teachers and students within the various research sites (Creswell 2003, Hennink et al 2011).

Field notes also took account of the physical settings, human and interactional settings of the schools (Burton et al 2008; Cohen et al 2011, Hammerssley 1992) in order to develop data sets that could help inform the interviews. This facilitated not only the understanding of the physical environment, but as well as the communication and non-verbal communication systems that existed within the schools (Marshall and Rossman 2011).

Through these natural observations of teachers' day-to-day lives, the author relied on the convenience of selective attention (Cohen et al 2011) to record field notes about the teachers and schools (Creswell 2003). This was achieved by focusing on sites such as the assembly and staff rooms. Field notes on the general culture, and climate of the school, as well as the interpersonal relations teachers shared with students, and the power dynamics that operated within the school, were also recorded. Notes were taken in the staffroom on the climate and atmosphere, and the interpersonal relations shared amongst staff members, and their actions and words relating to their work or the school in general (Bassegy 2012).

Interviews

Within an interpretive research approach (Coleman 2012), Cohen et al. (2000: 268) assert that interviews may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. In order to gain in-depth insight into teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with individual teachers to allow follow-up questions and probes tailored to each interviewee's response (Coleman 2012, Rubin and Rubin 2005).

Interviews were an appropriate data collection tool for this study, not only because of the possibility of bringing forth in-depth understanding of teachers' opinions, perceptions, attitudes and preferences, but also because its adaptability to different situations and respondents. This allowed the author to probe deeper into unexpected lines of enquiry as they emerged during the interview (Burton and Bartlett 2009, Cohen and Manion 1994, Sharp 2009). In addition, interviews were helpful in answering the research questions and in exploring new areas that emerged from the study (Rubin and Rubin 2005) bearing in mind that job satisfaction is an under-researched concept within the Cameroon context. Interviews also served for crosschecking against data collected from the questionnaire and field notes (Scott and Usher 1999). This further provided methodological triangulation (Cohen et al 2011, Muijs 2004).

Drawing on Coleman's (2012) claim that semi-structured interviews are probably the most common type of interviews within an interpretive paradigm, or when adopting a mixed methods approach, the author chose semi-structured interviews for his research. Interviews were structured to incorporate a few major questions with sub questions and possible follow-up questions (Coleman 2012). The interview used prompts,

which offered teachers a range of choices for their responses (Coleman 2012). Following a semi-structured format, the author adopted a systematic approach with the interview schedule focusing on major questions, while also gently guiding interviewees to provide depth and details about their job satisfaction and motivation (Rubin and Rubin 2005).

Interviews generally have a higher response rate than questionnaires because, once participants have agreed to take part, they become involved in the process and hence are more motivated to participate (Oppenheim 1992, Yu and Cooper 1983). However, interviews are costly and time consuming in their preparation, set-up and execution (Cohen and Manion 1994, Sharp 2009) and entail a more profound ethical dimension (Cohen et al 2011). These challenges inevitably restrict the number of interviews that can be carried out (Burton and Bartlett 2009). In addition, interviews are more susceptible to bias from the interviewer, as they may influence and lead participants' responses (Burton and Bartlett 2009). In recognition of these challenges, the interview schedule was piloted with two teachers in Buea, from a school that was not involved in the main study. This helped the author in ensuring that the questions were relevant and appropriate to capture teacher's perceptions of their job satisfaction and work motivation (Cohn et al 2011, Seidman 2006).

Population and Sampling

The geographical location from which the sample for this study was drawn is the South-west region of Cameroon, with Buea as the capital. This region is divided into six divisions; Fako, Kupe-Manenguba, Manyu, Lebialem, Meme and Ndian (MINATD, 2006). The population for the study were teachers and school heads (principals) from government secondary/high schools (1st and/or 2nd cycle), within

this geographical location (see figure 3.1). The schools were selected on the following criteria:

- government school
- have at least form one to five, or above (lower and upper sixth form)

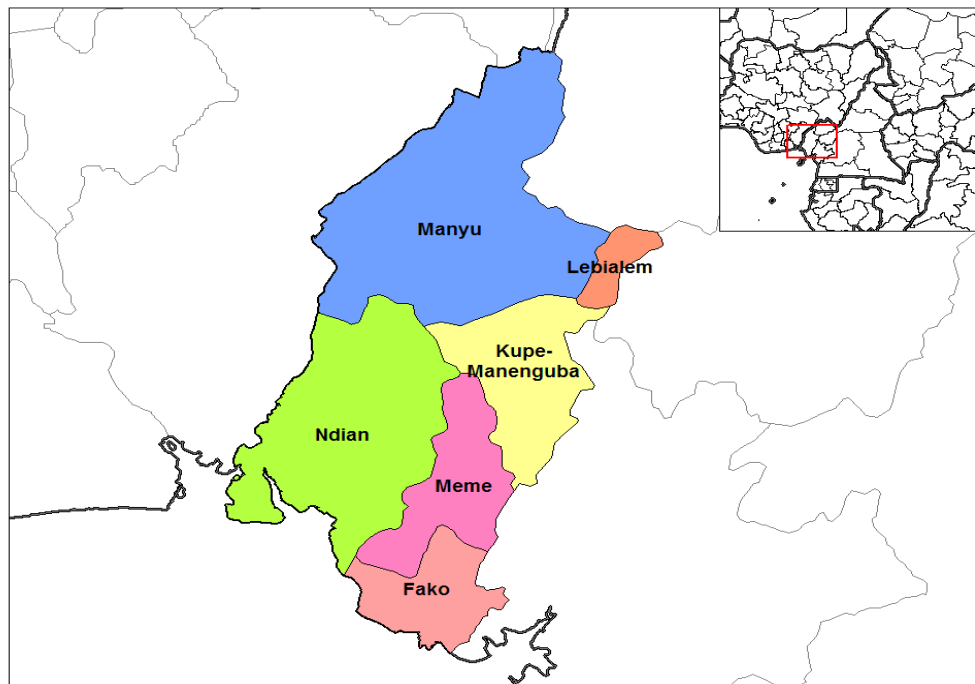


Figure 3.1 Map of the South West region showing the six sub-divisions

Sources: Ministry of Territorial Administration and Decentralization (MINATD, 2006)

Table 3.1 shows the number of eligible schools (74) within the six sub-divisions of the Southwest region. From this cluster of 74 schools, a matched sample of ten schools from an urban area (Fako), and ten from a rural area (Ndian) was obtained. Teachers were randomly selected (using stratified random number techniques), in order to compare the job satisfaction and motivation of teachers within these different areas. The purpose of this matched sample was to facilitate the exploration and

identification of any significant differences between urban and rural areas in order to make meaningful comparisons.

Table 3.1 presents the various sub-divisions and the number of eligible government secondary schools in each sub-division in this region.

Region	Division	Sub-Divisions	Eligible No of Schools
South -West	Fako	Buea	6
		Muyuka	4
		Tiko	3
		Limbe	3
		Idenau	1
	Kupe-Manenguba	Bangem	2
		Nguti	1
		Tombel	8
	Lebialem	Fontem	3
		Alou	2
		Webane	1
	Manyu	Akwaya	3
		Mamfe	6
		Eyumodjock	1
		Upper -Bayang	2
		Tinto	1
	Meme	Kumba 1 st , 2 nd , & 3 th	11
		Konye	1
		Mbonge	3
	Ndian	Bamusso	1
		Dikome Balue	1
		Ekondo-Titi	4
		Isanguele	1
Mundemba		3	
Kombo 1 st & 2 nd		1	
Idabato		1	
Totals		30 sub-districts	74 schools

Table 3.1 Government secondary schools with the South West region of Cameroon

Research has shown that teachers in rural areas face greater challenges than those in urban areas (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, McCracken and Miller 1988, Takupiwa et al 2013). Factors such as geographical isolation restrict the convenience to travel and access to urban amenities, especially with lack of professional development facilities and specialized support services (Gruneberg Richard and Tapsfield 1974),

that are often more readily available to their counterparts in urban or semi-urban districts. These aspects could affect teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. Teachers working within remote rural areas, and with indigenous people, may face cultural challenges, (McCracken and Miller 1988) especially in situations where community members and parents have different values and beliefs from those of the teachers and the principal.

However, some studies have reported no difference in the job satisfaction level of teacher in rural and urban areas (Mahmood, Nudrat and Asdaque 2011). Thus, the selection of participants from urban and rural areas aimed at providing comparative data on this issue. Table 3.2 shows the sampling frame for this study.

Administrative location	Districts	District from which schools are selected	No of Schools	Number of Participants
Urban	Idenau, Limbe, Tiko, Ekona, Buea, Muea, Muyuka,	Buea, Muea, Ekona and Muyuka	10	1(DP) 5 (F)/ 5(M) NAS and 5(HoD)
Rural	Ekondo- Titi, Kombo, Mudemba, Bekora Bamusu, idabato	Ekondo-Titi, Mudemba, Bekora, Kombo and Idabato	10	1(DP) 5 (F)/ 5(M) NAS and 5(HoD)
Total			20	320 participants

Table 3.2 Matched sample

(DP) = Deputy principal, (F) = Female teacher, (M) = Male teacher, (HoD) = Head of department and (NAS) = non-administrative staff/teacher.

Table 3.2 shows the various administrative locations, districts, and the number of participants per schools from which a representative sample was drawn. This representative sample comprised a matched sample of 16 participants from each selected school. The first step the author used to obtain this matched sample was by

cluster sampling technique (Cohen et al 2011, Oppenheim 1992). This gave rise to two clusters (Fako and Ndian). Secondly, due to the uneven distribution of schools between these two regions and the 12 districts, of the schools in the Fako division, all schools from Buea and Muyuka (six and four respectively) were selected to obtain the 10 schools for this region. These two districts have the largest number of schools and reflect the typical urban district settings within the Fako division. In contrast, within the Ndian division, the 10 schools selected are based on their geographical orientation and proximity to one another and to the urban district (Fako), to facilitate researcher access. Four schools were chosen from Ekondo-Titi, three from Mundemba, and one each from Bekora, Kombo and Idabato to provide the matched sample of 20 schools in both regions.

From each school, the author selected a sample of ten non-administrative teachers (one male and one female from five departments) in order to obtain a gender-balanced sample. This was achieved by selecting a male and a female teacher from each of the five selected departments (English, Mathematics, French, Chemistry and Biology). In addition, the school deputy principal and the heads of the five departments were purposively sampled, resulting in a cumulative sample of 16 participants. This selection procedure was applied consistently for all the 20 schools selected for the study. This yielded a total sample size of 320 participants for the quantitative phase of the study. Thus, producing a sample that is stratified by geographical location, gender and subject department.

Participants for the qualitative phase were obtained from a purposive sampling technique (Creswell 2003, Silverman 2000), by identifying schools from the surveyed

sampled which exhibited specific relevant characteristics linked to the research questions. Adopting the maximal variation sampling technique, as suggested by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the selection of the cases (schools) was based on the data from the survey. This comprised the identification of outstanding features of interest (the mid score of overall job satisfaction) to the research objective within the different districts. The author relied on the findings from the first phase (survey), to select the school with a mid overall job satisfaction score for detailed case study research.

In these two case study schools, the author used the initial sample of 16 participants from the quantitative phase for the qualitative phase. These 16 participants formed the key informants for the interviews. Thus, no formal case study screening procedure was required for the selection of participants for the case study (Yin 2006). Field notes were taken upon each visit to the research site, ensuring that observations, which were carried out in an unstructured pattern, were selective enough to capture insights that could help answer research questions.

Instrument Design and Piloting

Questionnaire

The survey instruments used to measure teachers' job satisfaction and motivation was an adapted version of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), by Spector (1986), and from the motivation literature (see Self Determination Theory, by Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991), and Gagné and Deci (2005), as well as the Orientation for Teaching Survey (OTS), by Daniel and Ferrell (1991). Portions of these individual instruments were combined and incorporated to form a single survey, which is structured into three

sections A, B and C. Sections A and B are designed to capture information on the concepts of job satisfaction and work motivation. Section C elicited information on the teachers' age, gender, length of service, qualification, official position and location of their school, to facilitate differential analysis. The instruments was adapted and modified to fit the context and purpose of the study and to eliminate potential sources of misunderstanding (Foddy 1993, Muijs 2011). In addition to the closed questions, open-ended questions were also added to provide teachers and opportunity to provide more insights and opinions that could inform the interviews (Creswell 2005, Muijs 2011).

Section A invited teachers to provide answers to their perceived level of satisfaction with their job at their current school. This section of the instrument assessed nine factors of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of the work and communication), as well as overall satisfaction (Spector 1997). This sections contained 37 items, 36 of which are rated on a four point scale of agreement which will require respondents to circle the answer that comes closest to their opinion (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree). Each of the items is a statement that is either favourable or unfavourable about an aspect of the job (Spector 1997).

To mitigate the effect of teachers providing answers that may inaccurately reflect their views, as a result of misinterpretation and misunderstanding of vocabulary (Foddy 1993), certain words and phrases in some items were altered. For example, in questions 15, "my efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape". The word red tape will be changed to bureaucracy. Similarly, the phrase "my line manager" has been changed to "my principal".

Section B of the questionnaire draws on two instruments as well as on extant research documents and motivation literature. With 36 items, this section invited teachers to indicate to what extent each statement corresponded to the reason for which they are currently involved in teaching. The items are categorized into seven sub-scales and are further classified within intrinsic and extrinsic motivation dimensions. The intrinsic dimension has three sub-scales (altruistic orientation, professional orientation, personal goal orientation) while the extrinsic dimension has four (external regulation, social and psychological security, work convenience, and interpersonal orientation). These adapted and modified sub-scales are developed from the eight-career motivation orientations, interpersonal, service, continuation, material benefits, time compatibility, situational, influence of others, and psychological (Ferrell and Daniel 1993).

The 36 items invited teachers to agree or disagree to positively worded aspects and statements as to why they are involved in their current job. All items were rated using a modified Likert scale, where 1 stands for “Strongly Disagree”, 2 for “Disagree”, 3 for “Agree”, and 4 for “Strongly Agree”. This integrated questionnaire is located in Appendix A.

As a means to check the consistency of teachers’ perceptions, as well as gain some details and understanding that could help the exploration of different dimensions of respondents’ experiences of the phenomena under investigation in the second phase of the study, open-ended questions (question 37a/b and question 36a/b in section A and B respectively) were added on the instrument (Sproull 1988). These questions challenged teachers to provide their views, in their own words on their overall job satisfaction and overall work motivation alongside justifications for their opinion

while maintaining anonymity (Cohen et al 2011, Muijs 2012), which increases the likelihood of generating honest responses (Erickson and Kaplan 2000). The inclusion of open-ended questions in standard structured surveys aimed at providing teachers with the opportunity to communicate more than standardized responses allow (Erickson and Kaplan 2000), and also provide clues that may have not been mentioned before (Muijs 2012).

Interviews

Adopting a semi-structure format, the design incorporated a few major open-ended questions with sub questions and possible follow-up questions (Coleman 2012, Cohen et al, 2011, Creswell 2005, Seidman 2006). This semi-structure was adopted so that teachers could best voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspective of the researcher or past research findings (Creswell 2005:214). Espousing Creswell's (2007) view that researchers should formulate follow-up questions that would keep participants on focus with their responses, appropriate prompts were also adopted to offer teachers a chance to elaborate on their responses. Thus, the interview schedules began with a logical order of specific general and open questions that invited teachers to reflect and draw from their experiences in order to provide global responses to the concepts under investigation (Coleman 2012, Hennink et al 2011). Similarly, some specific probing questions like "can you give an example to illustrate/support your answer?" and "can you give a clear example to support this?" were initiated to steer the conversation towards the research objectives, depending on teachers' answers (Coleman 2012 Creswell 2007). A copy of this interview schedule can be found in the Appendix B.

All things considered, after an introduction from which consent for recording was

sought from the interviewees, the author started by asking teachers to describe (using a logical order of structured questions), and then account for, their overall satisfaction and motivation, upon which certain appropriate probes were utilized based on the respondents' opinion. In addition, the schedule drew on data from field notes, and asked teachers to comment upon specific incidents and circumstances, which had occurred in the school (Evans 1998).

Piloting

A pilot study was undertaken to ensure that data collection tools were suitable to measure what they were intended to assess, and were consistent with the study's objectives (Cohen et al 2011, Creswell 2005, Hennink et al, 2011, Muijs 2012, Powney and Watts 1987). Pilot testing focused on ensuring that the designed questionnaire and interview schedule were apt for their expected measurement potential and to capture information on what they are intended to assess in accordance to the study's objectives, (Cohen et al 2011, Hennink et al, 2011, Powney and Watts 1987). As Oppenheim (1992:47) notes, "questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights". In a similar vein, many authors have outlined the benefits of conducting a pilot study or test, be it questionnaire or interview schedules (Cohen et al 2011, Creswell 2003, 2005, Muijs 2004, 2011, 2012).

Piloting allowed for clarity, especially with respect to layout and appearance, identification of threads of misunderstanding, difficulties in answering questions, the timing, identification and elimination of ambiguities (Cohen et al 2011, Hennink et al 2011, Oppenheim 1992). This ensured that inappropriate wordings were checked and corrected (Oppenheim 1992, Powney and Watts 1987), with precautions made to

ensure a high response rate. Piloting increased the author's awareness and informed decisions for the most appropriate styles of interviews (Bassey 1999, Silverman 2010). Questionnaires were pilot tested with a sample of 31 teachers, who were conveniently selected from two secondary schools that are not included in the study's main sample. The pilot study was executed during the month of February 2013. The results revealed a need to change the word "red tape" to "bureaucracy" and "line manager" to "my principal".

Data Collection

As noted above, quantitative and qualitative data were collected sequentially. Quantitative data were collected and analyzed prior to the collection of qualitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). In line with the view that qualitative data help to explain, and elaborate on, the quantitative results (Cohen et al 2011, Creswell 2005), the collection of quantitative data before qualitative data was suitable for the explanatory mixed methods design (Creswell 2005, Creswell and Plano Clark 2007), and facilitated the objective selection of the two case studies (Miles and Huberman 1994).

Data collection procedures

Building on a pre-established rapport between the author and the various research site gatekeepers (regional delegates of secondary education and school principals), attained in 2012 during a pre-visit to various sites in the Ndian and Fako divisions, official permission were obtained from the delegates at the beginning of March 2013, to gain full access to the sites. An application letter requesting participants and principals of the 20 schools to take part in the research was sent to the Regional

Delegate of Secondary Education in January 2012, and was favourable granted in March 2013. Copies of these letters can be found in the Appendix C.

The data collection process started in March 2013 and ended in May 2013. During this period, the author executed multiple visits to the research sites, starting in Fako. Accordingly, gatekeepers and participants were informed of the time frame (March-May 2013) of the study (Seidman 2006) and were also provided with a photocopy of the research authorization letter signed by the Regional Delegate and an outline of research and their role as participants. This helped in boosting participation as well as ensuring that every participant could carefully schedule sufficient time for the data collection process (returning questionnaires and scheduling interviews for those who qualified).

The author personally distributed 160 questionnaires to all sampled teachers in Fako and Ndian. In each region, a week was allocated to give teachers ample time to respond to the questionnaire and a designated date was scheduled for collection of answered questionnaires. However, additional time (two weeks in Fako particularly) were provided to ensure that all questionnaires were collected, and to enable the author performed a series of basic statistical analysis, which helped in informing the second qualitative phase of the study (Creswell 2005).

Following the results of the preliminary statistical analysis, the case study school was identified and the participants for the qualitative phase notified via phone calls. The initial 16 teachers who participated in the quantitative phase were automatically selected to provide data for the qualitative phase through face-to-face interviews (Creswell 2003). Upon securing informed consent from the various gatekeepers and

participants (interviewees), appropriate interview times were arranged and agreed upon with the various teachers (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The first two days of the qualitative phase of the study were set for field notes. Field notes on the human and physical components of the school were recorded during these two days, and were subsequently developed in to a more descriptive narrative (Creswell 2003, Hennink et al 2011, Kirk and Miller 1986).

Field notes were judged necessary to provide insights on issues related to the research questions. A field work notebook was used, accommodating both descriptive and reflective field notes (Creswell 2003, 2005). Notes included the setting where the data was collected, the date, exact time and the duration that certain events occurred (Muijs 2004). Field notes were used to provide information to probe and steer the interviews, and drew particularly on events relevant to the research questions, especially in respect of teachers' attitudes.

Data Analysis

According to Muijs (2004), mixed methods research has clear benefits in that it provides confirming, complementary and contrasting sources of data, often as part of a strategy of triangulation. Data from the surveys was computed and analysed using SPSS, while the section with open-ended questions was subjected to content analysis (Silverman 2011). Demographic and quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics. A deductive approach was used in the analysis of data generated from the questionnaire using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis (Cohen et al 2000, Muijs 2004).

The author used descriptive statistics to describe the basic features of the data from the surveys, presenting simple percentages that explore general tendencies (Black 1999). The analysis at this level provided simple summaries in figures and in graphical displays from SPSS (Muijs 2004, 2011, 2012). The descriptive report includes the distributions of responses in raw totals and percentages and interpretations by age ranges, gender, length of service, qualifications, as well as the location of schools (Muijs 2011). In addition, the central tendency (the mean, median and mode) and the dispersion (the standard deviation) were also computed. The data was reported as clearly as possibly, respecting the positivist theoretical assumption of parsimony (Cohen et al 2000). Similarly, inferential statistics were also employed to infer likely associations between variables with their effect sizes, especially to address research questions. Correlations and Mann–Whitney U test were performed to explore the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Muijs 2011).

Research question 1 allowed for some hypothesis testing to be performed, to see if there existed a cause–and–effect or concomitant relationship between any of the variables under investigation and teacher job satisfaction (Cohen et al 2011). The hypothesis testing included;

H1: Teachers’ age has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

H2: Teachers’ gender has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

H3: Teachers’ length of service has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

H4: Teachers’ academic qualification has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

H5: Teachers’ rank has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The data gathered from field notes were further elaborated into full transcripts from which codes were developed and compared, and categorized (Hennink et al 2011). Adopting an analytic cycle of both inductive and deductive techniques, the author underpinned the analysis of qualitative data using the thematic analysis principles of grounded theory (Cohen et al 2011, Hennink et al 2011). The adoption of this form of grounded theory (not for the development of theory) was seen as an appropriate approach as it offered an implicitly inductive approach to data analysis, where codes, concepts and theory are derived from the data (Hennink et al 2011, Scott and Howell 2008). Bearing in mind that the present study adopts an explanatory and exploratory frame of mixed methods, the use of both inductive and deductive techniques appears appropriate. Using these techniques of grounded theory, the identification and development of categories and codes was facilitated, and provided a broader understanding of the different patterns available from the data.

Data from semi-structured interviews were analyzed using an inductive approach to data coding and analysis. This inductive coding approach was suitable to uncover the job satisfaction and motivation of the sampled teachers and generated new theoretical insights for further studies to explore (Muijs 2004). These data were transcribed, coded and further divided into sub-codes, so as to arrange the data into comprehensive units, by putting them into broad themes, or patterns, which mapped to the research questions (Hennink et al 2011, Klinger and Boardman 2011). The data from the interviews brought more depth to the numerical findings, and the data obtained from field notes. This also facilitated data triangulation. The analyses of qualitative data provided in-depth understanding and patterns from which categories

of codes and themes were identified, which were not observable or could not be deduced by any statistically measurable means (Cohen et al 2000, Cohen et al 2011, Yin 2014). A systematic coding technique, classification and comparison techniques were applied to reach meaningful interpretations.

The analysis of the interview transcripts relied significantly on the interpretation of teachers' levels of job satisfaction and motivation. During this process, the expressed feelings, thoughts, attitudes and beliefs about their reality were coded thematically for the identification of themes that will emerge from the data. Once analysed, the findings were presented in a narrative format, supported by verbatim quotations from the transcribed interviews (Corden and Sainsbury 2006, Hennink et al 2011). Each theme generated was analysed, supported and validated, in order to reveal similarities, contradictions and discrepancies.

Reliability, Validity and Triangulation

Bloor and Wood (2006:147) define reliability as “the extent to which research produces the same results when replicated” and validity as “the extent to which the research produces an accurate version of the world”. Drawing on Hartas's (2010:71) description of reliability, which focuses on the consistency and stability of a measurement and the replicability of findings, the author accepts Bush's (2012) argument that one of the main ways of assessing reliability is through the pilot testing. The author ensured that all data collection tools (questionnaire and the interview schedule) were pilot tested (Cohen et al 2011). However, the author recognises that the use of semi-structured interviews may limit the scope for reliability, while enhancing validity, because of the deliberate strategy of treating each participant as a potentially unique respondent (Bush 2012).

Positivists believe that research is reliable if results can be replicated by the researcher and by other researchers (Bell 1999, Cohen et al 2011), and if the sampling techniques, and the comprehensive instrument, can ensure that the findings of the study can be replicable. In order to maximize the degree of reliability, which is usually affected negatively by factors such as researcher bias, inconsistencies in the research processes used, differences in the context in which the research will be conducted, and measurement errors, both the quantitative and qualitative data collection processes followed a systematic and consistent procedure (Cohen et al 2011, Muijs 2004).

Drawing on the interpretivist tradition, which suggests that reliability occurs when the researcher is able to demonstrate interpretive awareness (subjectivity), the author sought to remain open to alternative explanations of the phenomena under investigation. Similar to validity, reliability and transferability, within the positivist paradigm, interpretivists have also expressed concern about the validity of the knowledge acquired through their research (Bell 1999, Hartas 2010), and rather prefer the used of terms such as *trustworthiness* and *authenticity* (Lincoln and Guba 1985).

According to Johnson and Christensen (2000:207), valid research is plausible, credible, trustworthy and therefore defensible, and in order to establish this credibility and trustworthiness in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) have proposed five techniques. These include; prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation activity aimed at refining working hypotheses as more information becomes available), negative case analysis (an activity that makes possible checking

preliminary findings and interpretations against archives), referential adequacy and member checking (an activity providing for direct test of findings and interpretation with the human sources from which they have come). Drawing on Hammersley's (1992:69) remark, that an account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena that it is intended to describe, the verbatim transcripts will faithfully record teachers' words.

In order to obtain research data and evident that will be credible, trustworthy and authentic, the author relied on prolonged engagement, source and method triangulation, and member checking (Lincoln and Guba 1985). Prolonged engagement was employed as an important strategy to reduce any type of distortion that may emanate from the nature of the study, and to enhance the author's understanding of the perspectives of the teachers within the two regions. It also allowed the teachers to become accustomed to the researcher, and to build some trust. To enhance the credibility of the qualitative phase of the study, member checking was employed, enabling the author to ensure that transcripts were returned to the interviewee for confirmation or amendment (Lincoln and Guba 1985, Scott and Morrison 2006). The use of this strategy was to ensure that the author was in possession of an accurately translated version of the informants' views and interpretations of their job satisfaction and work motivation.

With respect to validity, which is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe (Bush 2011), Cohen et al (2011) have articulated different types of validity that need to be considered within the positivist tradition, for example, construct validity, internal validity, and external

validity. In addressing construct validity, the comprehensive survey instrument intended for this study has been adapted from specific instruments that have been used by other researchers to measure teachers' job satisfaction (Bellingham 2004, Crossman and Harris 2006) and teachers' work motivation (Ferrell and Daniel 1991, 1993). This integrated instrument was pilot tested, before full distribution, and a follow-up interview of some selected teachers from the surveyed sample should help to check validity.

The Crossman and Harris (2006) study, measuring UK secondary teachers' job satisfaction, included a pilot study and the reliability of the amended instrument (JSS adapted from Spector, 1997) was assessed with a Cronbach alpha of .86, which indicated a satisfactory reliability. Similarly, validity and reliability checks have done on the OTS (Ferrell and Daniel 1993). Therefore, adapting and using this comprehensive instrument may enhance validity, especially after being piloted tested and all necessary adjustments made. However, with respect to content validity, each item on the instrument was tailored to measure an aspect of the construct. This also was linked to a wider consideration of fitness for purpose in measuring the level of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation.

The use of systematic sampling techniques, which this study incorporated, ensured that an aspect of external validity, which is concerned with how far the data from the surveyed and interviewed sample is representative of a wider population, was considered (Cohen et al 2011). Systematic sampling techniques was employed to mitigate threats to external validity, which could arise from sampling error, size and representativeness of the sample, and particular contextual conditions in which the

survey was carried out. Similarly, aspects of internal validity were addressed through the clarity with which questions were formulated, as well as through the use of mixed methods to answer research questions.

To enhance the validity of the study, the author used data triangulation in cross-checking and comparing the various sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information gathered for the phenomena under investigation (Bush 2012, Cohen et al 2011). The use of mixed-methods in this study enhanced the richness and complexity of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation (Cohen and Manion 1994, Creswell 2005). Bush (2012) has identified four types of triangulation used in educational research. These include data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation and methodological triangulation. However, only methodological triangulation was considered within the scope of this study, as the author intended to utilize data from two different sources (questionnaires and interviews) to answer the research questions.

Through the discussions presented addressing the study's reliability, validity and triangulation, the author believed that the issues discussed would contribute to an acceptable level of authenticity sufficient to render the study meaningful and worthwhile (Bush 2012).

Ethical Considerations

To ensure that the study followed recognised and standard ethical procedures, (Cohen et al 2011, Hennink et al 2011), the author obtained informed consent from all participants (teachers and principals) to cover all phases of the study. Via the various gatekeepers, the author distributed letters to seek participants' consent, to give participants the opportunity to understand the scope and intention of the study

(Silverman 2010) and to be confident about issues of confidentiality and anonymity. They were given enough time to read, sign and return the signed agreement stating that they understood the nature of the study and its significance. Thus, the consent letter was designed to address issues of confidentiality and anonymity for the participants. They were also be assured that the findings of the study would be used strictly for academic purposes (explaining the benefits of the research outcomes to their practice as educators) and all recordings and notes taken during observations and interviews would be confidential and seen only by the researcher. Finally, participants were reminded of their right to withdraw from the study at any stage (Cohen et al, 2011) and were also be ascertained of the authors obligation to respect all ethical dimensions as stipulated by Ethical Approval document obtained from the University of Warwick.

Overview

This chapter presented the authors' research design and methods. It discussed the mixed methods approach and shows how the major aspects of the study's methodology have been addressed, drawing on the research methods literature, and linked to the author's research questions. The chapter started by presenting the main research questions as well as discussed the paradigms (positivism and interpretivism) chosen to guide the research and the mixed method adopted (explanatory sequential). It adopts both quantitative (survey method) and qualitative (case studies) data collection techniques and discusses the sampling techniques used for the study. The reliability, validity, triangulation and ethical considerations were also presented and discussed.

The next chapter presents the quantitative findings from the survey of teachers in Fako.

CHAPTER FOUR:

QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS IN FAKO

Introduction

In this chapter, the main findings from the Fako region will be presented. The chapter will begin by presenting the pilot study. Descriptive statistics of the main sample will be presented as well as some basic statistical analysis of the data used to establish the levels of job satisfaction and work motivation of teachers within the various schools.

The basic statistical analysis of the data will be presented in three sections. The first section will provide a description of the various levels of satisfaction and work motivation of teachers in the 10 schools. The second section will present the analysis of the different dimensions of their jobs as measured by the integrated questionnaire of job satisfaction and work motivation within these 10 schools. The last section will present statistical operations on the entire sample, such as the Mann Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis H Test, showing whether there are meaningful differences between job satisfaction levels with respect to certain independent variables.

Pilot Study

As discussed in the preceding chapter, a pilot study was conducted to evaluate how well the integrated questionnaire could capture the desired responses. It also served as a tool for assessing respondents' understanding of the items on the questionnaire. However, since the main objective of the pilot study was to check the suitability of the questionnaire in terms of validity and reliability, this section will focus only on the results obtained from the reliability test. The pilot study was conducted with a sample

of 31 participants from two schools in Limbe (Urban area). A reliability test with a Cronbach's alpha of .757 and .737 was obtained with the 36 items and 35 items for the job satisfaction and work motivation sections respectively. According to reliability results (see Table 4.1), all items on Section B (regarding work motivation) were found to be statistically reliable based on the α Coefficient estimate =.7, which, according to (Kline 1999), is a valid value for data analysis.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No of Items
Job satisfaction	.757	.764	36
Work Motivation	.737	.768	35

Table 4.1 Reliability statistics

Table 4.1 shows that the scale on work motivation reported a Cronbach's $\alpha = .737$, while the section on job satisfaction reported a reliable Cronbach's $\alpha = .757$. These alpha values construed that these scales were reliable and useful to measure teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation.

Sample characteristics of the pilot study

Table 4.2 presents the major characteristics of the pilot sample, which was used to compute the Cronbach's alpha.

Location	Characteristics	No	Valid Percentage
School in Limbe	Gender		
	Male	13	41.9
	Female	18	58.1
	Age		
	21-25	2	6.5
	26-30	4	12.9
	31-35	8	25.8
	36-40	5	16.1
	41-45	2	6.5
	46-50	5	16.1
	51-55	5	16.1
	56-60	0	0.0
	Highest Qualification		
	FSLC	0	0.0
	GCE O/L	0	0.0
	GCE A/L	0	0.0
	CAPIEM	1	3.2
	DIPES I/BSc/B.Ed	21	67.7
	DIPES II/MSc/MA	3	9.7
	PLEG	6	19.4
	Ph.D.	0	0.0
	Years of Teaching Experience		
	1-5	9	29.0
	6-10	3	9.7
	11-15	9	29.0
	16-20	4	12.9
	21-25	2	6.5
	26-30	3	9.7
31-35	0	0.0	
36+	1	3.2	
Administrative Position			
None	22	71.0	
Head of Department	8	25.8	
Vice/Deputy Principal	1	3.2	

Table 4.2 Major Characteristics of the pilot sample

The total satisfaction and work motivation score was derived by adding all the 36 items in section A and the 35 items in section B. The scoring and interpretation of scores will be discussed in details under the various sections of the questionnaire later in this chapter. Since items were scored from 1 to 4, there was a possibility for a

participant to have a total score that could range from 71 to 284, which could be conveniently described as low to high levels of job satisfaction and work motivation.

Description of the Fako Sample

Table 4.3 shows the various schools from which data were collected alongside the number of participants in each school. The table equally includes the gender distribution of the sample. Schools were coded to ease data management and serve for further identification during the second phase of the study.

	School Code	Total No of Teachers	Percentage	Gender	
				Male	Female
School 1	FK	16	11.0	9	7
School 2	FKGS	14	9.6	3	11
School 3	FKBM	14	9.6	7	7
School 4	FKBT	14	9.6	7	7
School 5	FKM	16	11.0	12	4
School 6	FKMD	16	11.0	9	7
School 7	FKF	12	8.2	8	3
School 8	FKXM	16	11.0	8	8
School 9	FKEK	14	9.6	11	3
School 10	FKGU	14	9.6	5	8
Total		146	100%	79	65

Table 4.3 The schools involved in the study from Fako

The 10 schools from which data were collected are presented in table 4.3 with school numbers 1, 5, 6 and 8 achieving the intended sample of 16 participants. However, five schools (numbers 2,3,4,9, and 10) had 14 participants each, while one school had

just 12 respondents to the questionnaire. With regards to gender distribution, data were missing for two participants from schools 7 and 10.

Table 4.4 presents demographic information for the Fako sample. It outlines a general description of the sample's characteristics in raw numbers and valid percentages.

Location	Characteristics	No	Valid Percentage
Schools in Fako	Gender		
	Male	79	54.9
	Female	65	45.1
	Age		
	21-25	8	5.6
	26-30	25	17.4
	31-35	44	30.6
	36-40	29	20.1
	41-45	11	7.6
	46-50	16	11.1
	51-55	10	6.9
	56-60	1	0.7
	Highest Qualification		
	FSLC	0	0.0
	GCE O/L	0	0.0
	GCE A/L	2	1.4
	CAPIEMP	4	2.8
	DIPES I/BSc/B.Ed	80	55.6
	DIPES II/MSc/MA	3	9.7
	PLEG	33	22.9
	Ph.D.	0	0.0
	Years of Teaching Experience		
	1-5	44	30.3
	6-10	38	26.2
	11-15	28	19.3
	16-20	20	13.8
	21-25	10	6.9
	26-30	4	2.8
	31-35	0	0.0
	36+	1	0.7
Administrative Position			
None	85	59.9	
Head of Department	44	31.0	
Vice/Deputy Principal	13	9.2	

Table 4.4: Sample characteristics in Fako

Globally, out of the 160 questionnaires that were distributed in Fako, 146 filled questionnaires were successfully retrieved, giving a valid response rate of 91.2 percent. While the researcher anticipated an evenly distributed sample in terms of gender, the actual participants comprised 79 (54.1%) males and 65 (44.5%) females. The age groups from which these teachers emerged cut across all eight-age range categories. The age range category 31-35 emerged as the largest category, accounting for 30.6 percent of the sample, followed by the 36-40-age category (20.1%). The 26-30-age category followed with 17.4 percent, while 11.1 percent of the teachers fell within the 46-50-age category, 5.6 percent and 6.9 percent were within the 21-25 and 51-55 age categories respectively. The smallest group were those aged 56-60, which comprised only one respondent. The age distribution revealed that teachers aged between 25- 45 formed the majority of the teachers within this sample, showing that the teaching force mainly comprises young and middle age teachers.

Among the participants, the GCE A/L certification (1.4%) appeared to be the minimum qualification for teachers in this sample, while a few (2.8%) had the CAPIEMP (Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Instituteurs de l'Enseignement Maternel et Primaire). The majority (55.6%) of them were BSc or equivalent DIPES I (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 1e Grade) holders. Participants with a Master's Degree, or its equivalent DIPES II (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 2e Grade), accounted for 17.4 percent of the sample while 22.9 percent were PLEG (Professeur des Lycée d'enseignement Générale) holders, which were the highest qualified teachers in this sample.

The results indicated that teachers who have been teaching for only five years or less formed the largest group in the sample (30.3%). There was a steady decline in the

number of teachers as years of service increased.

Table 4.4 also indicates that 85 teachers had no administrative roles (59.9%), while 44 were head of departments (31.0%), and 13 were vice principals (9.2%). This finding shows that majority of the teachers in this sample comprised of young and middle age teachers who have had at least 1 to 10 years of teaching experience.

Job Satisfaction Scale

Drawing from the assessment of job satisfaction level as described by Spector (1997), and with regards to the modified 4-point Likert scale, for the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 144, the possible ranges include 36 to 72 for dissatisfaction and 108 to 144 for satisfaction. This is as a result of the fact that, for any participant, the summation of all possible high scores (4) can yield a total of 144. Similarly, the summation of all possible low scores (1) can yield 36. However between these two categories (low and high scores) is the ambivalent zone, accommodating any score ranging from 73 to 107. Thus, scores from 72 and below can be described as low satisfaction or dissatisfaction, while scores from 108 and above can be described to represent satisfaction.

In order to obtain the various satisfaction levels of the various schools as well as that of the entire sample from Fako, the mean score, the median, standard deviation and total sum (raw number) were computed as presented on tables 4.5 and 4.6 respectively. From these scores, it was possible to rank the mean scores of the various schools from which the 5th on the rank was selected for the qualitative phase of the study. From this ranking, school 1 was chosen, with its mean satisfaction score closest to the mean for the whole sample (see table 4.5).

Rank	School	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Sum
1 st	7	94.42	96.0	15.929	1133
2 nd	8	94.13	94.5	11.319	1506
3 rd	2	93.57	89.0	13.648	1310
4 th	3	92.93	90.5	10.55	1301
5 th	1*	89.63	91.0	6.672	1434
6 th	4	89.43	89.0	7.356	1252
7 th	10	89.07	88.0	7.741	1247
8 th	9	85.36	87.5	9.652	1195
9 th	6	85.31	83.0	11.372	1362
10 th	5	83.31	81.0	8.987	1333

Table 4.5 Rank order of participating school by mean score

School * indicates the chosen school for the qualitative phase.

The mean and median scores for the 10 schools presented on table 4. 5 indicated that teachers from these schools are generally ambivalent about their satisfaction as indicated by their mean that shows only modest differences from $M= 83.31$ to $M = 94.42$ among the 10 schools. However, differences in Means suggest that teachers in schools 7 and 8 ($M = 94.42$ and $M = 94.13$) are the closest to a satisfied set of teachers in this sample. According to the ranking, school 2 and school 3, demonstrated continuity in descending order with the following means ($M =93.57$ and $M =92.93$) respectively. This pushed school one to the 5th position ($M =89.63$, $SD=6.67$).

This school was selected to be the case study within this region. With regards to the last three schools (8th, 9th and 10th) in the ranking, the modest differences in satisfaction ($M =85.36$, 85.31 and 83.31 respectively) suggest shared experience of ambivalence were common among the schools. The limited variation in mean scores across the ten schools might be because teachers work in a centralised system, with

similar conditions, where many features of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be expected to be shared among the teachers. The discussion of specific facets of job satisfaction below provides more insight on this issue.

Overall and facet dimensions of job satisfaction

In order to obtain a more descriptive picture of the sample, the mean scores and standard deviations of the sample’s overall job satisfaction and facets of job satisfaction across the 10 schools were computed and presented in tables 4.6, 4.7. The samples’ mean scores and standard deviations for various facets of job satisfaction are presented in table 4.8. Table 4.6 shows the mean score for overall job satisfaction of the sample in Fako.

Number	Job Satisfaction	
N	Valid	146
	Mean	89.54
	Median	90.00
	Mode	88
	Std. Deviation	10.918
	Sum	13073

Table 4.6 The overall job satisfaction mean

The Mean and Median score in table 4.6 ($M = 89.54$, $SD=10.91$), indicates a sense of ambivalent from the surveyed teachers in Fako. This finding suggests that these teachers were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their job. However, the information in table 4.7 provides more insight into teachers’ job satisfaction, as it shows which aspects of the job were highly or lowly scored.

School	Pay		Promotion		Supervision		Fringe benefit		Contingent Reward		Operational condition		Co-Workers		Nature of Work		Communication	
	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev
1	7.81	2.073	8.13	2.217	13.00	1.571	8.13	2.527	8.69	1.957	8.50	1.155	12.31	1.448	12.13	1.628	10.69	1.740
2	9.00	2.253	8.29	1.590	12.50	2.029	8.36	2.437	9.71	2.335	9.43	2.344	13.00	2.075	12.14	2.797	11.14	3.060
3	9.21	2.045	8.00	2.075	13.21	2.259	8.14	1.099	9.00	2.828	8.43	1.697	13.43	1.989	11.64	2.499	11.86	1.703
4	8.86	1.791	8.50	2.175	11.86	2.248	8.71	1.978	8.93	2.093	7.86	1.748	11.07	1.328	11.86	1.956	11.79	1.968
5	8.19	2.136	7.25	1.915	11.13	2.446	7.19	1.642	8.44	1.825	8.38	2.247	11.69	2.089	10.13	2.964	10.94	2.670
6	8.00	2.280	8.94	2.235	12.31	1.302	8.25	1.915	8.19	3.209	9.56	2.159	9.63	2.872	11.75	1.949	8.50	2.066
7	9.75	2.006	9.42	2.678	11.83	3.157	9.75	2.379	10.00	1.859	9.83	2.406	12.00	2.697	12.00	2.663	9.83	2.209
8	9.06	2.645	9.00	1.826	12.94	1.611	8.75	2.463	9.75	1.693	8.94	1.879	12.19	2.136	12.38	1.708	11.13	2.729
9	7.93	1.385	7.64	2.274	11.43	2.277	8.71	1.684	7.57	1,342	8.07	1.542	12.71	1.4900	10.93	2.303	10.36	3.388
10	7.50	2.279	7.71	2.367	12.36	2.341	7.86	1.657	7.93	2.018	9.07	0.917	12.71	1.939	12.14	2.381	11.79	2.155
Total	85.31	20.893	82.88	21.352	122.57	21.241	75.1	19.781	88.21	1361.817	88.07	18.094	120.74	20.063	117.1	22.848	108.03	23.688

Table 4.7 Mean and standard deviations of the various facets of job satisfaction in the 10 schools from Fako

St. Dev = Standard Deviation

Explaining the facet scores

For the job satisfaction section, because each of the facet score had four items, the possible scores could range from 4 to 16. Scores of 4 to 8 are described as low satisfaction or dissatisfied, while scores between 12 and 16 as satisfied. On the other hand, scores between these two categories of score (dissatisfied and satisfied) are described as ambivalent and accommodated scores between 9 -11. Table 4.7 shows the mean score and standard deviations of the 10 schools along the nine facets of job satisfaction. The data from this table shows that out of the nine facets of job satisfaction, none of the schools reported satisfaction with at least half of all the facets of job satisfaction. Rather, an ambivalent feeling was recorded by the majority of the schools with respect to most of the nine facets. These facets will be discussed in rank order, according to the ratings of the teachers from Fako (see table 4.8).

Rank	Job Satisfaction Scale	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1st	Supervision	1795	12.29	2.191
2 nd	Coworkers	1758	12.04	2.259
3 rd	Nature of Work	1708	11.70	2.335
4 th	Communication	1575	10.79	2.555
5 th	Contingent Reward	1285	8.80	2.252
6 th	Operational	1284	8.79	1.908
7 th	Pay	1241	8.50	2.259
8 th	Fringe Benefit	1219	8.35	2.063
9 th	Promotion Scale	1208	8.27	2.170

Table 4.8 The ranked mean scores of the facet dimension of job satisfaction

Although the general picture from the data presented in table 4.7 reveal that teachers within this region were ambivalent about their feelings on the various facets of job satisfaction, the data reveal some information pertaining to the degree of satisfaction levels along these dimensions.

Table 4.8 shows that satisfaction scores from these teachers were lowest with their chances of promotion ($M = 8.27$, $SD = 2.170$), followed by fringe benefits ($M = 8.35$, $SD = 2.06$), pay ($M = 8.50$, $SD = 2.25$), operating conditions ($M = 8.79$, $SD = 1.908$) and contingent rewards ($M = 8.80$, $SD = 2.25$). These aspects show that teachers are generally dissatisfied with their promotion prospects, the benefits they receive (material or non material), their salary and working conditions. These factors are all extrinsic in nature and the low levels of satisfaction noted here are consistent with other research conducted in African countries (Altinyelken 2010, Mtika and Gates 2011, George and Mensah 2010, Tanaka 2011, Titanji 1994). This important finding will be discussed fully in chapter eight.

Table 4.8 also reveals that supervision ($M = 12.29$, $SD = 2.19$) and co-workers ($M = 12.04$, $SD = 2.25$) emerged as the dimensions where teachers reported satisfaction. Being the two most highly scored facets, it could be argued that teachers from this region enjoy and value the interpersonal relationship they share with their direct supervisors and co-workers. Though within the ambivalent zone, the nature of work and communication were the next highly scored facets. The nature of work ($M = 11.70$, $SD = 2.33$), with a slightly higher mean than communication ($M = 10.79$, $SD = 2.55$) suggests that these teachers were susceptible to have derived some satisfaction with intrinsic aspects of their work.

Each of these dimensions will now be discussed in rank order.

Supervision

Supervision was the sub scale with the highest mean score (see table 4.8). Similarly, at the school level as shown on table 4.7, teachers from six schools reported satisfaction with this dimension (school 1, 2, 3, 6, 8 and 10). This indicates that teachers generally shared a common experience in the type of supervision they get from their various schools, and probably the support provided by these supervisors. Conversely, the teachers in the rest of the schools were inclined to be ambivalent towards this dimension (means ranged from $M=11.13$ - $M=11.86$). Nevertheless, these modest differences in scores suggest that teachers within this region experience similar types of supervision.

Co-workers

The co-worker dimension on the job satisfaction scale was the second highly scored dimension after supervision (see table 4.8). On this dimension, only schools 5, 4 and 6 (Means = 11.69, 11.07 and 9.63 respectively) appeared to have scored means around the ambivalent zone (see table 4.7). However, the other seven schools (1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9 and 10), all reported satisfaction with this dimension. This dimension appeared to be have been the one of the dimensions that really reflects a shared opinion among teachers across the 10 schools, as their respective mean scores closely maps to the overall mean of the sub scale (see table 4.8). The finding suggests that teachers within this region generally value their colleagues and enjoy the interpersonal relationships they share with one another.

Nature of work sub scale

According to table 4.8, the mean score of this dimension suggests that teachers from Fako have an ambivalent feeling about the nature of their work. This score suggests that teachers from all 10 schools shared a common view about the nature of their

work, as there are only modest differences among the means (12.14 – 10.13). The mean scores of teachers from five schools suggest satisfaction with this dimension, while the five other schools report ambivalent scores. These findings suggest that the perceptions teachers have about the nature of their job are similar since the mean scores from the various schools on this dimension are not significantly different. However, factors such as departmentalization of subject, additional duties assigned to some teachers, autonomy of work vis-à-vis the nature of the school head's leadership style, and the number of students and teachers in the school, appear to have contributed to these modest differences.

Communication sub scale

Though within the ambivalent zone, and with an overall sub scale mean of 10.79 as indicated on table 4.8, this was the fourth highest scored dimension. Despite the general ambivalent score across the sample, only teachers in school 6 revealed dissatisfaction with this dimension. Generally, the data on table 4.7 reports that teachers within this area are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the communication systems in their schools. This finding suggests that the patterns of communication experienced by teachers within these schools are similar. These shared perceptions may be partly because of the highly centralised system of education, or partly due to similar communication networks existing within schools.

Contingent rewards

As indicated on table 4.8, this dimension generally reported dissatisfaction. At the school level, four schools (school 2, 3, 7 and 8) were located in the ambivalent zone, while the other six schools registered dissatisfaction. This finding suggests that

teachers do not feel appreciated and adequately rewarded for their efforts and inputs as teachers.

Operational conditions

Similar to the contingent reward dimension, this dimension emerged with an average mean score of 8.79, indicating dissatisfaction. Likewise, it had teachers from four schools indicating an ambivalent (Mean range = 9.07-9.83) feeling about the operational conditions in their schools. Although the mean scores of these four schools were within the ambivalent zone on this dimension (Means = 9.07, 9.43, 9.58 and 9.83) the differences between these scores were very modest and were inclined towards dissatisfaction. Teachers from the other six schools reported dissatisfaction (Mean range =7.89-8.94). These data suggest that teachers from the sample are not satisfied with their working conditions. This might be as a result of the bureaucratic nature of a centralised system.

Pay sub scale

The general opinion, as can be seen from table 4.8, is that of dissatisfaction with the pay sub scale. Despite the general observation of dissatisfaction from the teachers in the 10 schools as indicated on table 4.7, schools 2, 3, 7 and 8 revealed ambivalent mean scores for this dimension (9.00, 9.21, 9.75 and 9.06 respectively). Again, it can be seen that these mean scores do not reveal any substantial differences. These data suggest that teachers from this sample believe that they are not paid a fair salary for the work they do.

Fringe benefits

Similar to the pay sub scale, which had no school scoring a mean above 10, this sub scale produced the most unanimous opinion of dissatisfaction, as indicated in table 4.8. According to the data in table 4.7, only the teachers in school 7 ($M= 9.75$, $SD=2.37$) reported an ambivalent feeling for this dimension. This suggests that teachers within this sample generally share the same experiences when it comes to the fringe benefits available to them. The dissatisfaction registered within this dimension may be because benefits that teachers receive are not perceived to be as good as those of other civil servants or because certain benefits which are due to them are not given on time or not given at all.

Promotion sub scale

As the bottom ranked of the nine sub scales, with a mean score of 8.27, this dimension emerged with dissatisfaction among the majority of the teachers from this region (see table 4.8). Though teachers from two schools (school 7 and 8) reported ambivalent feelings ($M= 9.42$, $SD= 2.6$ and $M = 9.00$, $SD =1.82$ respectively) on this dimension, the means from these schools were tilted towards dissatisfaction as none was above 9.5 (see table 4.7). This general dissatisfaction suggests that teachers from this region perceive that promotion prospects are bleak and unfair.

Work Motivation Scale

Section B of the integrated questionnaire assessed teachers' work motivation on a modified 4-point Likert scale for the 35-item scale. The lowest and highest scores this section could generate ranged from 35 to 140. Along this range, a score of 35 to 70 indicated feelings of demotivation or low motivation, while a score from 105 to

140 showed motivation or high motivation. This is because the summation of all possible high scores (4) can yield a total of 140, while the summation of all possible low scores (1) can yield 35. The ambivalent zone, which settled between the low motivated and motivated zone, had scores from 71 and 104.

To obtain the various work motivation levels of each school and the entire sample from Fako, the mean score, the median, standard deviation and total sum (raw number) were computed as presented in table 4.9. However, unlike job satisfaction, the ranking of these scores were vestigial and thus served no specific purpose except to understand which schools had more motivated staff.

The data in table 4.9 show the motivation level of the various schools ranked by mean.

School	Mean	Median	St. Dev	Sum of Scores	Rank
4	107.57	106.5	4.219	1506	1
2	105.00	107.5	11.422	1470	2
10	103.00	102.0	11.845	1442	3
1	102.88	102.5	6.582	1646	4
3	102.00	104.0	9.977	1428	5
7	101.75	101.0	13.157	1221	6
8	101.63	102.0	7.94	1626	7
6	99.75	97.5	8.103	1596	8
9	98.57	99.0	7.272	1380	9
5	98.44	99.0	12.785	1575	10

Table 4.9 Motivation level of the various schools ranked by mean

The data in table 4.10 show the overall level of motivation for the Fako sample:

Number	Work Motivation	
N	Valid	146
	Mean	101.99
	Median	103.00
	Mode	95
	Std. Deviation	9.723
	Sum	14890

Table 4.10 Overall work motivation for teachers in Fako

Even though the data in table 4.10 show that the opinions of the teachers from all 10 schools revealed an ambivalent feeling ($M= 101.99$, $SD=9.72$) for their overall work motivation, the information in table 4.9 shows that two schools (school 4 $M=107.57$, $SD=4.21$ and school 2 $M=105$, $SD= 11.42$) were able to register scores that were above the ambivalent zone. The data shows that, teachers from these two schools were motivated compared to the overall sample. On the other hand, teachers in school 5 emerged to be the least motivated ($M= 98.44$, $SD=12.78$). Though the scores for school 4 and 5 appear to be outliers, the general perspective as indicated by the mean and median scores for these 10 schools (see table 4. 9) is that teachers from these schools have similar opinions about their work motivation as there exists only a modest difference in the means across the ten schools.

The facet dimension of work motivation

To provide a more nuanced understanding about how teachers in the ten schools responded to the different dimension of work motivation, the means scores and standard deviations were computed and presented in table 4.12. In addition, the overall mean score for each dimension was computed and presented in table 4.11. The

minimum and maximum scores for the facet dimension ranged from 5 to 20. This was possible because each subscale had five items, which were scored on a four point Likert scale. Scores of 5 to 10 are described as low motivation or demotivated, while scores between 15 and 20 as motivated. Between these two categories (demotivated and motivated), scores ranging from 11-14 represent feelings of ambivalence.

Ranks	Work Motivation Sub Scale	Sum	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
1	Altruistic Orientation	2484	17.01	17	2.222
2	Personal Orientation	2364	16.19	16	2.039
3	Professional Orientation	2225	15.25	15	2.861
4	Interpersonal Orientation	2172	14.88	15	2.178
5	Work Convenience	2031	13.91	14	2.274
6	Social and Psychology Security	1919	13.14	13	2.562
7	External Reward	1695	11.61	11	2.341

Table 4.11 Mean scores of the work motivation sub scale

School	Altruistic Orientation		Professional Orientation		Personal Orientation		External Regulation		Social and Psychological		Work Convenience		Interpersonal	
	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev
1	16.94	1.982	15.31	1.448	15.88	2.062	10.63	2.217	13.81	1.759	14.04	1.692	15.38	2.029
2	16.64	2.845	15.64	2.274	16.21	2.966	12.14	2.316	14.71	2.494	14.29	1.729	15.36	1.277
3	17.14	2.445	14.43	2.623	16.14	1.703	11.71	1.978	13.36	2.560	14.07	2.056	15.14	2.214
4	16.93	1.817	16.00	1.109	16.71	1.139	13.29	1.637	14.07	2.093	14.36	2.405	16.21	1.369
5	17.00	2.966	16.13	6.490*	15.44	2.250	11.00	2.477	12.13	2.553	13.00	2.921	13.75	3.109*
6	16.94	2.016	15.19	2.167	16.31	3.029	11.75	2.017	12.00	3.055	13.06	1.982	14.50	1.897
7	16.75	2.768	14.42	2.392	16.42	1.929	12.75	2.864	12.92	2.811	13.92	2.151	14.58	2.539
8	16.94	2.081	15.69	2.056	16.25	2.595	10.81	2.482	12.81	2.810	14.50	2.394	14.63	2.029
9	17.14	1.610	13.64	1.277	16.21	1.528	11.14	2.413	12.86	1.994	13.43	1.989	14.14	1.994
10	17.71	1.858	15.64	1.985	16.50	2.139	11.36	2.134	13.00	2.660	13.57	2.848	15.21	2.259

Table 4.12 The mean and standard deviation of the various dimensions of the work motivation scale for the 10 schools in Fako

The data presented in table 4.11 indicate that teachers within this region are neither motivated nor demotivated as most of the facet scores fell within the ambivalent zone. Although there is a gradual decline in the scores from the highest ranked dimension to the least ranked dimension (altruistic orientation and external rewards), none of the dimensions had a score that indicated demotivation. This suggests that teachers from these schools shared common perceptions about their work motivation. This is also evident in table 4.12, which shows very modest differences in the mean scores along the various dimensions between one school and another.

Generally, the data in table 4.11 shows that teachers within this region were more motivated towards their job for altruistic, personal and professional reasons as the mean scores for these sub scales (altruistic orientation, personal orientation and professional orientation) all inferred motivation. These aspects are dimensions pertaining to intrinsic work motivation and have been factors consistently identified by other research conducted in other Western and African countries to contribute to teachers' work motivation (Barmby 2006, Scott et al 1999, Titanji 1994). In contrast, ambivalent feelings were recorded for the other dimensions (interpersonal orientation, work convenience, social and psychological security and external reward). These are mostly extrinsic factors of work motivation. The findings from these dimensions will be discussed in rank order.

Altruistic orientation

According to table 4.12, this was the most highly scored dimension with a mean score of 17.01. This was the only dimension with a prevalence score of motivation (Means above 15) from teachers in all ten schools. The data in table 4.12 shows that the

opinions held by teachers in this region were very similar as the means within this dimension showed very modest differences among the ten schools. This moderately high work motivation for altruistic reasons suggests that teachers are motivated to pay back to society, and are eager to have a social utility value within their community. Research conducted both in Africa and developed countries point to this facet as a reason why teachers decide to join the profession (Barmby 2006, Scott et al, 1999).

Personal goal orientation

Personal goal orientation was the second highly scored dimension amongst the teachers from the 10 schools (see table 4.11). This dimension also witnessed a prevalent score of motivation among the teachers from the ten schools (a mean range from 15.44 –16.71). This finding suggests that teachers' motivation towards teaching is anchored in their personal goal orientation and desire to be seen as role models, with mastery over what they do.

Professional orientation

Third ranked was professional orientation, with a mean score of 15.25. Unlike the first two ranked dimensions (altruistic and personal goal orientation), two schools reported ambivalent feelings with this dimension (see table 4.11). This finding shows that, although there were some modest disparities in the opinions held by teachers in this region, teachers generally shared a common drive for the acquisition of professional knowledge, and this constituted one of the major aspects of their work motivation.

Interpersonal orientation

The interpersonal dimension produced some discrepancies between schools as teachers from five of them fell within the ambivalent zone (school 5 $M=13.75$, school 6 $M =14.50$, school 7 $M =14.58$, school 8 $M =14.63$ and school 9 $M =14.14$), while the other five were located within the motivated zone (see table 4.11). Globally, the overall mean score for this dimension indicated ambivalent feeling ($M= 14.88$, $SD=2.178$) for teachers in this region (see table 4.12). Though teachers were ambivalent, they were close to being motivated on this dimension as the mean score fell short of the motivated zone by just .22 points. These data might suggest, that though teachers generally enjoy the interpersonal relations they shared with colleagues and students in their schools, the ambivalent finding might be as a result of some specific in-school differences in relations with staffs or student, or be due to the principal's leadership.

Working convenience

With an overall mean score of 13.91, this dimension registered a prevalent ambivalent feeling amongst the teachers from the ten schools (see table 4.12). There was also very little difference in the means, which ranged from 13.00- 14.50 (see table 4.11). This demonstrates that teachers within this region shared similar perceptions about the influence of work convenience on their overall work motivation. This finding shows that this dimension was not perceived as a factor with motivational power, in contrast to altruistic, professional and personal goal orientations.

Social and psychological security

All the schools scored within the ambivalent zone (ranging from Mean =12.00 – Mean = 14.71) on this dimension. The overall mean score for this dimension also revealed the ambivalent feeling expressed by teachers from the ten schools (see table

4.12). This finding suggests that teachers did not perceive this dimension (desire to be loved by children, to be in an authoritative position, and having job security) to be influential on their work motivation.

External Regulation

None of the ten schools found external regulation factors, external influences, material benefits and desire for rewards, to be motivating. It was ranked the least of the seven dimensions of work motivation (see table 4.12). Moreover, table 4.12 shows that two schools scored means representing demotivation (school 1 $M = 10.63$ and school 8 $M = 10.81$) suggesting that teachers from these schools were demotivated with regard to the kind of external rewards available to them. Yet, in general, table 4.11 indicates that teachers from the entire sample were ambivalent about this dimension. The findings here suggest that teachers were not motivated by external gain, validation or gratification from material benefits.

Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation

To answer research questions 1 and 2, “*what is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?*” and “*what is the level of teacher motivation among secondary school teachers?*”, the mean scores, medians and standard deviations of the sample in Fako are presented in table 4.13.

Number	Job Satisfaction	
N	Valid	146
	Mean	89.54
	Median	90.00
	Mode	88
	Std. Deviation	10.918
	Sum	13073
	Work Motivation	
	Mean	101.99
	Median	103.00
	Mode	95
	Std. Deviation	9.723
	Sum	14890

Table 4.13 Teacher's job satisfaction and work motivation in Fako

In order to compare the overall satisfaction of teachers within the two regions and to answer the first research question (though partially, since data from Ndian has to be added), the mean score of overall job satisfaction was computed. The data in table 4.13 show that the $M=89.54$, and the $Md=90.00$, for job satisfaction. The mean score suggested that teachers in this region are neither dissatisfied nor satisfied with their job overall since the mean score falls in the ambivalent range (73- 107).

In addition, the data in table 4.14 provides a nuance understanding of the distribution of the various levels of satisfaction among these teachers. This table shows the distribution (in percentages) of teachers who expressed satisfaction/motivation, dissatisfaction/demotivation and feelings of ambivalent with job satisfaction and motivation.

Job satisfaction	Dissatisfied (Scores 36-72)		Ambivalent (Scores 73-107)		Satisfied (Scores 108-144)	
Valid 146	N	valid %	N	valid %	N	valid %
	8	5.5	130	89.0	8	5.5
Work motivation	Demotivated (Scores 35-70)		Ambivalent (Scores 71-104)		Motivated (Scores 105-140)	
Valid 146	N	%	N	valid %	N	valid %
	-	-	85	58.2	61	41.8

Table 4.14 Job satisfaction and work motivation score distribution

For the satisfaction scale, table 4.14 shows that an even distribution of scores construing dissatisfaction and satisfaction was registered from this sample. It equally shows that only a marginal fraction of these teachers were able to express dissatisfaction or satisfaction. Nonetheless, a vast majority (89.0%) of these teachers expressed feelings of ambivalence.

The data for the work motivation scale shows that majority of these teachers were rather within the ambivalent category (58.2%). In addition, a cross section reported scores that suggests they were motivated. According to the data in table 4.14, no score teachers construing demotivation was reported from this sample.

Moreover, *Research Question 1* permitted some hypothesis testing to be performed, to see if there are any correlations between teachers' age, gender, length of service, academic qualification and rank, and job satisfaction (Cohen et al 2011). In order to determine these relationships, some inferential statistical tests were required. To achieve this aim, the data had to be tested for normality. Unfortunately, the test for normality was negative as indicated on table 4.15. This led to the use of non-

parametric techniques such as Mann-Whitney U Test, which is the equivalent for independent –sample t-test for parametric data, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test. Table 4.15 shows the test for normality for job satisfaction and work motivation data.

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statisti c	df	Sig.	Statisti c	df	Sig.
Total Job Satisfaction	.074	146	.049	.970	146	.003
Total Work Motivation	.079	146	.027	.976	146	.011

Table 4.15 Test for normality for job satisfaction and work motivation

Table 4.15 shows that scores from the statistical test of total job satisfaction and work motivation 0.74, and 0.79 were both significantly non-normal with sig of .049 and 0.27 respectively. An interesting revelation from the data suggested that, the fact that the job satisfaction score was positively skewed revealed that most of the respondent from the entire sample recorded low scores on the scale, while the negatively skewed distribution for work motivation indicated that respondents scored high scores for the scale. This implicitly reveals that teachers from this region were relatively more inclined to being motivated with the job but more inclined to be less satisfied with the job. However, to arrive at such conclusions, the author anticipated that with some inferential statistics, as well as data from the qualitative phase, some plausible conclusions could be reached.

Testing hypotheses

The first hypothesis sought to understand if there were some differences in the job satisfaction scores for teachers' age. The author anticipated that teachers' age would have an effect on their reported levels of job satisfaction. The hypotheses were:

H1: Teachers' age has an effect on teacher job satisfaction,

H0: Teachers' age has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The Kruskal-Wallis Test performed to test this association revealed no statistically significant difference in the four groups (Group 1 n=33:21-30 years, Group 2 n=73: 31-40, Group 3 n=27: 41-50, Group 4 n=11:51-60), $\chi^2 (3 \text{ n}=144) = 6.62, p=0.85$. Accepting the null hypothesis, the results indicated that age group did not have a significant effect on their levels of job satisfaction for this sample.

H2: Teachers' gender has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' gender has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

To test this hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney U Test was performed. This test revealed no significant difference in the job satisfaction level of males ($Md=$, n 79) and females ($Md=$, n=69), $U = 2299, z = -.931, p = .352, r = -.07$. The null hypothesis was accepted as the sig value and effect size showed no significant difference between the two genders.

H3: Teachers' length of service has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' length of service has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The third set of hypotheses sought to investigate if there was a link between teachers' length of teaching and reported levels of job satisfaction. A new variable was computed to reduce the eight groups on which teachers' length of service was initially categorised and measured to four manageable groups for this analysis. This new variable was made up of four groups (group 1: 1-10 years, group 2: 11-20, group 3: 21-30, and group 4:31-36+). The Kruskal-Wallis Test showed that there was a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction levels across the four groups of teachers' length of service (Group 1 n=82: 1-10 years, group 2 n= 48: 11-20, Group 3 n=14: 21-30, Group 4 n= 1:31-36+), $p= .023$ in the job satisfaction score across the four groups. Though group 4 (31-36+) was heavily biased due to its tiny sample size (one person), it had the highest job satisfaction score (see table 4.15).

Kruskal-Wallis Test Ranks			
	Teacher's Years of Teaching	N	Mean Rank
Total Job satisfaction Score	1-10	82	64.97
	11-20	48	85.14
	21-30	14	73.71
	31-36+	1	139.00
	Total	145	

Table 4.16: Teachers' years of teaching against levels of job satisfaction

Table 4.16 shows that the first group, those with up to ten years' experience, reported the lowest mean rank score. The next lowest was for those teachers with 21-30 years of experience while those with 11-20 years' experience were the most satisfied except

for the lone respondent with more than 30 years in service. This finding indicates that teacher' years in service influence level of job satisfaction.

H4: Teachers' academic qualification has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' academic qualification has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The Kruskal-Wallis Test performed to explore this association revealed no statistically significant difference between the eight groups of teachers' qualification $p = 0.482$. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted, as the results indicated that teachers' academic qualification did not have a significant effect on levels of job satisfaction for this sample.

H5: Teachers' rank has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H5: Teachers' rank has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The test performed to explore this association also revealed no statistically significant difference between the eight groups of teachers' qualifications ($p = .196$). This result indicated that teachers' administrative position did not have a significant effect on levels of job satisfaction for this sample. The null hypothesis was accepted as the results failed to show any statistical significance.

To partially answer research questions 3 and 4 (“*what are the factors affecting intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?*” and “*what are the factors affecting extrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?*”), the means, medians and standard deviations of the various

dimensions of job satisfaction and work motivation were computed and are shown in table 4.17, indicating the scores for each dimension.

Number	Construct	Dimension	Mean	Median	St Dev
146	Job Satisfaction	Pay	8.67	8.00	2.047
		Promotion	8.20	8.00	1.964
		Supervision	12.58	13.00	2.181
		Fringe benefits	8.32	8.00	2.063
		Contingent Reward	9.03	9.00	2.285
		Operating Condition	8.58	8.00	1.788
		Co-workers	12.40	12.00	1.888
		Nature of Work	11.83	12.00	2.264
		Communication	11.28	11.00	2.164
	Work Motivation	Altruistic Orientation	16.82	17.00	2.274
		Professional Orientation	15.30	15.00	1.968
		Personal Goal Orientation	16.10	17.00	2.121
		External regulation	11,87	12.00	2.205
		Social and Psychological Security	13.87	14.00	2.325
		Work Convenience	14.33	14.00	2.047
Interpersonal relations	15.40	16.00	1.897		

Table 4.17 The various dimensions of job satisfaction and work motivation

St Dev = Standard Deviation

Table 4.17 shows the various facets of the job satisfaction and work motivation scales. The highest mean and median scores were reported for factors pertaining to the intrinsic dimensions, such as co-workers ($M = 12.40$, $Mdn = 12.00$) and supervision ($M = 12.58$, $Mdn = 13.00$).

On the work motivation scale, the aspects that scored the highest were altruistic orientation ($M = 16.82$, $Mdn = 17.00$), personal goal orientation ($M = 16.10$, $Mdn = 17.00$) and interpersonal relations ($M = 15.40$, $Mdn = 16.00$). This finding shows that teachers from Fako were motivated by their altruistic tendencies and their personal goals as well as their desire to interrelate with colleagues and students. The mean score for professional orientation appeared to suggest a reasonably high level of motivation. All the dimensions for which the highest scores were registered relate to the intrinsic aspects of work.

Open-ended question on job satisfaction

Question 37a invited teachers to describe their overall satisfaction. This open-ended question was transformed and coded into a numerical value in SPSS 21, to enable the author to obtain a general picture of the opinions of teacher in Fako. Responses were sorted and coded to represent three categories (poor, fair/average and good) according to textual content. The reason why responses were collapsed into these categories was to ease presentation and reporting of the various opinions. The first was “poor” and was coded as 1, and accommodated answers such as “very/really dissatisfied”, “very poor”, “very disgruntled”, “not at all satisfied”, “very little” and “below average”. The second code was “fair”, this was given a numeric value of 2, representing answers such as “fairly”, “satisfactory”, “averagely satisfied”, “any % rating = 50% of satisfaction”, “is not good enough”, “is mediocre”, or “moderate”, “not completely”. The third category was described as “good” and was coded 3. This third category had

responses such as “satisfied”, “good enough”, “good”, “very good”, “any % rating above 50% satisfaction”, “above average”, and “encouraging”. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that these three categories do not necessarily reflect a logical progressive arithmetic order nor do they represent an evenly distributed scale from 1 to 3, but only serves as an index of the overall job satisfaction for this study.

The findings from this question enable the author to make some meaningful links between facet-specific reported satisfaction and the general reported satisfaction. These links help to cater for the assumption that some respondents do not judge their satisfaction from a facet approach but rather from an overall perspective, as suggested by Wanous et al (1997). A frequency table (table 4.18) was produced to present the distribution of the various categories within this sample.

This frequency table (table 4.18) presents the number of respondents that reported opinions that inferred one idea (low, average or high satisfaction). The fact that this question (37a) could elicit not more than a single phrase or word describing overall satisfaction facilitated the identification and sorting of opinions. This helped in reducing sources of researcher’s bias in the grouping process of ideas, since respondents’ responses reflected these categories. In addition, this approach retained the original language and value of responses (poor, average and good).

Two main reasons prompted the conversion of responses from the open-ended question. First, the formulation of categories eased visual representation of opinions of satisfaction through a frequency count across the sample. Second, presenting these data in this way seemed sensible for this predominantly quantitative chapter.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	35	24.0	28.9	28.9
	Fair/Average	56	38.4	46.3	75.2
	Good	30	20.5	24.8	100.0
	Total	121	82.9	100.0	
Missing	9	25	17.1		
Total		146	100.0		

Table 4.18 Overall job satisfaction (open-ended question)

The data in table 4.18 indicate that the largest group (46%) of the teachers in Fako did not see their overall job satisfaction in a positive or a negative light. This links to the finding from the previous section, which also suggests that these teachers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, as their reported levels of job satisfaction fall within the ambivalent zone. Also, an almost equal proportion of these teachers fell within dissatisfied and satisfied zones, as reflected by the overall satisfaction descriptions of poor (28.9%) and good (24.8%) respectively.

Despite this representation, which will be discussed by categories, a significant minority (17.1 %) of the sample did not respond this question.

Poor

More than a quarter of teachers (28.9%) expressed overall dissatisfaction. The sources of dissatisfaction were articulated as school level communication, institutional leadership, organisational policies, practices and procedures, heavy paper work, salaries and working conditions. Low salary and poor working conditions were the key elements reported by the majority of the teachers in this category. These extrinsic factors have been cited in other studies conducted in Africa (Adelabu 2005, Akiri and

Ugborugh 2009, Altinyelkin 2010, George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994). The first two comments relate mainly to salary and remuneration:

It is very poor and not encouraging, we have low salaries, poor allowances and I am not very satisfied with the way the government has been solving teachers' problems generally (Male teacher, school 5 FKM)

As far as teaching is concerned I am satisfied but the remuneration is not commensurate to the work done and this makes me very unhappy (Male teacher, school 5 FKM)

The comments below relate mainly to poor working conditions:

I am not very satisfied with the job condition, due to poor payment, and poor collaboration from administrators... and too much paper work they require us to do (Male teacher, school 4 FKBT)

Am dissatisfied... but I enjoy teaching but again the working conditions are very poor and the salary is low (Female teacher, school 2 FKGS)

Despite the heterogeneity of teachers' demographics and career profile, comments on dissatisfaction are similar for both female and male teachers, as well as teachers with or without administrative rank, and relate mostly to extrinsic factors. The following comments, which are mainly related to pay, remuneration and working conditions illustrate these concerns:

The government makes me feel that my job is meaningless and unappreciated considering the benefits and the respect I receive. The benefits and allowance are not sufficient...no reward or encouragement or promotion for hard work. Salary is not

encouraging bearing in mind the African families we have (Male teacher, school 5 FKM)

We are not happy ... we have just a fair salary, poor working conditions and very few benefits. Our pride as teachers no longer exists (Male teacher, school 10 FKGU)

I am not satisfied because of the character of some of the teachers. Poor salary payment offered to part-time teachers. Finally there is a lot of stress in the school since it lacks didactic materials for teachers such as chalks and photocopy machines (Female teacher, school 8 FKXM)

I am not satisfied about my payment as a teacher even though I put all my efforts to work harder for the interest of the school and students at large, not to talk of the lack of facilities to carry out research.

(Female teacher, school 6 FKMD)

Concerns with promotion prospects and teacher management issues were raised within this category. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

As an administrator in a school set up like this one, I feel frustrated knowing that promotion into the next hierarchical level depends on the amount of money you can offer and the connections you have at the ministry of secondary education.

(Male teacher, school 9 FKEK)

Lack of concern from our incompetent administrators... the fact that most teachers use money to gain promotion and become vice principal or principal when they are not competent enough is frustrating

(Male teacher, school 7 FKF)

I am very unsatisfied because things [teacher management issues] are not done the way they should be done...the staff is poorly treated and are not listened to (Female teacher, school 4 FKBT)

Alongside these extrinsic factors, especially teacher management issues, these teachers expressed concerns about intrinsic factors such as recognition, advancement and promotion prospects as well as the appreciation the government or the community showed them. The following comments illustrate these concerns:

I feel so dissatisfied with promotion and the treatment of files. There is a lot of partiality going on and favouritism. Discrimination is the order of the day. There is very little accountability in the system. (Male teacher, school 5 FKM)

I am disgruntled because promotion is not very possible, and advancements are hardly acquired (Male teacher, school 3 FKBM)

Fair/Average

Construed as an ambivalent category, which represented responses like “fairly”, “averagely satisfied”, “any % rating = 50% of satisfaction”, this category appeared to overlap slightly with the dissatisfied category. This is because, although the overall job satisfaction reported by teachers could suggest poor or average satisfaction, similar justifications or comments were provided for the reported overall satisfaction. The following comments below illustrate this observation.

My satisfaction is fairly good, but salaries are not attractive and there is much insecurity from students with misconduct (Female teacher, school 4 FKBT)

It's fair because of poor salary situation, poor working conditions and poor infrastructure and equipment, with just little attention paid to the teaching profession (Male teacher, school 6 FKMD)

The fair satisfaction is due to the fact that teachers are overstressed in the field before they start having their salaries. This is my third year with no salary and I am expected to be happy and efficient (Unidentified teacher, school 1 FK)

Teachers have no fringe benefits.... absence of risk allowance and discrepancies in the index system of Cameroon (Male teacher, school 4 FKBT)

Although similar concerns to those raised in the 'poor' category recurred, the interpersonal relationships teachers shared with students and colleagues emerged as one major intrinsic factor from which they gained satisfaction. The following comments illustrate this point;

My average job satisfaction comes as a result of my relationship with my students and the good environmental location of the school (Female teacher, school 7 FKF)

Fair because, I enjoy teaching but the working conditions are very poor and the salary is low. However I enjoy the respect some of my students give me (Male teacher, school 7 FKF)

Good

Table 4.17 shows that just about a quarter of the sampled teachers (24.8%) provided responses that inferred overall satisfaction. Similar to the poor and average categories, the evaluation of overall satisfaction premised on the consideration of some specific

aspects of the job that rendered them satisfied, or a combination of factors that could trigger a sense of gratification or fulfilment. For these teachers, collegiality, school culture, the love from students, the job itself, leadership, job convenience and recognition were the factors that accounted for this satisfaction.

High levels of satisfaction were linked to interpersonal relations and social acceptance, as the following comments illustrate:

I see my job as a vocation and I have passion for teaching, the recognition I get from the staff and student really gets me going (Male teacher, school 7 FKF)

I feel satisfied generally with my job, regardless of the circumstances that makes the job seem difficult to get the desired result. Students love me and I love them.

I enjoy my job, besides colleagues I work with especially those of my department are competent, friendly and sociable and I get to learn a lot from them. (Male teacher, school 2 FKGS)

The cordial relationship with my boss and colleagues making me feel satisfied with the job. The solidarity and harmony among colleagues is okay (Female teacher, school 5 FKM)

In addition to the interpersonal aspects of the job, teachers cited their passion for teaching, and the pride in being associated with the profession, as sources of satisfaction. The comments below illustrate these opinions:

I very much love teaching as a profession, in spite of the difficulties surrounding the profession especially the economic aspect. I see teaching as a noble profession and I enjoy the love from students and colleagues (Female teacher, school 6 FKMD)

The honour of being the creator of great personalities in the making, and boosting the economy of the nation, makes me very motivated as it equally elevates my social standing (Male teacher, school 4 FKBT)

In addition to these intrinsic factors, some teachers cited certain extrinsic factors as contributors to their satisfaction. These included the head and management team's leadership style, the benefits associated with their job, and school facilities, as shown below:

The fairness of the principal, vice principal and other colleagues to me, the benefits package I get at the end of term. Good communication. Facilities enjoyed in the school...Cordial interactions amongst colleagues (Female teacher, school 1FK)

These comments show that teachers' job satisfaction is multidimensional and that, even though some factors are more influential than others, teachers' individual needs and expectations played an important role when assessing their overall job satisfaction. In addition, other extraneous factors, such as individual characteristics, and the socio-economic, geographical and environmental contexts were also influential.

Open-ended question on work motivation

Similar to question 37a was question 36a from the work motivation section which asked teachers to describe their overall work motivation. The same coding format was used to categorise and represent responses. The first code was 1 which represented "poor" and encompassed answers such as "very/really demotivated/demotivating", "very poor", "discouraging", "very little", "unspeakable" "very bad/bad" and "below average". The second code denoted "fair", with a numeric value of 2, representing answers such as; "fairly motivated/ fairly

encouraging”, “averagely motivated”, “any % rating = 50%”, “is not quite good”, “just sufficient”, or “moderate”, “not completely”. The last category, which was described as “good”, with a numeric code of 3, covered responses such as; “satisfactory”, “good enough”, “good”, “very good”, “any % rating above 50%”, “above average”, and “very encouraging”. Table 4.19 shows the distribution of these various categories within this sample.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	22	15.1	18.0	18.0
	Fair/Average	62	42.5	50.8	68.9
	Good	38	26.0	31.1	100.0
	Total	122	83.6	100.0	
Missin g	9	24	16.4		
Total		146	100.0		

Table 4.19 Overall work motivation open-ended question

The data in table 4.19 show that less than a quarter (18%) of the teachers expressed opinions that construe an overall state of demotivation. According to these teachers, the absence of good working conditions, allowances, just and equitable salaries, fair and just administrative policies, practices and procedures, especially those linked to career advancement, accounted for the overall poor work motivation. These factors, which are extrinsic in nature, were also cited as factors accounting for the poor overall job satisfaction. Moreover, these teachers tend to blame the government for the experienced and expressed low motivation. The following comments illustrate these views:

The teaching profession has very little or no motivation, yet it entails a high degree of commitment and sacrifice. The powers that be take teachers for granted, maybe because of their numerical superiority... and the ways in which the job has been designed by charlatans (Male teacher, school 4 FKBT)

My overall motivation is very poor and discouraging, this can be better explained by hierarchy since those at the top put their interest in a scale of preference first.

The degree of motivation is weak due to the fact that I am not well paid for the services I am doing. It is demotivating because of the poor job description including periodic timetable of the school (Female teacher, school 3 FKBM)

With regards to the second category (fair/average), the data in table 4.19 show that half of the teachers (50.8%) in Fako did not report their overall work motivation in a positive or a negative light. This links to the finding from the earlier section on work motivation, which suggested that the majority of these teachers were neither motivated nor demotivated, as their reported level of work motivation fell within the ambivalent zone of scores. Again, factors such as inadequate resources, poor administrative procedures, policies and practices, and student factors, were recurrent to account for the reported overall work motivation. This is illustrated by the following comments:

I am averagely motivated due to the fact that having the knowledge enables you to fit yourself anywhere in the society, and also keeps you informed to societal happenings, but the salary is discouraging (Male teacher, school10 FKGU)

I am poorly motivated by the rewards that come after the job, but I am highly motivated from the humanistic point of view, especially in helping students.

(Male teacher, school FK)

My job stands as a stepping-stone to other fields even though the togetherness of the staff is strength and this is quite large and the environment is not that bad (Male teacher, school 8 FKXM)

However, more than a quarter of these teachers (31%) were highly motivated, as indicated by their overall work motivation being rated as good. Although some extrinsic factors were provided as reasons accounting for the overall motivation, most of the factors reported within this category were intrinsic in nature. The main factors (intrinsic in nature) were students' success, recognition from students and staff, a chance to grow intellectually, a sense of achievement and responsibility, as well as a sense of altruism. The comments below illustrate these views:

My overall motivation stems from the fact that as an intellectual, knowledge and responsibility is supposed to be our main drive and goal and with this in mind, then one must be motivated to forge ahead on the educational ladder (Male teacher, school 7 FKF)

I have a personal calling to teaching and I am motivated by my ability and possibility to give out knowledge to young minds (Male teacher, school 2 FKGS)

I feel very motivated because each day I see that my professional and academic knowledge are being updated and constant reading has led me to diversify my skills and my students benefit from this knowledge (Male teacher, school 3 FKBM)

The fulfilment I have when students make progress and achieve what they want especially in the GCE exams. When they come to thank me I feel like a mother of the whole public (Male teacher, school 2 FKGS)

The opportunity to contribute to the nation's education, to teach and improve the state of Cameroon in terms of sharing knowledge and information with colleagues and students (Male teacher, school 9 FKEK).

Additional Findings

Given that job satisfaction is a variable that is part of the motivational process, with the ability to reinforce behaviour and motivation of performance (Sergiovanni 1993, Schultz and Teddlie 1989, Gagne 1999, Osttoff 1992), a correlation was deemed necessary to investigate this relationship. Table 4.20 shows the findings of this correlation.

		Total Job satisfaction Score	Total Work Motivation
Spearman's rho	Correlation	1.000	.461**
	Total Job satisfaction Score		
	Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	146	146
	Correlation	.461**	1.000
	Total Work Motivation		
	Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	146	146

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.20 Job satisfaction and work motivation correlations

Table 4.20 suggests a strong positive correlation between job satisfaction and work

motivation; that job satisfaction influences work motivation and that an incremental change in job satisfaction can lead to an incremental change in work motivation. In other words, high levels of job satisfaction can induce more work motivation.

Overview

This chapter presented the main quantitative findings from Fako as captured by the integrated questionnaire, which had Cronbach's reliability of .764 for job satisfaction and .768 for work motivation scales respectively. The findings revealed that, within the sample of 146 participants, there was a general feeling of ambivalence with job satisfaction and work motivation. There were also some modest differences in the level of satisfaction and motivation across the 10 sampled schools.

The facet dimensions of job satisfaction showed that teachers were satisfied with the nature of the job, their co-workers, and the type of supervision they received, while they were dissatisfied with the pay, fringe benefit and promotion. The work motivation scale revealed that teachers were motivated by altruistic, personal and professional drives. However, issues such as social and psychological security, as well as external rewards, were dimensions from which teachers recorded the lowest motivation.

The findings from the open-ended questions reflected the findings from the closed questions, but provided more depth and detail. The next chapter will present quantitative findings from the Ndian region.

CHAPTER FIVE

QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS IN NDIAN

Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings from the survey in the Ndian region. The chapter begins with descriptive statistics of the main sample as well as some basic statistical analysis of the data used to establish the levels of satisfaction and work motivation of teachers within the various schools.

The basic statistical analysis of the data will be presented in three sections. The first section will provide a description of the various levels of satisfaction and work motivation of teachers in the 10 schools. The second section will present the analysis of the different dimensions of their jobs as measured by the integrated questionnaire of job satisfaction and work motivation within these 10 schools. The last section will present statistical operations on the entire sample, such as the Mann Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis H Test, showing whether there are meaningful differences between job satisfaction levels with respect to certain independent variables.

Description of the Ndian Sample

Table 5.1 shows the various schools from which data were collected alongside the number of participants in each school, including gender distribution. Schools were coded to serve for further identification during the second phase of the study.

	School Code	Total No of Teachers	Percentage of Teachers	Gender	
				Male	Female
School 1	NDF	14	11.8	9	5
School 2	NDB	13	10.9	10	3
School 3	NDME	14	11.8	11	3
School 4	NDN	12	10.1	8	4
School 5	NDBM	14	11.8	10	4
School 6	NDM	12	10.1	6	6
School 7	NDO	6	5.0	5	1
School 8	NDEF	11	9.2	6	5
School 9	NDMX	15	12.6	11	4
School 10	NDY	8	6.7	6	2
Total		119	100%	82	37

Table 5.1 Schools involved in the study in Ndian

Table 5.1 shows that none of the 10 schools from which data were collected achieved the intended sample of 16 participants. Two schools were prominent as outliers, with one school (school 9) having 15 participants, while the other (school 7) having just 6 respondents. The rest of the schools had participants ranging between 14 and 11. Gender distribution was in favour of the male teachers with a raw count of 82 against 37 female teachers.

Table 5.2 presents demographic information from the Ndian sample. It outlines a general description of the sample's characteristics in raw numbers and valid percentages.

Location	Characteristics	No	Valid Percentage
Ndian	Gender		
	Male	82	68.9
	Female	37	31.1
	Age		
	21-25	22	18.5
	26-30	39	32.8
	31-35	25	21.0
	36-40	15	12.6
	41-45	10	8.4
	46-50	5	4.2
	51-55	2	1.7
	56-60	1	.8
	Highest Qualification		
	FSLC	00	00
	GCE O/L	3	2.5
	GCE A/L	28	23.5
	CAPIEMP	6	5.0
	DIPES I/BSc/B.Ed	52	43.7
	DIPES II/MSc/MA	14	11.8
	PLEG	16	13.4
	Ph.D.	00	00
	Years of Teaching Experience		
	1-5	69	58.0
6-10	22	18.5	
11-15	20	16.8	
16-20	2	1.7	
21-25	3	2.5?	
26-30	2	1.7	
31-35	1	0.8	
36+	0	00	
Administrative Position			
None	72	60.5	
Head of Department	36	30.3	
Vice/Deputy Principal	11	9.2	

Table 5.2 Sample chareacteristics in Ndian

Globally, out of the 160 questionnaires that were distributed in Ndian, 119 filled questionnaires were successfully retrieved, giving a valid percentage response rate of 74.4%. While an evenly distributed sample in terms of gender was anticipated, the actual participants comprised 82 (68.9%) males and 37 (31.1%) females. This asymmetric gender distribution suggests that male teachers form the greater mass of teachers in Ndian. This might be associated with that fact that most women turn to avoid and move away from disadvantageous rural areas for bigger cities where prospects of jobs and better life may be more accessible. Within this predominantly male sample, the ages ranged across all eight-age range categories. Within these categories, the age range category 26-30 emerged as the largest category accounting for 32.8% of the sample, followed by the 36-40-age category (20.1%). The 26-30-age category followed with 17.4 %, while 11.1% of the teachers fell within the 46-50-age category, 5.6% and 6.9% were within the 21-25 and 51-55 age categories respectively. The smallest group were those aged 56-60, which comprised only one respondent. The age distribution revealed that teachers aged between 25- 45 formed the majority of the teachers within this sample, showing that the teaching force mainly comprises young and middle age teachers.

Among the participants, the GCE A/L certification (1.4%) appeared to be the minimum qualification held by teachers in this sample. A few (2.8%) had the CAPIEMP (Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique d'Instituteurs de l'Enseignement Maternel et Primaire) while the majority (55.6%) were graduates (BSc or equivalent DIPES I (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 1e Grade) holders. Participants with a Master's Degree or its equivalent DIPES II (Diplôme de Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire Général 2e Grade) accounted for almost a

fifth (17.4%) of the sample while almost a quarter (22.9%) were PLEG (Professeur des Lycée d'enseignement Générale) holders, the highest qualified teachers in this sample. This finding indicates that, even though three quarters of the teachers from the sample had obtained some form of professional training, a quarter of them had no formal training. It corroborates the findings of others studies in Africa which suggest that teachers in rural areas are often not properly trained or as qualified teachers as their counterparts in urban cites (Bennell and Mukyanuzi 2005, Mulkeen 2005). It may be argued that this small proportion of untrained and unqualified teachers may have volunteered themselves into the profession in order to make ends meet, or out of love for the profession and to altruistically contribute by teaching subjects or assists in departments that suffer from acute shortage of staffs.

In terms of tenure, the results indicated that teachers who have been teaching for less than six years formed the largest group in the sample (58.0%). There was a steady decline in the number of teachers as years of service increased. Table 5.2 also indicates that more than half of the teachers (60.5%) had no administrative roles, while almost a third (30.3%) were heads of departments (31.0%), and only 9.2% were vice principals.

Job Satisfaction Scale

Using the same score interpretation framework employed in chapter four, The possible scores ranged 36 to 144 while the scores for dissatisfaction and satisfaction ranged from 36 to 72 and 108 to 144 respectively. Between these two categories (low and high scores) is the ambivalent zone, which accommodates scores ranging from 73 to 107. To establish the satisfaction levels of the various schools, as well as that of

the entire sample from Ndian, the mean score, the median, standard deviation and total sum (raw number) were computed (see tables 5.3 and 5.4).

From these tables, it was possible to rank the mean scores of the various schools, from which the 5th ranked school was selected for the qualitative phase of the study, to match the position in Fako. School 10 obtained the fifth position and was regarded as the most typical school in the Ndian sample, to exemplify the characteristics and opinions of the teachers in this region.

Rank	School	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Sum
1 st	4	103.4167	98.50	9.3269	1241
2 nd	6	94.250	92.00	11.6316	1131
3 rd	9	93.866	94.00	6.7703	1408
4 th	8	91.636	93.00	8.3937	1008
5 th	10*	90.125	90.50	3.8335	721
6 th	3	89.928	91.00	3.1977	1259
7 th	5	89.500	89.00	9.5494	1253
8 th	1	88.785	86.50	4.1171	1243
9 th	2	85.615	82.00	11.1619	1113
10 th	7	80.833	80.50	3.8686	485

Table 5.3 The mean scores, median and sums of teachers' job satisfaction across the 10 schools in Ndian

(School * indicates the chosen school for the qualitative phase).

Table 5.3 shows that teachers from the 10 schools were ambivalent about their satisfaction. It shows that the mean and median scores for the teachers in these schools ranged from Mean = 80.833 to Mean = 103.416. Though the data from table

5.3 reveals an ambivalent feeling across the entire sample, school 4 was the only school close to reporting satisfaction ($M = 103.416$).

The mean scores of the rest of the schools followed a progressive and gradual decline from 94.250 to 80.833 construing an ambivalent feeling generally for the respondents.

Table 5.3 shows that, though the mean score for school 4 appeared as an outlier, the differences in satisfaction level across the schools were quite modest. The centralised nature of the system under which these teachers work might account for this modest difference in mean scores. It could also be argued that features of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be shared among teachers who work in similar conditions. The discussion of specific facets of job satisfaction below provides more insight into these issues.

Overall job satisfaction with the facet dimensions

In order to obtain a more descriptive picture of the sample, the overall job satisfaction mean, as well as the mean score and standard deviations of the various facets of job satisfaction for the 10 schools were computed and presented in tables 5.4 and table 5.5 respectively. Table 5.4 shows the mean score for overall job satisfaction of the sample in Ndian.

Number	Job Satisfaction	
N	Valid	119
	Mean	91.2773
	Median	90.00
	Mode	94
	Std. Deviation	9.30548
	Sum	10862.00

Table 5.4 Overall job satisfaction mean in Ndian

According to table 5.4, the overall job satisfaction mean (91.277) for teachers in Ndian indicate that these teachers are neither satisfied not dissatisfied. Table 5.5 provides more insight into teachers' job satisfaction in this region.

School	Pay		Promotion		Supervision		Fringe benefit		Contingent Reward		Operational condition		Co-Workers		Nature of Work		Communication	
	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St. Dev	Mean	St.Dev
1	7.642	1.1507	9.642	.9287	12.071	.8287	7.214	1.2513	8.928	1.4917	9.486	1.2838	11.071	.82874	11.642	.49725	11.142	1.4064
2	6.692	1.3774	7.846	3.3127	12.846	2.375	6.615	1.6602	8.923	2.6287	10.00	1.6832	11.846	1.8639	10.769	1.4806	10.076	2.1000
3	8.285	2.2336	7.571	1.7851	13.357	2.3731	6.714	1.5406	9.214	1.6723	8.571	1.5045	12.500	.75955	10.714	2.9724	13.000	2.7456
4	10.66	2.7080	9.750	1.4847	13.583	1.1645	9.416	1.8319	10.66	2.0597	10.25	2.0943	13.333	.77850	13.583	1.7298	12.166	2.8230
5	8.428	2.5027	9.571	1.9100	11.142	1.7913	7.571	1.9889	8.428	1.6968	8.000	1.3008	13.071	1.6854	12.928	2.2348	10.357	2.0232
6	8.000	2.4120	8.333	2.6400	14.583	1.5050	8.166	1.9462	9.083	2.7455	8.333	2.3484	12.583	1.2401	12.500	1.5667	12.666	1.8257
7	9.500	3.9370	6.166	.98319	12.666	1.8619	8.333	3.0110	8.666	2.8047	7.333	1.5055	9.333	2.4221	9.333	1.5055	9.5000	2.7386
8	9.818	1.6624	9.818	1.7215	11.818	1.9400	8.636	2.2482	9.181	1.7215	9.000	1.9493	11.181	1.8340	11.545	1.1281	10.636	1.5015
9	9.733	2.4043	9.666	2.6636	12.933	2.3135	7.533	1.8073	9.266	2.6040	8.200	1.6124	12.533	1.5055	12.266	2.1536	11.733	1.4864
10	8.000	1.7728	8.375	1.9955	11.250	1.0351	6.125	.83452	8.250	.70711	10.62	1.4078	12.250	1.2817	12.50	1.1952	12.750	2.1213

Table 5.5 Mean and standard deviation of the various facets of job satisfaction scale of the 10 schools in Ndian

St. Dev = Standard Deviation

Explaining the facet scores

For the facet section, the same score interpretation framework used in chapter four was employed. This score interpretation framework had a possible score range from 4 to 16 inferring lowest to highest levels of satisfaction. Scores from 4 to 8 construed dissatisfaction or low satisfaction, while scores between 12 and 16 inferred satisfaction. Between these two categories of scores representing dissatisfaction and satisfaction, were scores (between 8-12) that inferred ambivalent feelings.

Table 5.5 shows the mean score and standard deviations of the 10 schools along the nine facets of job satisfaction. None of the schools reported satisfaction with more than four of the facets of job satisfaction. Rather, ambivalent feelings and dissatisfaction were recorded by the majority of the schools with respect to most of the nine facets. Among these facets, dissatisfaction with fringe benefits and satisfaction with supervision among the schools was prevalent. To obtain a nuanced understanding of the facet dimension of job satisfaction for Ndian teachers, the sum, mean scores and standard deviations of the various facets are presented in table 5.6.

Rank	Job Satisfaction Scale	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1 st	Supervision	1507	12.6639	2.043
2 nd	Co-worker	1443	12.1261	1.6852
3 rd	Nature of work	1414	11.8824	2.0674
4 th	Communication	1354	11.4622	2.2951
5 th	Contingent rewards	1083	9.1008	2.1128
6 th	Operating conditions	1068	8.9748	1.8842
7 th	Promotion	1051	8.8319	2.3007
8 th	Pay	1027	8.6303	2.4351
9 th	Fringe benefits	905	7.605	1.9796

Table 5.6 Ranked mean scores of the facet dimension of job satisfaction in Ndian

Although the general picture from the data presented on table 5.4 shows that teachers in Ndian are ambivalent about their job ($M= 91.277$, $SD=9.30548$), discrepancies were registered towards feelings on various facets of job satisfaction among respondents across the 10 schools as table 5.5 reveals. Furthermore, the ranked levels of satisfaction of these facets across the entire surveyed sample shown in table 5.6 provide insight as to which facets were highly or lowly scored.

In a decreasing order, the data in table 5.6 shows that dissatisfaction or low satisfaction was recorded for operating conditions ($M= 8.974$, $SD= 1.884$), chances of promotion ($M =8.831$, $SD= 2.300$), pay ($M =8.630$, $SD= 2.435$) and fringe benefits ($M =7.605$, $SD= 1.9796$). On the other hand, supervision ($M = 12.663$, $SD= 2.043$) and co-workers ($M= 12.126$, $SD= 1.6852$) were the only two facets for which the respondents expressed satisfaction. The small SD value for the co-workers dimension

indicates that opinions clustered around the mean to a greater extent than the other dimensions. This suggests that these teachers shared a common perspective on the contributory value of this dimension to their job satisfaction.

Ambivalent scores were recorded for the nature of work ($M = 11.882$, $SD = 2.067$), communication ($M = 11.462$, $SD = 2.295$) and contingent rewards ($M = 9.1008$, $SD = 2.112$) from the surveyed teachers in Ndian. The SD values of these dimensions suggest the presence of some modest differences in the opinions of teachers, as these values of 2.06 – 2.29 appear to slightly drift away from the mean score. This finding suggests that, although some differences in opinion may have been present among these teachers, a shared feeling of ambivalence for this dimension was predominant.

Dissatisfaction or low satisfaction was registered for most of the extrinsic aspects of the job. These included the operating conditions ($M = 8.97$, $SD = 1.884$), chances of promotion ($M = 8.831$, $SD = 2.300$), salary ($M = 8.630$, $SD = 2.435$) and the fringe benefits ($M = 7.605$, $SD = 1.979$) they receive in their various schools. These extrinsic factors have consistently been found to account for low levels of job satisfaction in other studies conducted in African countries (George and Mensah 2010, Tanaka 2011, Spear et al 2000, Titanji 1994). This finding will be discussed fully in the next chapter.

Table 5.6 shows that supervision and co-workers were the two facets for which the highest levels of satisfaction were reported. These suggest that the interpersonal relationships teachers shared at work contribute to teachers' emotional and social well-being. The reported scores on these facets would further suggest that teachers enjoy and value the relationships they have with their direct supervisors, co-workers and students. Contrary to satisfaction expressed for the supervisor and co-worker

facets, operating conditions, promotion, pay and fringe benefits were facets that registered dissatisfaction. The dissatisfaction or low satisfaction with most of the extrinsic factors suggests that respondents in Ndian are unhappy with their prospects of promotion, pay, the administrative procedures and practices, and the fringe benefits available to them. These dimensions will be discussed in ranked order.

Supervision

Supervision registered the highest mean score (see table 5.6). Similarly, at the school level, as shown in table 5.5, it emerged as the only facet with a reported level of satisfaction among teachers from seven schools (1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 9). This indicates that teachers generally shared a common experience in the type of supervision they received from their various schools and the support provided by these supervisors. The findings across the schools show that teachers value the interpersonal relationships with their supervisors. However, the views from teachers in three schools (5, 8 and 10) were inclined to be ambivalent towards this dimension. Although there are differences in the mean scores, these are very modest, as the mean scores of the respondents from these three schools ranged from 11.142 – 11.818. These mean scores are close to construed satisfaction ($M \geq 12$). This suggests that teachers within this region are exposed to a similar type of supervision due to the centralised education system.

Co-workers

This facet of job satisfaction was the second highest after supervision (see table 5.6). Table 5.5 shows that teachers from six schools (3, 4, 5, 6, 9 and 10) expressed satisfaction with this facet, while teachers from three schools recorded ambivalent

scores. The scores from this facet suggest a shared opinion prevails among teachers at the 10 schools, as the respective mean scores are only modestly different across the 10 schools (see table 5.5). The finding suggests that teachers within this region generally value collegiality and camaraderie and enjoy the interpersonal relationships they share with one another.

Nature of work sub scale

The mean score of this facet ($M = 11.882$, $SD=2.067$) suggests that the respondents from Ndian have an ambivalent feeling about the nature of their work. However, the data in table 5.5 show some discrepancies among the 10 schools. Opinions expressed on this facet were evenly split with respondents from five schools expressing satisfaction (schools, 4,5,6,9 and 10), while five others expressed ambivalent feelings (schools, 1,2,3,7 and 8).

Despite the general ambivalent feeling on this facet from the entire surveyed sample in Ndian, scores across the schools were relatively close to indicating satisfaction. This finding suggests that, although these teachers shared common perceptions about the nature of their job and enjoyed being teachers, certain in-school factors could account for the disparities recorded. Such factors might include the following: school and class size, subject department, additional duties assigned to some teachers, autonomy of work linked to the head's leadership style or the number of teachers in the school.

Communication sub scale

With a score that construed an ambivalent feeling, as indicated in table 5.6, this facet was the fourth highly scored. Despite the general ambivalent observation across the sample, only teachers from four schools expressed satisfaction with this facet (see table 5.5). The remaining teachers from six schools expressed opinions that inferred ambivalent feelings towards this facet. This finding suggests that the communication system and patterns of communication experienced by teachers within these schools in this region are similar. These shared similarities may be partly because of the highly centralised system of education under which these teachers work.

Contingent rewards

Table 5.6 shows that an ambivalent feeling about this facet was reported from the surveyed sample in Ndian ($M=9.100$ and $SD=2.112$). At the school level, opinions of dissatisfaction and ambivalence were evenly registered. Table 5.5 shows that teachers from schools 1, 2, 5, 7 and 10 expressed dissatisfaction, while teachers from the other five schools expressed feelings of ambivalence. Despite the ambivalent feeling expressed, the degree to which opinions varied across the 10 schools as indicated by the closely related mean scores (8.250 -10. 66) and standard deviations (.70 – 2.8) might suggest that teachers generally don't feel adequately appreciated and rewarded for the job they do.

Operational conditions

The score for this facet across the surveyed sample in Ndian construed dissatisfaction (see table 5.6). Though some discrepancies were observed among teachers from the 10 schools, as indicated by their mean scores on this facet, these differences were very modest (see table 5.5). Teachers from five schools expressed dissatisfaction while those from the remaining five schools expressed an ambivalent feeling. In essence, the mean scores of the five schools that fell within the ambivalent zone were inclined towards dissatisfaction. This finding might suggest that teachers from the sample are not satisfied with the working procedures governing their job.

Promotion sub scale

The mean score for this facet, as indicated in table 5.6, is one of low satisfaction ($M=8.831$, $SD=1.88$). Table 5.5 shows that, as with contingent reward and operating condition facets, this facet had teachers from five schools construing dissatisfaction, and the others from the remaining five expressing feelings of ambivalence. In addition, none of the five schools within the ambivalent scored means above 10. This suggests that views of teachers from these schools were close to dissatisfaction (see table 5.5). The general dissatisfaction across this sample, as reported in table 5.6, suggests that Ndian teachers are not happy about their promotion prospects.

Pay sub scale

The general opinion expressed for this facet as seen in table 5.6 is that of low satisfaction ($M = 8.63$, $SD = 2.43$). However, table 5.5 shows that teachers from four schools (schools 4, 7, 8 and 9) reported ambivalent mean scores for this facet. Despite

this difference, the mean scores for the schools that reported ambivalent feelings were close to dissatisfaction (see table 5.5). This suggests that these respondents perceive that they are not fairly or appropriately paid for the job they do.

Fringe benefits

Fringe benefits was the lowest scored of nine facets of job satisfaction ($M=7.60$, $SD=1.979$). In addition, this facet emerged as the subscale with the highest level of dissatisfaction. Table 5.5 shows that only the teachers in school 4 ($M= 9.416$, $SD=1.831$) reported an ambivalent feeling about this dimension. The other teachers in this sample shared common views about the fringe benefits available to them. Dissatisfaction registered on this dimension among these teachers suggests that teachers' do not perceive themselves to benefit regularly from allowances associated with seniority, assiduity or laureates of service (pension). In addition to these, there is a complete neglect for the provision of life or health insurance for teachers.

Work Motivation Scale

The interpretation of the motivation scale employed the same framework as that in Chapter four. The summation of all-possible high and low scores (4 and 1) could yield a total of 140 and 35 respectively, while the ambivalent zone, accommodated scores between 71 and 104. To obtain the various work motivation levels of each school and the entire sample from Ndian, the mean score, the median, standard deviation and total sum (raw number) were computed as presented in table 5.7. However, unlike the ranking of scores in the job satisfaction scale, the ranking of scores in this section served no specific analytical purpose other than that of identifying which schools had more motivated staff.

Table 5.7 shows the motivation level of teachers at the various schools, ranked by mean.

School	Rank	Mean	Median	St. Dev	Sum of Scores
1	1	108.28	108	3.3149	1516
9	2	107.46	107	6.864	1612
5	3	106.5	105.5	8.0359	1491
10	4	105	106	3.6645	840
2	5	103.69	105	11.04	1348
6	6	103.58	105	11.677	1243
3	7	103	101.5	4.1694	1442
4	8	102.66	101	3.1431	1232
7	9	99.83	98	13.029	599
8	10	96.9	99	10.52	1066

Table 5.7 Motivation level of the various schools ranked by mean

To understand the motivational level of the entire sample, the mean, median and sum are presented in table 5.8.

Number	Work Motivation	
N	Valid	119
	Mean	104.10
	Median	104.00
	Mode	101.00
	Std. Deviation	8.342
	Sum	12389.00

Table 5.8 Overall work motivation for teachers in Ndian

Table 5.8 shows that the surveyed teachers in Ndian expressed an ambivalent feeling towards their work motivation ($M = 104.10$, $SD=8.342$). However, the mean scores suggest that these teachers were closer to reporting motivation than demotivation. The findings at the school level show that, although high motivation scores were registered from teachers in four schools (1, 5, 9 and 10), feelings of ambivalence were

predominant (see table 5.7). Although schools 8 and 1 appeared as outliers, the general perspective as indicated by the mean and median scores for these 10 schools (see table 5.7) is that teachers from these schools generally share similar opinions about their work motivation as there exists only a modest difference from the means across the schools.

The facet dimension of work motivation

To provide a more nuanced understanding about how teachers in the ten schools responded to the different dimension of work motivation, the mean scores and standard deviations were computed (see table 5.9). In addition, the overall mean score for each dimension was computed (see table 5.10). For each of these subscales, the maximum and minimum scores could range from 4-20. For motivation possible scores could start from 15-20, while for demotivation, possible scores could range from 4 – 9. In between these categories are scores (10-14) that construe ambivalent feelings. Tables 5.9 and 5.10 present the data on the various dimensions of teachers’ work motivation for the entire Ndian sample as well as at the school level.

Ranks	Work Motivation Sub Scale	Sum	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
1	Altruistic Sub scale	2132.00	17.916	18.00	1.83921
2	Professional Orientation	1902.00	15.983	16.00	1.89103
3	Personal Orientation	1861.00	15.638	16.00	1.94296
4	Interpersonal Orientation	1812.00	15.226	15.00	1.74393
5	Social and Psychology Security	1663.00	13.974	14.00	2.18416
6	Work Convenience	1561.00	13.117	13.00	2.22153
7	External Reward	1458.00	12.252	12.00	2.51847

Table 5.9 Mean scores of the work motivation sub scale

School	Altruistic Orientation		Professional Orientation		Personal Orientation		External Rewards		Social and Psychological		Work Convenience		Interpersonal	
	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev	Mean	St.Dev
1	19.4286	.9376	17.4286	1.2838	16.7143	1.8156	11.9286	.8287	14.0714	.82887	13.714	.99449	15.0000	.87706
2	17.7692	1.7392	16.1538	1.6756	15.0769	1.8010	13.0769	3.0676	14.000	2.41523	12.538	2.84650	15.0769	1.2557
3	18.357	.92878	14.642	1.5984	16.000	1.7541	11.1429	3.4609	14.357	1.9848	14.214	1.8050	14.285	1.2043
4	17.666	1.4354	14.916	1.6213	16.250	2.3403	11.916	2.5390	13.916	1.2401	12.416	1.5642	15.583	1.0836
5	18.714	1.3259	15.857	1.7913	16.071	1.5915	13.0000	1.7097	14.214	2.6363	13.071	1.6391	15.571	2.7376
6	17.833	1.8006	16.166	1.8504	15.750	1.6025	11.500	3.0000	13.416	3.1176	12.833	3.4067	16.083	2.0207
7	15.666	2.3380	15.000	2.6076	16.000	1.8973	12.666	3.6147	12.166	2.1369	12.000	3.5777	16.333	1.7511
8	15.818	2.6007	13.818	2.2723	15.363	2.6181	11.727	2.0045	13.545	2.6215	12.909	1.8684	13.727	1.4893
9	18.533	1.1872	16.066	1.6676	16.400	1.7237	12.866	2.4456	14.866	2.2318	12.933	2.3135	15.800	1.9712
10	17.250	1.2817	15.500	1.1952	16.000	1.8516	13.000	1.5118	13.875	1.5526	14.125	1.5526	15.250	.46291

Table 5.10 The mean and standard deviations of the various dimensions of the work motivation scale for the 10 schools in Ndian

St. Dev= Standard Deviation

Table 5.9 shows that teachers within this region generally expressed higher motivation for intrinsic aspects of their job than they did for extrinsic dimensions. According to table 5.9, the mean scores ($M \geq 15$) for all the intrinsic dimensions inferred motivation with work. The rest of the extrinsic dimensions, however, registered scores that fell within the ambivalent zone. Despite this distinction, the ambivalent scores were inclined to construe construing motivation as mean scores differed only modestly.

The mean of the altruistic sub scale ($M= 17.916, SD=1.839$) topped the mean ranking of the various dimensions of work motivation, while the external rewards sub scale ($M= 12.252, SD=2.518$) obtained the bottom position. Table 5.10 shows a prevalence of motivation expressed for altruistic orientation, personal orientation, and interpersonal orientations across the sample. Though the overall mean score for professional orientation shown in table 5.9 construes motivation, teachers from two schools expressed mean scores that inferred feelings of ambivalence (see table 5.10). Even though the literature from Africa has mostly cited extrinsic factors, these intrinsic aspects of work motivation have been factors consistently identified by other research conducted in other Western and African countries to contribute to teachers' work motivation (Barmby 2006, Scott et al 1999, Titanji 1994).

The extrinsic dimensions of work motivation, such as work convenience, social and psychological security and external rewards, all registered scores that inferred ambivalent feelings (see table 5.9). Table 5.10 shows that this widespread ambivalent feeling was observed in the 10 schools. These dimensions will be discussed in rank order as presented in table 5.9.

Altruistic orientation

With a mean score of 17.916 ($SD=1.839$), this facet was the most highly scored dimension of work motivation. Table shows the prevalence of motivation from teachers at all ten schools. The data also shows that the opinions held by teachers in this region were very similar as scored means within this dimension showed only a modest difference among the ten schools. This moderately high work motivation for the altruistic sub scale suggests that teachers are motivated to serve society, and are eager to have a social utility value within their community. Drawing on empirical studies conducted both in Africa and developed countries, this dimension has been consistently highlighted to contribute to why teachers decide to join, and to remain in, the profession (Barmby 2006, Scott et al, 1999, Titanji 1994).

Professional orientation

Although two schools expressed mean scores that inferred ambivalent feelings (see table 5.10), the overall mean of this dimension construed motivation ($M=15.983$, $SD=1.891$) as indicated in table 5.9. The means for the two schools with ambivalent scores (school 3, $M=14.642$ and school 4, $M=14.916$) were close to mean scores for motivation. This finding shows that the opinions held by teachers in this region with regards to the professional orientation of teaching are commonly shared. The widespread motivation registered for this dimension could further suggest that teachers in this region find teaching to be a rewarding and stimulating profession.

Personal goal orientation

The personal goal orientation was the third most highly scored ($M=15.638$,

$SD=1.942$) dimension amongst the teachers from the 10 schools (see table 5.9). Likewise, this dimension witnessed a prevalent score of motivation among the teachers from all ten schools (see table 5.10). This finding suggests that teachers' motivation towards teaching hinges on their personal goal orientation and their desire to achieve, or be seen as, role models. The widespread motivation for this dimension further suggests that these teachers believe that the teaching profession could provide them with the chance to inspire and share the knowledge they have for their subjects.

Interpersonal orientation

Although teachers in school 3 and 8 registered mean scores ($M=14.285$, $SD=1.2043$ and $M=13.727$, $SD=1.4899$) that inferred ambivalent feelings, the general observation for this dimension among the surveyed teachers in Ndian suggests motivation ($M=15.00$, $SD=1.743$). Table 5.10 shows that, even though feelings of ambivalence existed, the mean scores of the ten schools differed only slightly and the SD values ranged from less than 1 to 2.737. This finding indicates that these teachers shared common opinions about this dimension of their work motivation. It also suggests that these teachers generally enjoy the positive interpersonal relations they shared with colleagues and students.

Social and psychological security

With an overall mean score of 13.974 and a standard deviation of 2.184, this dimension suggests a prevalent ambivalent feeling amongst the surveyed teachers in Ndian. However, the overall mean score for this dimension was close to reporting motivation (see table 5.9). Table 5.10 suggests that, although the teachers expressed scores that settled within the ambivalent zone, these scores differed only modestly. The teachers did not report this dimension as having a significant influence on their

work motivation. It appears that the desire to be loved by children, or the wish for personal or social security was not perceived to be as motivational as the altruistic or professional orientation.

Working convenience

This dimension also shows a prevalent ambivalent feeling amongst the surveyed teachers in Ndian (see table 5.10). Drawing from the mean scores across the ten schools (showing a range from $M=12.00$ - $M=14.21$), the teachers appeared to share similar perceptions about the contribution of this dimension to their work motivation. This finding shows that, although there exists some modest inclination towards motivation, these teachers did not perceive issues related to work convenience as factors with motivational power.

External Rewards

Ranked at the bottom of the list, with an overall mean score of 12.252 and a standard deviation of 2.518, this dimension also registered a prevalent ambivalent feeling across the sample. The low score for this dimension may suggest that teachers were not attracted to the job for external gain nor did they perceive these factors as motivators.

Job Satisfaction and Work Motivation

To answer research questions 1 and 2, “*what is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?, and ‘what is the level of teacher motivation among secondary school teachers?’*”, the mean scores, medians and standard deviations of the sample in Ndian is presented in table 5.11.

Number	Job Satisfaction		
N	Valid	119	
	Mean	91.2773	
	Median	90.00	
	Mode	94.00	
	Std. Deviation	9.30548	
	Sum	10862.00	
	Work Motivation		
	Mean	104.10	
	Median	104.00	
	Mode	101.00	
	Std. Deviation	8.342	
	Sum	12389.00	

Table 5.11 Mean scores of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in Ndian

Table 5.11 shows that the overall mean scores of job satisfaction and work motivation for the sampled teachers in this region both inferred feelings of ambivalence. However, these teachers had a higher level of work motivation than job satisfaction. These scores suggested that teachers in this region are neither dissatisfied nor satisfied with their job overall but are relatively close to be described as a motivated set of teachers.

Table 5.12 provides a descriptive picture of the levels of job satisfaction and work motivation for teachers in this region. In this table, the total satisfaction and motivation scales were collapsed into three categories. These categories were satisfied or motivated, an ambivalent category, and dissatisfied or demotivated. For the

satisfaction scale, the first column represented teachers with mean scores below 72 (dissatisfied). The second column (ambivalent) ranged from 73-107, while the final column represented mean scores that inferred satisfaction (108 and above). A similar approach was employed for work motivation to represent motivated (105-140), ambivalent (71-104) and demotivated (35-70).

Job satisfaction	Dissatisfied		Ambivalent		Satisfied	
	(Scores 36-72)		(Scores 73-107)		(Scores 108-144)	
N 146	N	%	N	%	N	%
	1	.8	112	94.1	6	5.00
Work motivation	Demotivated		Ambivalent		Motivated	
	(Scores 35-70)		(Scores 71-104)		(Scores 105-140)	
N 146	N	%	N	%	N	%
	-	-	64	53.8	55	46.2

Table 5.12 Job satisfaction and work motivation score distribution

According to table 5.12, only a small number of teachers expressed dissatisfaction (0.8%). However, the majority (94.1%) of the teachers from this sample were ambivalent about their satisfaction as opposed to just 5.0 percent who expressed satisfaction. In contrast, most of the teachers expressed ambivalent feelings on their work motivation (53.8%). Although no score was registered to suggest demotivation, 46.2% of the teachers reported motivation. The table further shows that the level of work motivation is relatively higher than that of job satisfaction. It may be debatable from the findings that teachers are constantly self-reminded of their altruistic orientation to the profession which makes them sustain a reasonable level of motivation regardless of the satisfaction they derive.

Testing hypotheses

Research Question 1 also permitted some hypothesis testing to be performed. The purpose of this hypothesis testing was to investigate if there existed a correlation between job satisfaction and teacher demographics such as age, gender, length of service, academic qualification or rank (Cohen et al 2011).

To carry out these investigations and determine the nature of these relationships, some inferential statistical tests were required. Despite obtaining a normal distribution for the data for this sample, non-parametric techniques such as Mann-Whitney U Test, which is the equivalent for independent –sample t-test for parametric data, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test, were used for consistency.

The first hypothesis sought to understand if there were some differences in the job satisfaction scores for teachers' age. The author anticipated that teachers' age would have an effect on their reported levels of job satisfaction. The hypothesis was;

H1: Teachers' age has an effect on teacher job satisfaction,

H0: Teachers' age has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The Kruskal-Wallis Test performed to test this association revealed no statistically significant difference between the four groups (Group 1 n=61:21-30 years, Group 2 n=40: 31-40, Group 3 n=15: 41-50, Group4 n=3:51-60), $\chi^2 (3 \text{ n}=119) = .262$, $p=0.967$. With a significant value that was above .05, the results of the test equally shows that, based on the satisfaction level registered none of the groups differed. Consequently, the null hypothesis was accepted, indicating that teachers' age group did not have a significant effect on levels of job satisfaction for this sample.

H2: Teachers' gender has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' gender has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

Figure 5.1 shows the box plot of job satisfaction scores for males and females. According to this figure, the median score for female teachers is higher than that of the male teachers.

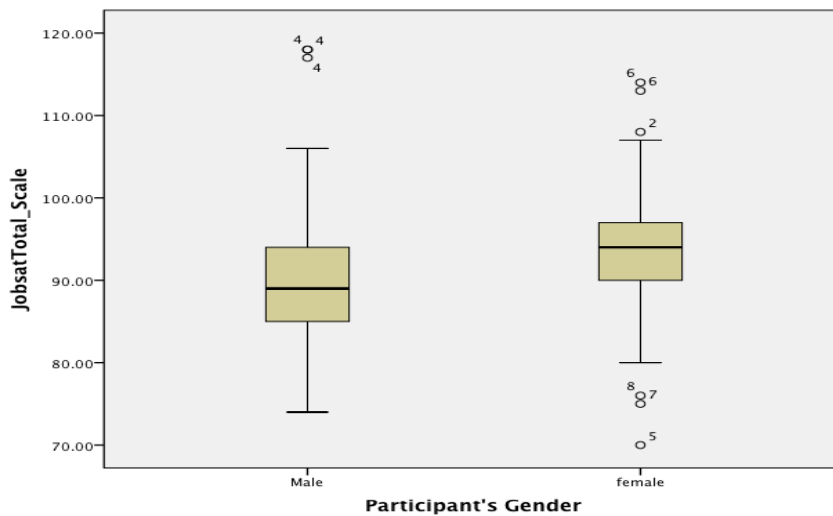


Figure 5.1: Relationship between job satisfaction and teachers' gender

The Mann-Whitney U Test performed revealed a statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction level of males (Md=89.00, n=82) and females (Md=94.00, n=37), $U = 1100.00$, $z = -.2397$, $p = .017$, $r = -0.219$. With a significant p value ($p = .0170$), the null hypothesis was rejected. The significant difference found from this test indicated that there existed some differences in the satisfaction scores for males and females. Moreover, the mean rank for female teachers was higher than that of their male counterparts. Basing on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected. In addition, the z score was less than -1.96 , and according to Pallant (2010) a z score value of this nature will require the null hypothesis to be rejected. This finding suggests that even though the surveyed sample was far from reporting satisfaction, female teachers had

higher levels of job satisfaction than male teachers. This supports other findings conducted in Africa, which suggest that female teachers are more satisfied than their male counterpart (Titanji 1994).

H3: Teachers' length of service has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' length of service has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

In order to establish whether a link existed between teachers' length of service and levels of job satisfaction, a new variable of four groups was computed. This was aimed at reducing the initial eight groups on which teachers' length of service was categorised and measured to a manageable data set. This new variable was made up of four groups (group 1: 1-10 years, group 2: 11-20, group 3: 21-30, and group 4:31-36+). The Kruskal-Wallis Test showed that there was no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction levels across the four groups of teachers' length of service (Group 1 n=91: 1-10 years, group 2 n= 22: 11-20, Group 3 n=5: 21-30, Group 4 n= 1:31-36+), $p = .589$ in the job satisfaction score across the four groups. The null hypothesis was accepted. This finding suggests that teachers' length in service had no effect on the job satisfaction level of the surveyed teachers in this region. This is evident as no difference was registered between the various groups of years of service against which job satisfaction levels were measured.

H4: Teachers' academic qualification has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' academic qualification has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The Kruskal-Wallis Test performed to explore this association revealed no

statistically significant difference between the eight groups of teachers' qualification $p = 0.22$. The null hypothesis was accepted, indicating that teachers' academic qualification did not have a significant effect on levels of job satisfaction for this sample. This finding suggests that teachers shared similar experiences as to what affects their satisfaction irrespective of their academic or professional qualifications.

H5: Teachers' rank has an effect on teacher job satisfaction

H0: Teachers' rank has no effect on teacher job satisfaction

The test performed to explore this association revealed no statistically significant difference between the eight groups of teachers' qualifications ($p = .694$) and job satisfaction scores. This result indicated that teachers' administrative position did not have a significant effect on levels of job satisfaction for this sample. The null hypothesis was accepted as the test failed to show any statistically significant relationship.

To partially answer research questions 3 and 4 (*'what are the factors affecting intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context'?*, and *'what are the factors affecting extrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context'?*), the sums, means, medians and standard deviations of the various dimensions of job satisfaction and work motivation were computed (see table 5.12). The various dimensions of job satisfaction and work motivation are presented in rank order to indicate dimensions that were highly or lowly scored.

№	Construct	Dimension	Sum	Mean	Median	St Dev
11 9	Job Satisfaction	Supervision	1507	12.6639		2.043
		Co-Worker	1443	12.1261		1.6852
		Nature of Work	1414	11.8824		2.0674
		Communication	1345	11.4622		2.2951
		Contingent Rewards	1083	9.1008		2.1128
		Operating conditions	1068	8.9748		1.8842
		Promotion	1051	8.8319		2.3007
		Pay	1027	8.6303		2.4351
		Fringe Benefits	905	7.605		1.9796
	Work Motivation	Altruistic orientation	2132.00	17.916	18.00	1.8392
		Professional orientation	1902.00	15.938	16.00	1.8910
		Personal orientation	1861.00	15.638	16.00	1.9429
		Interpersonal orientation	1812.00	15.226	15.00	1.7439
		Social and psychology security	1663.00	13.974	14.00	2.1841
		Work Convenience	1561.00	13.117	13.00	2.2215
		External rewards	1458.00	12.252	12.00	2.5184

Table 5.12: Dimensions of job satisfaction and work motivation (St Dev = Standard Deviation)

Table 5.12 shows that most of the highly scored dimensions on the job satisfaction and work motivation scales were facets pertaining to intrinsic aspects of teaching. Dimensions that recorded the lowest scores for both phenomena were extrinsic in nature. These finding highlights the motivational value intrinsic factors have, compared to extrinsic factors, in influencing teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation.

The highest mean and median scores for job satisfaction were reported for factors pertaining to aspects of the job that are linked to interpersonal relationships (supervision $M = 12.6639$, $SD = 2.043$ and co-workers $M = 12.1261$ $SD = 1.6852$). The modest difference in the standard deviations for these factors also suggests that

opinions were commonly shared, and scores were close to the mean. This finding suggests that the interpersonal relationships established in schools foster feelings of belonging, which teachers within this region value. A strong interpersonal relationship at work plays an important role in the development of trust, togetherness and positive feeling, which are typical schools in Ndian due to their small sizes.

Relatively higher means were registered for all the intrinsic dimensions of the work motivation scale, as opposed to the extrinsic dimensions. Table 5.12 shows that, the mean scores for the altruistic orientation ($M=16.82$, $SD=1.8392$), professional orientation ($M=15.938$, $SD =1.8910$), personal goal orientation ($M= 16.10$, $SD=1.9429$) and interpersonal relations ($M=15.40$, $SD =1.7439$) all inferred motivation. The relatively small standard deviation values ranging from $SD 1.8$ - $SD 1.9$ for these dimensions, further suggests that opinions were commonly shared across the teachers. This finding could suggest that, regardless of the school size or differentiation issues among schools in this region, intrinsic factors contributed more to teachers' work motivation than any extrinsic factor. These findings generally suggest that, in as much as teachers value the sense of belonging within, and contributing to their communities, they consider the profession to be intrinsically rewarding to provide a sense of fulfilment.

The lowest scores for these scales were registered for extrinsic aspects of the job, especially those related to pay and external benefits. Table 5.12 shows that, for job satisfaction, pay ($M= 8.630$, $SD = 2.435$) and fringe benefits ($M= 7.605$, $SD = 1.979$) were ranked bottom. Similarly, work convenience ($M= 13.117$, $SD = 2.221$) and external rewards ($M= 12.252$, $SD = 2.518$) were the lowest scored dimensions for the

work motivation scale. The range of the standard deviations of these dimensions ($SD = 2. - SD = 1.95$) also suggest that opinions were similar among the teachers. The low scores registered for these extrinsic dimensions could suggest the relatively low perceived motivational value teachers accorded to these factors.

Open-ended Question on Job Satisfaction

In order to present the findings for the open-ended question, three response categories were formulated. These categories were, poor satisfaction, average satisfaction and good satisfaction. The formulation of these categories relied on the same opinion-collapsing and grouping approach used in chapter four. According to this grouping and collapsing framework, the first category “poor” with an assigned code of 1, accommodated answers that inferred dissatisfaction or satisfaction that was below average. The second category, which had a numerical value of 2, represented opinions that construed an average satisfaction. The third category represented opinions that suggested satisfaction or satisfaction that is above average, which was described as “good”.

The findings from this question enable the author to make some meaningful links between the facets reporting satisfaction and the general reported satisfaction. These links help to cater for the assumption that some respondents do not judge their satisfaction from a facet approach but rather from an overall perspective, as suggested by Wanous et al (1997). A frequency table (table 5.13) was produced to see the distribution of the various categories within this sample.

This frequency table presents the number of respondents who reported opinions, which inferred one idea (low, average or high satisfaction). As discussed in chapter four, the sole purpose of this categorisation is to ease the representation of opinions.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	19	16.0	18.8	18.8
	Average	55	46.2	54.5	73.3
	Good	27	22.7	26.7	100.0
	Total	101	84.9	100.0	
Missing	99.00	18	15.1		
Total		119	100.0		

Table 5.13 Overall job satisfaction open-ended question

Table 5.13 shows that the largest group (54%) of the teachers in Ndian were ambivalent about their overall job satisfaction. This ambivalent feeling from the open-ended questions links to the finding from the previous close-ended section. However, a quarter of these teachers expressed overall satisfaction (26.7%) as opposed to the smaller number who expressed overall dissatisfaction (18.8%). This suggests that these teachers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the job overall, as the majority reported opinions that inferred ambivalence. Despite this representation, which will be discussed by categories, a significant minority (15.1 %) of the sample did not provide answers for this question.

Poor

This category represented responses that described overall dissatisfaction. The data in table 5.13 shows that, a small percentage of teachers (18.8%) reported dissatisfaction for the job overall. According to these teachers, factors such as poor working conditions, government policies, school environment, roads leading to schools, security, heavy workload, salaries, students related factors, lack of advancement and promotion accounted for overall dissatisfaction. Regardless of the heterogeneity of teachers' demographics and career profile, comments on dissatisfaction were similar for both female and male teachers as can be noted from the following comments that have been grouped under extrinsic and intrinsic factors.

Extrinsic factors

Several factors provoked dissatisfaction as shown below:

Because of such factors like the meagre salary, poor working conditions and student misbehaviour and nonchalant attitude towards education make me very dissatisfied to teach. (Male teacher, school 3 NDME)

I am not satisfied with the financial and moral motivation I receive, we have very low salaries, and very little allowances and students are not serious at all (Male teacher, school 3 NDME)

My satisfaction is very low; there are poor infrastructures and the insecurity within the environment with low enforcement of discipline. (Female teacher, school 1NDF)

Unfulfilled government promises to teachers, poor teacher deployment and management procedures and policies are equally cited as sources of dissatisfaction as can be seen from the following comments;

I am not satisfied with the job due to so many lapses existing as far as the government is concern and even on the side of the students who are not serious thus making you feel demoralized in doing the job (Female teacher, school 7NDO)

On the part of the government, there is poor salaries, poor working facilities and motivation. Students don't have learning materials like work and textbooks (Male teacher, school 1 NDF)

Stiff handed principal, dubious government, very little chance for career evolution, No advantage of service and overcrowded classrooms make me feel very unwanted in this profession (Male teacher, school 8 NDEF)

Lack of serious concern for teachers in the country, which has been plagued by generalised greed and financial crisis (Male teacher, school 6 NDM)

The government does not provide good job advancement opportunities, plus, no motivating allowance to encourage us.

Male teacher school 5(NDBN)

Intrinsic factors

Although teachers submit deriving pleasure from teaching and the challenges associated with the job, some concerns and dissatisfaction were raised with regards to

additional workload and opportunities to advance their professional knowledge. The following comment illustrates this opinion;

I think I am unsatisfied with what I do. I have too much of paper work, lack of facilities to carry out research. We just live in too much theory without practical work
(Female teacher, school 2(NDB))

Fair/Average

Table 5.13 shows that the majority (54.5%) of the teachers expressed average overall satisfaction with their job. Nonetheless, comments reported for this category, overlapped with those of the poor category. Teachers in this category cited factors such as students' progress, and interpersonal relationships, to account for the limited satisfaction they experienced. In addition, leadership and other school-based factors, such as school procedures and culture, accounted for the average satisfaction. The following comments below illustrate this observation;

My satisfaction is fair because, the environment in which I am working is not nice and some of the colleagues and the administrators are not so friendly making me to be moderately satisfied (Male teacher, school 10 NDY)

The way the principal talk to teachers...excessive classes on Saturday, with too many teaching hours. (Male Maths teacher, school 8NDEF)

Poor nature of classroom, inadequate resources for teaching and finances and the poor relationship between teachers and administrators (Female teacher, school 10 NDY)

The lack of good will from immediate hierarchy. The inability of the government to select quality teachers and the hard economy situation of the country (Male teacher, school 8 NDEF)

Low financial benefit from the government, reluctant to approve and upgrade the teachers' status and nonchalant attitude from students (Female teacher, school 3NDME)

In addition to interpersonal relationships, other intrinsic factors also explained the average level of overall job satisfaction, notably professional orientation, workload, and students' performance. The following comments illustrate these points:

To some extent I am satisfied. I do not have a salary yet but the P.T.A assists me financially. I have established a good working relationship with my students, colleagues and administrators. My professional calling spurs me hard work and satisfaction (Male teacher, school 7 NDO)

I am satisfied as a teacher to an extent. I enjoy the job I do. The only disappointment I have is at the level of performance of the student. Their poor performance sometimes makes me feel I don't do the job well. (Male teacher, school 8 NDEF)

Generally I am not fully satisfied because the workload is too much, lack of staffs and it's time consuming to deal with all the work we have here (Male teacher, school 7(NDO)

As a teacher my satisfaction is when my students understand and succeed in their respective examinations. But I can say I am not really satisfied with the results I have. Students do not read their books, and students' levels do not reflect their class.

Good

More than a quarter of the teachers (26.7%) provided responses that inferred overall satisfaction (see table 5.13). These comments suggest that these teachers derived satisfaction from both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Recognition, respect from society, students' achievements, collegiality, interpersonal relationships, and work convenience, were factors that accounted for satisfaction. Although more attributes provided in this category were intrinsic in nature, the structural nature of the work (work convenience) was an extrinsic factor that was cited to account for satisfaction. The following comment below illustrates this observation:

My general satisfaction is good since all various organs are well structured and the system is dynamic. MINESEC (Ministry Of Secondary Education) is well-structured, long and good holiday time for me to do other things. The annual seminar for upgrading our quality teaching, and the two years gap for category increase. (Male teacher, school 7 NDO)

The majority of the comments raised for this category clearly suggest that teachers value the pastoral nature of their profession as can be seen from the following comments;

I love the children I teach, I like taking care of them, and I enjoy to see them make progress with studies (Female teacher, school 8NDEF)

Teaching being a vocation brings me satisfaction to the mind. I know I am giving my own contributing to the nation building (Male teacher, school 1NDF)

Teaching is very fulfilling especially when on think of the future of the pupils put at your disposal. No rivalry with colleagues, making friends with children and encouraging them and its very satisfying when you meet past successful students (Male teacher, school 6 NDM)

Dealing with youths and their innocence, seeing the future in these youths brings satisfaction. I think teaching and nurturing the young is valuable. (Female teacher, school 4 NDN)

Open-ended Question on work motivation

Question 36a from the work motivation section follows a similar structure to question 37a of the first part of the integrated questionnaire. For the sake of consistency and presentation, the same analysis and coding format used for the job satisfaction open-ended question was applied to categorise and represent responses. The frequency of these categories is presented in table 5.14.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	13	10.9	12.7	12.7
	Average	37	31.1	36.3	49.0
	Good	52	43.7	51.0	100.0
	Total	102	85.7	100.0	
Missing	99.00	17	14.3		
Total		119	100.0		

Table 5.14 Overall work motivation open-ended question

**99.00 represent missing values on SPSS*

Table 5.14 shows that more than half of the teachers (51.0%) in Ndian expressed opinions that construed a positive overall work motivation. However, more than a third of them (36.3%) were averagely motivated, while a small proportion (12.7%) expressed demotivation. The data in table 5.14 shows that the features of motivation expressed in this section closely reflect the number of teachers who reported motivation in the close-ended section. The finding from this frequency table will be discussed using the three categories.

Poor category

Similar factors reported in the job satisfaction section were recurrent in these three categories of responses for work motivation. For example, in the poor motivation category, factors such as incompetent administrators, government policy, poor nature of classrooms, inadequate teaching and learning materials, location of the school, poor relationships between teachers and administrators, insufficient finances, students' behaviour, and many others initially identified from the job satisfaction section, were

recurrent. Some of the extrinsic factors raised centred on low salary, little or no benefits and neglect from the government. The following comments illustrate these views:

I can describe my motivation as not being the best, as teachers are left behind in most of the developmental plans proposed by the government. (Male Teacher, school NDBM)

My motivation here I will say is very poor because what I earn can easily make me leave the job. Lack of benefits like house, lack of advancement in salaries, which cannot be compared to other jobs I see out there. (Male teacher, school 1 NDF)

The motivation is very low as compared to other institution and the fact that I spend a lot on transportation really makes things hard for me. (Female teacher, school 5 NDBM)

Generally, within the school, motivation differs at the level of the principals. Some prove to be very egoistic, thus limiting motivation...lack of understanding and poor communication. (Male teacher, school 5 NDBM)

The way school is managed is really very demotivating at times. The small amount of money we are given which can't cover all my expenses (Male teacher, school 6 NDM)

The government gives low salaries, promotes people who do not merit promotion, and allows people to work in rural areas for many years without transfer. (Female teacher, school 9 NDMX)

Fair/Average Category

Opinions that construed the fair/average category, accounted for over a third (36.3%) of the sampled population (see table 5.14). Representing opinions that reflect a state of ambivalence, comments very similar to those noted in the 'poor 'category were provided. Additional factors such as regional insecurity, and the career profile of teachers, were also identified to account for the reported overall average work motivation. This is illustrated by the following comments:

I am not motivated with the salary and incentives we receive as teachers, taking into consideration that we are working in a deprived area. (Male teacher, school 5 NDBM)

The parents in the school support and respect us. The PTA is really trying to motivate teachers in this school but the school administration really discriminates in sharing this benefits (Male teacher, school 10 NDY)

Students are not respectful, and we receive no benefits from the school. Worst of this is the promotion opportunities. (Female teacher, school 8 NDEF)

Poor routes or transport network, food shortage, high cost of living, risk involved and lack of other facilities that can generate income (Male teacher, school 2NDB)

I love teaching and seeing my students pass their exams, but am just demotivated that here, we are paid equal yet with unequal teaching periods and workload. (Male teacher, school 3NDME)

Good category

The majority of teachers in Ndian (51.0%) expressed good or very good overall motivation. Although some extrinsic factors were provided as reasons accounting for this good overall motivation, intrinsic factors were predominant. The most cited altruistic and intrinsic factors within this category were those centred on sharing knowledge, recognition, responsibility and achievement. The comments below illustrate these views:

The feeling of seeing my students' progress and graduate makes me feel proud and happy. The love from colleagues keeps the environment warm and lively (Male teacher, school 4 NDN)

The fact that I am seen as a helper to these children is motivational. Also, personally, my motivation does not come from material gain and I know if students get to learn then the country can be saved (Female teacher, school 5 NDBM)

The interpersonal relations I share with students, teachers, principal and other administrators encourages me to carry on and continue to give my best (Female teacher, school 4 NDN)

The fact that I am challenged to seek new knowledge and provide guidance to students and some colleagues makes it worthwhile. Students' love and respect and the success they get. (Male teacher, school 7 NDO)

Along side these intrinsic factors, the fact that teachers could receive a regular monthly salary and other additional benefits served as a motivational factor as can be seen from the comment below;

My motivated is driven by the zeal to make things work as well as making ends meet.

My finances are always available and are paid in time. I am still looking forward for more motivation. (Male teacher, school 10 NDY)

Overview

This chapter presents the main quantitative findings from the surveyed teachers in Ndian. It provides a description of the main sample as well as the outcomes of a basic statistical analysis from which levels of work motivation and job satisfaction of teachers within the various schools, and the region, were established. It also presents the ranked mean of the different dimensions the job as measured by the integrated questionnaire, which reveals that supervision and co-workers were the most scored dimensions for the job satisfaction scale and altruistic, professional, personal and interpersonal orientations were the most significant for the work motivation scale.

The findings from the statistical operations on the entire sample, such as the Mann Whintey U Test and Kruskall Wallis H Test, showed that only gender had an influential contribution to level of job satisfaction. Teachers' age, academic qualification, administrative rank or length in service had no influential role on job satisfaction. The last section of the chapter presented findings from open-ended questions from section A and B, which tend to link and the support the findings from the Likert items. The next chapter will present the qualitative findings from the Fako region.

CHAPTER SIX

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS IN FAKO

Introduction

This chapter presents qualitative findings from the case study school in Fako. It presents findings obtained from the thematic analysis of 14 semi-structured interviews and field notes. These data collectively formed the basis on which themes were identified and dichotomously classified.

Data from which themes were derived were collected from the fifth ranked school (FK) among the 10 schools in Fako. The selection of the case study school was based on the mean scores of job satisfaction of these schools. The thirteen teachers (seven males and six females) were drawn from five departments (Mathematics, English, French, Biology and Chemistry), and the principal was also interviewed.

Adhering to the study's aim to investigate the factors that influence teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, themes and sub-themes (highlighting the multidimensional nature of factors that influence these phenomena), derived from deductive and inductive analysis, were grouped under intrinsic and extrinsic themes. The presentation of extrinsic themes precedes intrinsic themes.

Extrinsic themes

This section outlines and presents the extrinsic themes that emerged as factors that accounted for feelings of unhappiness and happiness of job satisfaction and work motivation. These extrinsic themes, alongside sub themes which will now be discussed individually include;

- teachers' salaries
- allowances and benefits
- government policy and system management
- workload and work convenience
- school infrastructure and working conditions
- environmental factors and safety issues
- parents' socio-economic status
- school leadership
- involvement in decision making
- status and professionalism

Generally, the factors from which teachers expressed the highest level of dissatisfaction were extrinsic factors (income, allowances and benefits as well working conditions). Dissatisfaction was based on unmet job expectations from these extrinsic factors, which show consistency with previous findings of studies conducted in Africa and other western countries. These factors will now be discussed individually.

Teachers' salaries

Although salary was collectively recognised as an important motivator and contributor to job satisfaction and motivation, it was perceived to be insufficient. Ten teachers, who reported dissatisfaction with salary, claimed that what they earned was too low. As the comments below suggest, salary was perceived as the most important source of job satisfaction:

It's not satisfying and I don't have satisfaction, because the salary is very poor, we are not well paid and they [government] don't put in enough to compensate for our input, so how they expect us to feel or even get motivated? You can't do a job and not get paid as you are supposed to, no one will, even reverend fathers... they are well paid (Male teacher FK-09)

Teachers can only earn their life from the profession and that is where they have their salaries and it's that salary that takes care of the family, so it's a big motivating aspect at that end, because that is what everybody is looking for to have a living (Principal)

Teachers' dissatisfaction with salaries was based on the perception that their salary could not afford a desirable standard of living and on the social image they desired. Much of their dissatisfaction was linked to the perceived disparity between their input (physical and emotional effort, time and dedication) and output (salary). This was particularly the case for male teachers who claimed salaries were not commensurate with their input and commitment to the profession. However, four teachers reported average satisfaction with salary. Perceived as an average pay package, these teachers claimed that their salary was just enough to sustain basic living standards. The following comments illustrate these points:

The pay is low, and most often the incentives they give at the end of every term are also low and very... very low, so if you are not really into the job you wouldn't put in your all, and this is the only thing that pushes us to work and to love teaching (Female teacher FK-11)

I am not quite satisfied because to me....the salary is not enough for family issues or other desires (Male teacher FK-12)

On a positive note, two female teachers reported satisfaction with salary. This was perceived as an important contributor to job satisfaction, because their monthly salary was perceived to be sufficient, on the grounds that their spouses were mainly responsible for meeting the family's needs. The comment below illustrates this point:

For a woman it's ok because there are things your husband's contribution or salary will provide (Female teacher FK-13)

The comparison of salary between colleagues in different departments of the school, as well as between earnings from other professions with similar qualifications, was a source of dissatisfaction. Teachers' basic salaries were similar, irrespective of the disparities, which existed between their daily hour distribution and workload, and this was also a source of dissatisfaction. Salary comparisons stretched within and across departments, and were cited by six teachers who claimed they were unfairly paid and treated. It was perceived illogical and unjust for them to earn a similar amount of money as their colleagues who had fewer teaching hours and a lesser workload. Similarly, six teachers were dissatisfied that, even though they topped the civil servant classification at Category A2, their salary and financial rewards were very little higher than those below the classification. The comment below illustrates this point:

I am not satisfied with the job...a job that you cannot buy a car, you cannot build a comfortable house for yourself while you see people who are far below you going ahead and doing all of that? Where do they have all the money? ... Yet, you are highly qualified and at the top of the scale, those are the questions that we [teachers] keep asking. So they [government] should also motivate teachers by raising salaries, let it be encouraging (Male teacher FK-09)

Delays in receiving salaries

Two teachers reported dissatisfaction with delays in receiving their salaries. Their frustration was linked to the amount of debt they had accumulated over the waiting period, which lasted between 12 to 22 months. The socioeconomic difficulties these delays imposed on them during the waiting period led to dissatisfaction. Four teachers expressed dissatisfaction with delays in paying allowances and benefits that accompanied salaries. The comment below illustrates these concerns:

I've worked for 22 months without salary, and seriously I had no motivation, I was so frustrated, borrowing from here to there, at one point I was forced to get a loan... I was just working because you need to have your effective service [presence] to show, in order to get your salary. I did not have any zeal or motivation. I'm okay now because I have my normal salary (Female teacher FK-03)

Allowances and benefits

Collectively, teachers felt that allowances allocated to the profession were insufficient and discouraging. Some allowances had been suspended and the teachers criticised the suspension of the family allowance, particularly, which was notionally designed to support married teachers with families. The absence of allowances that were perceived to be relevant to the contextual settings of the profession was also identified as a cause of unhappiness. The comments below illustrate this point:

I would be happy to have the research and housing allowances. My housing allowance is 39,000 frs CFA, but it is very difficult to see an apartment for less than 50,000 frs CFA. The housing allowance in the salary does not reflect what we pay for our housing (Male teacher FK-01)

It [allowances] does not give us that extra motivation or anxiety to work and do more work. Because, if I am a personnel head, and I am not being paid my allowances, how will I be satisfied? I will not be motivated to do the work to completion, if I am due advancement and my advancement doesn't come . . . I will not feel happy and that will reduce my motivation to keep doing the work and reduce my output at the end of the day (Male teacher FK-09)

Comparison of the disparity that existed between the allowances and benefits across different professions of the civil service was also a cause of dissatisfaction. Seven teachers expressed dissatisfaction with allowances that were available to teachers. Their contention was that civil servants in other ministries had better allowances, privileges and benefits that were not available to teachers. Teachers claimed that their profession had the lowest allowance and benefit scheme, compared to government employees in other ministries of the same or lower civil servant rank. The following comment illustrates this concern:

Take for example, somebody of my intellectual equivalence who has a master's (MSc) and is teaching in the university, their research allowance and benefits is not like mine, their chalk allowance is not like mine and they have all other amenities that I don't have why? (Male teacher FK-02)

Findings showed that teachers' participation in the GCE examinations was perceived as a source of satisfaction and motivation, as this was perceived as an aspect of the profession that procured extra financial benefits. Four teachers reported satisfaction with the opportunities to gain extra money serving either as an invigilator, examiner, and chief of centre or superintendent, during national examinations (GCEs). Their participation led to the acquisition of remuneration in the form of out-station

allowances for supervision and stipends for invigilation and marking of examination scripts. The following comment illustrates this point:

My involving in the marking also.....I have job satisfaction from these things, and some of these things motivates me in the field like soon the GCE will be starting, and during the 3 months holidays, I will be marking the GCE ...that is extra money apart from my normal salary (Male teacher FK-01)

Generally, teachers were disgruntled with their perceived allowances and incentives on the grounds that they were insignificant. Chemistry teachers were particularly dissatisfied with the incentive system and claimed their exposure to poisonous chemical during laboratory sessions had health implications that merited extra allowances for risk and hazards. The comment below supports this concern:

I will say that I am not satisfied at that level, because we also understand that each time you handle a chemical unprotected, or even protected, you are exposed to inhalation, you are exposed to contamination, and some of them are so toxic that your life is actually at risk. Take for example they handle PCl_5 (phosphorus Pentachloride), even at the level of GCE practicals, where those children are not protected, it means that we are putting a lot of lives at stake and you know the consequences... who cares?...the pain, on the nervous system is great and I think that it is not satisfying, especially if you are not compensated (Male teacher FK-02)

Government policy and system management

Dissatisfaction with government policies was identified within four main areas of concern. Dissatisfaction was linked with policy formulation and implementation, and centred mainly on teachers' welfare, working circumstances, salary, and promotion. Nine teachers claimed that policy makers did not take into account contextual

variables that shaped teachers' working life, especially with regards to conditions of work, salary and their overall welfare.

Three teachers claimed that the profession was suffering from excessive politicisation. Dissatisfaction was accounted for by the ongoing changes in policy that were perceived to negatively affect teachers' welfare. The lack of government policies that addressed issues teachers perceived to be important was cited as a major cause of dissatisfaction that led to many strike actions. Their dissatisfaction was particularly linked to presidential decrees that were notionally formulated to offer teachers a better status. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

The policies do not favour teachers...the policies that people sit in offices and draft, really makes one dissatisfied...yes they just sit and sign text without even thinking of the implications and what teachers really face in the field. They give priority more to the students than the real people teaching the students, it brings frustrations. Still on policies, if we look at the working conditions, they are mean for an average teacher they are too mean, they need to step up policies that would give us better working conditions (Male teacher FK-06)

The government has promised a lot of allowances to the teachers, which they are complaining that they are not able to meet following the policies of education system of the country (Principal)

It's politic, their language has never changed, it the same... it remains the same " We will ameliorate things, suspend the strike action and resume work for the government will look into your grievances"... but no, since last year when the ad hoc committee submitted its proposals on behalf of the teachers, nothing has been done (Male teacher FK-08)

Six teachers were dissatisfied with the constantly changing policies associated with curriculum, teaching, assessment and promotion. With particular reference to the switch from the *New Pedagogic Approach* (focus on learners' ability on problem solving) to the *Competency-Based Teaching Approach* (focus on developing skills and competences necessary for problem solving), these teachers claimed that these changes caused more confusion and frustration. This was particularly the case for English language and science teachers who criticised the constantly changing text and teaching methods, which they claim were often done without teachers' consent, knowledge and understanding. Two teachers added that these policies led to dissatisfaction with the perceived loss of professional control and voice over their job. Frustration was also linked to the limited time teachers had to familiarise themselves to the policies. The comments below illustrate this concern:

We start a programme today, tomorrow there is a change in that programme and they are calling people who are pedagogic officers and not the teacher who is in the classroom to tell them whether it works or not...how can you change the beer without calling the brewer, then you say you want to change the rank of a beer, then, what do you want to change? (Male teacher FK-12)

Teachers are dissatisfied with the system on many things ... especially when they [government] decide to change the syllabus. I think in mathematics the syllabus has not change, but it has for other subjects. The teachers are not happy because they are not consulted before the syllabus is changed, or even with the amount of time to master what they have to do... even though those who change the syllabus are teachers of higher levels. . . if they want to change the syllabus, they should come to the association of teachers of that subject in the field to ask them what really is

needed. Teachers do not really feel involved when they are trying to solve their problems and that demotivates them (Principal)

Teachers also reported dissatisfaction with the adoption of the promotion guidelines used in the primary schools that discourages teachers from repeating students within a specific level. Situated within a learner-centred philosophy, this policy guiding promotions seeks to encourage the education for all universal objectives. The policy divides primary education into three cycles. These cycles are cycle I (classes one to two), cycle II (classes three and four) and cycle III (classes five and six) and there is automatic promotion within a cycle. Although this automatic promotion provided an opportunity for learners with learning difficulties to be provided with remedial education at the next class within a cycle, its application in secondary schools was contentious. Teachers reported that it undermined the quality of education and was very demotivating to them as well as their students. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

The World Bank has been here and said it is expensive for the government when a student repeats. Presently, in primary school a child can only repeat 2 classes. Yet, students in form 1 cannot read in English, cannot write in English. When he or she is asked to repeat a class, he or she will refuse. In form 1 those that do not know anything will be sent to the next class. This is really frustrating, and I found it very dissatisfying in my first year (Male teacher FK-06)

I am not pleased with the system, we are facing a fall in the standards of education, because of the World Bank policy that encourages massive promotion and destroys excellence. They believe that we should have 100% pass and every child to move to

the next class, which is making the lazy students to become lazier (Female teacher FK-10)

Dissatisfaction was accounted for by lack of involvement of teachers in the development processes for these polices. This was perceived as an act of disparagement on the part of the government, that teachers' rights, requests and petitions were neglected. There was also shared dissatisfaction with the system management procedures, which resonated among all the teachers.

General teacher management

Almost all the teachers condemned at least one aspect of the profession's managerial procedures employed at the regional or ministerial level. Three major areas (accountability, transparency and pace) were identified to have accounted for this dissatisfaction. The bureaucratic nature of the system's managerial and operational procedures that governed the distribution of resources and other managerial functions was perceived to encourage nepotism and corruption. Teachers' concern with low accountability, transparency and the time involved in claiming allowances, and the distribution of resources, were the most cited causes of dissatisfaction and demotivation. This was particularly linked to procedures that dealt with teachers' appointment, deployment, and authorisation of allowances. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

Oh I am a victim, I am a head of department, I control personnel at my own level and at the level of the subject, but since 2007, when that decision was signed,... I haven't received a franc (Male teacher FK-09)

Now it has become a matter of who you know, and it's not encouraging...must you have to pay for a service you deserve? So if you don't have anybody at the Ministry and [don't have] money, you will remain in the classroom (Female teacher FK-10)

All the teachers were dissatisfied that certain schools in the same region had better resources and were given more priority with the distribution of learning resources.

The following comment illustrates this concern:

There is inequity in the distribution of teachers, inequity in the distribution of the learning materials, here in Buea, for example, there is a multimedia centre in Lycee Billingue de Buea, but in BGS, there is none as well as in GHS Buea town. How do you think those children are equally exposed to the learning materials or opportunities? .It is biased .we are in GHS Buea Town where we have classrooms. If you get down to a place like Elumba, there are no classrooms for children to learn in. So how do you think those children are equally rated? The system itself is biased, there are no teachers in places like Bakassi (Male teacher FK-02)

Teacher deployment

Teachers were unhappy with the logistic operations governing their deployment. Dissatisfaction was associated with the system's policies that guided teachers' deployment. Five teachers reported dissatisfaction with the managerial approach and claimed it had repercussions on their workload, teaching quality and overall performance. One teacher reported being very dissatisfied and disenchanted as a result of the inefficient deployment procedures used at the Ministry. His frustration was based on the fact that, as a trained mathematics teacher under the French system, his deployment to an Anglophone school as a mathematics teacher was a total blunder on the part of the system.

This situation was not only challenging to the department as a whole, but also affected students' achievement and limited the teacher's involvement in certain extracurricular activities. Communication challenges were identified as the major causes of these

barriers and challenges. Moreover, in as much as it slowed his pedagogic pace and coverage which eventually drained the morale of the concerned teacher, he faced difficulties with the school administration. The following comment illustrates this concern:

I'm disappointed like I told you, because in my department there is Mr FK-06 , this man is a francophone, and I can tell you he is not happy with the situation which he finds himself in. He was to go to a bilingual school but he was transferred to our school, so he is finding it very difficult to interact with the students...He has difficulties with the students and most at times when he sets exams students always fail and this is also causing him problems with the administration. The main problem he is facing is that of the language barrier . . . He is a good mathematics teacher but the problem he is facing is how to deliver the lecture to the students.

(Male teacher FK-01)

Similarly, dissatisfaction was reported with transfer request rejections, which were based on pertinent issues regarding teachers' social-life and welfare. Two teachers were unhappy that the government neglected their requests for transfer. The financial burden and additional workload (as a result of absences), which they experienced during out station trips to visit their families underpinned their dissatisfaction. The comment below illustrates this point:

They don't treat us well, I am here like this and my family is in Muyuka, I have to pay transport every day, I have asked for transfer and I am tired... I don't have money to bribe. I am finding it very difficult to manage my things properly...I have

to go sometimes without teaching because my child is sick and I can't make it here on time (Male teacher FK-12)

Workload and work convenience

Dissatisfaction with workload was reported by eight teachers who complained about being heavily overloaded. This was particularly an issue for teachers in the chemistry and mathematics departments, who suffered from staff shortage. Teachers reported feeling great exhaustion and excessive stress from their workload, especially with the demands of continuous assessment and the provision of evaluation statistics. Two teachers added that they had to take work back home, which reduced their time on personal matters. However, HoDs did not seem to share the resentment with workload. The comment below illustrates these concerns:

It [amount of workload] is stressful to manage, first it is a dissatisfying factor since the salary is low. So we are still forced to look elsewhere, we have to do other things to have money. So when you are given 20 periods a week, it becomes difficult to do other things to raise income. This makes it dissatisfying (Male teacher FK-06)

In contrast to the majority dissatisfaction with workload, three teachers expressed satisfaction with their workload and the convenience they enjoyed. This was particularly the case for the English department that had 14 teachers as opposed to other departments, such as mathematics or chemistry, which had three main teachers, and relied on biology teachers to ensure their curriculum was covered. Three female teachers also found the general job schedule to be appealing and convenient for their

social and domestic responsibilities (as wives and mothers). The comments below illustrate this point:

The workload especially in my department is not that heavy or [too] much. According to what the text [Ministerial Document on Hour Distribution] states. . . I don't think there is anybody in our department who is up to the prescribed workload ...so I am very satisfied with my workload (Female teacher FK-04)

I feel happy and I know... teaching is good especially for women that are married or have kids, it gives you enough time to take care of your home, husband and children, so this things makes me like the profession (Female teacher FK-11)

The amount of time teachers spent on lesson preparation, delivery and assessment was also identified as contributors to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Three teachers claimed that working hours were very convenient and allowed ample time for other activities. This was a strong motivational factor for all the female teachers and three of their male counterparts who were either HoDs or teachers with not more than 14 teaching hours per week. In addition, four teachers cited the rotational 'one-day off rest' school-based strategy policy that was implemented to ensure that every teacher had a single day per week to be absent from work. Despite this measure to curb fatigue, six teachers still expressed concern about being unable to maintain a good work-life balance. Their challenges centred on the perception that teaching was a challenging job with multiple demands and required continuous work (reading, delivering lessons, marking, grading etc.). The comments below illustrate these points:

As head of department I have fewer periods as compared to other colleagues . . . the text says I am not allowed to teach more than 14 periods at most. So I have less work than the other people.... It's only me who has an advantage of lesser load but the other maths teachers in that department are stressed and over load themselves (Male teacher FK-01)

We try to make sure that we help each other reduce the burden so, in our weekly programmes, we have a day we take off to rest, and I find this very satisfying because your team is there to support you and you gain some breathing space from the work (Female teacher FK-04)

Despite the school's location (in the heart of the city), four teachers identified its distance from their homes as a contributory factor to job dissatisfaction. The further a teacher lived from the school, the lower his/her reported satisfaction and vice versa. Teachers who reported dissatisfaction claimed that daily access to school was inconvenient and caused frustration and demotivation. Their dissatisfaction was linked to the amount of time involved, money spent on transport and their social image (ego). The comments below support these points:

I for one, I stay a far distance from the school. So I find I difficult to get to school a bit early. Even though I have struggled with the government to see if they can move me to a school which is closer to me my house, they said it is not possible, probably I need to follow it up [negotiate financially] (Male teacher FK-01)

As I earlier said I am not very satisfied to be a teacher of that school because I would have loved to be in a school closed to my house.... due to proximity, I would have loved to be in a school near to me because I spend 700 frs CFA every day to get to

school multiplied that by five days a weekI need a place where I could trek to the school and come back (Male teacher FK-12)

Conversely, satisfaction was reported in cases where access to school was convenient with fewer constraints. This was particularly the case for three teachers. The comment below supports this point:

I am also happy because I am able to have a house closer to my job site it's just about 15 minutes walk from here (Male teacher FK-05)

Easy access to the profession

Work convenience also included teachers' perception of the ease of access to the profession of teaching. Perceived as a job with easy entry procedures, two teachers were dissatisfied with the ease and unscrupulous ways with which individuals gained access to the profession. Their contention was that employability had become too easily accessible to the public, especially through unscrupulous negotiations and frauds during teaching entrance exams. These claims are supported by reports suggesting that corruption risks within the education system are high between officials at the Ministry of Education and those at the regional level (Transparency International 2011, UNESCO 2007). They added that, since interest was more on the Matricule than the education of children, the profession was experiencing a gradual decline in its academic value and social prestige. The comment below illustrates this concern:

Why would you not be angry? Today any Jack and Jill who has a relation up there [Ministry] can become a teacher . . . The profession has been degraded and you see those who buy these positions can't even join us to fight for the teachers' rights. We need committed people, I think they [government] need to revise the recruitment policy (Male teacher FK-08)

On the contrary, three teachers were happy and satisfied with the procedures that governed teachers' recruitment and the ease at which the job was accessible. The benefits (financial and non-monetary) associated with the profession underpinned their satisfaction. Two teachers added that, even though teaching was a last resort, their satisfaction with the profession was due to job security and income. The comments below illustrate this point:

I am satisfied because at least at the end of each month I can boast a salary, without that, I don't think I would be happy... the government is doing a great job to provide us with job security Like I mentioned before I have written other concourses and did not make it because I did not have money to follow up, but I wrote ENS once and had it, yes, so I am satisfied to that extent (Female teacher FK-11)

At the beginning, my intention was not teaching because I did S1, which is mathematics, chemistry, biology, and physics which is all the sciences . . . when I entered teaching I knew it was like not a life decision because my interest was to be a medical doctor. So when I wrote the CUSS I did not make it even though I had good points. I stayed home for a year and my parents advised me to write the teaching entrance. Since it was not my choice, I just had to write and I wrote and passed it and I was trained for 3 years and that is how I became a teacher (Male teacher FK-09)

School infrastructure and working conditions

Although opinions varied on the influence of the school's infrastructure on teachers' satisfaction and motivation, the overall working conditions were perceived to be dissatisfying. However, teachers who had previously worked in a rural setting reported that the buildings and working conditions were better than their previous work stations. The comment below illustrates this point:

I am averagely satisfied because I would like to think that working here is a bit better compared to other places where I have worked before, I prefer this, because the school I was teaching in Motobole was in a remote area and nothing will you find interesting about the school or place with no staff room (Female teacher FK-07)

Classroom design and conditions were also cited to cause dissatisfaction and demotivation. Some of the classrooms were built with wood and this posed challenges with sound management issues. Sound pollution was identified by four teachers who claimed that the noise was disruptive to teaching. The comment below illustrates this concern:

Sometimes the work is frustrating because you try your best, but there are always problems. The rooms up there, that have been built with planks, a teacher in one class may have his voice overshadowing the other class, with a different subject here and a different subject there, yes, so that is a problem (Female teacher FK-03)

Descriptions such as poor, appalling, unsupportive and uncondusive were illustrative of seven teachers' negative perceptions of their working conditions. They also reported that the school's infrastructure was inadequate. The absence of a chemistry

laboratory, and an equipped library, were central to the dissatisfaction with infrastructure. The comments below support this concern:

The infrastructure is another problem, we do not have all the facilities to support the teaching of practical subjects, chemistry in particular. We don't have a lab that can assist us to carry out simple experiments.

Our infrastructures are not really the best... we don't have a library, we don't have a comfortable laboratory, we don't have classrooms for teachers to go and teach conveniently, all these factor contribute to it [dissatisfaction] (Principal)

Dissatisfaction with working conditions was associated with the perceived inadequacy of resources relevant for the work and inadequate support, especially for teachers with extra duties. This was an issue for chemistry teachers who felt certain relevant resources were unavailable to enable a conducive working atmosphere. They also mentioned that, despite the crowded nature of classrooms, they were not given enough support to perform their duties to full capacity. Unhappiness was also reported with uncompensated time spent on preparing practical lessons. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

We are in town and yet . . . things are very poor like we are in a remote areas or villages. I am not exaggerating, we don't have a laboratory, the staff toilet was only built last year... so working conditions is still an issue the government should look at (Male teacher FK-08)

We do not have modern amenities in this school and it is really dissatisfying when you compare it with schools around Buea (Female teacher FK-04)

Environmental factors and safety issues

Environmental factors (geographical location, the historical background, and the presence of the university) also played an influential role on teachers' satisfaction and motivation. Twelve out of the fifteen teachers reported satisfaction with one or more environmental factors, while two reported dissatisfaction with the multicultural diversity of the region. Satisfaction was accounted for by three broad themes (geography, access to further education and social-life)

Geographical position

The urban status of Buea, which dates back to colonial periods, as the capital of the German Kamerun (1901-191), and the capital of the former southern Cameroon, was a prestigious aspect of the environment that teachers reported with satisfaction. The strategic positioning within the South West region, based on its economic advantage and the accessible transport network, was a source of satisfaction for five teachers. Satisfaction was also linked with the climate. The comment below illustrates this point:

Even though, I would like to move to Muyuka, working here makes me happy...I love the weather even though it gets rainy some times, but I enjoy it and, you know... we have the supportive environment and it's easy for me to go around, I do business so I find it easy, the place is vibrant compared to other places (Male teacher FK-01)

Access to further education

The availability of the University of Buea, and other professional institutions, in the regions was perceived as an added advantage to teachers in Fako for two reasons. First, the fact that the University of Buea's faculty of education often sent students to

schools on internship programmes to gain experience was perceived as a very supportive venture that helped in reducing teachers' workload. Second, the presence of professional institutions (Pan African Institute, Catholic University etc.) facilitated access to continuous education for teachers. The comments below illustrate this point:

We have students who come here for their internship to also learn the profession and practice and this is a period of relief for us, because, even though we still supervise the work, they do at least its gives us time to catch our breath (Male teacher FK-12)

I am currently doing my Ph.D as well, so it's good to be in an environment that lets you explore other dreams and aspirations... you know you cannot stay on the same spot, you need to make advances even though the chances are slim, ones needs to move and improve (Female teacher FK-11)

Social life

The presence of social groups, ethnic and professional associations were perceived as very strong components of the environment that created satisfaction and long lasting relationships. Even though teachers perceived that the teachers' union did not possess a solid political foundation, their satisfaction was based on the interpersonal relationships they shared. Satisfaction was accounted for by their shared solidarity, and the perceived psychological, moral and financial support these social structures provided. The comment below illustrates these points:

The other things that makes me satisfied is that in the school, and even around in the quarters we socialise, and have events that brings us together, and makes it possible for us to be happy. (Female teacher FK-10)

In spite of the reported gratification from the environment's diverse sociocultural nature, three teachers claimed that this diversity had a negative influence on the Anglo-Saxon culture and consequently on the moral standards of the community. They claimed that the community was experiencing moral decadence and that its effects were detrimental for students' attitude and behaviour. Dissatisfaction was also associated with perceived immorality amongst student. Teachers added that these behaviours lowered students' attention and interest in education and consequently had negative consequences on learning outcomes. The comments below illustrate this concern:

Moral standards are dropping, these students no longer have that respectful culture, we have had many cases of immorality in the schools, and it demotivates one a lot... when you come and you find form ones kissing behind the classroom, and doing funny things around the toilets, it's not good, we don't feel happy about this (Female teacher FK-11)

In addition, the school is surrounded by bushes, a number of uncompleted buildings, and a wide field with multiple functions (football pitch, cattle grazing and other activities), presenting many safety challenges. Also, the absence of a school fence, and the unconfined nature of the school premises facilitated access for intruders who either stole from students or attacked teachers. The comment from the principal supports this point:

There is a lot of insecurity, we have students who have friends in town here who do molest teachers...and we have hooligans around who will try to kidnap and steal pocket money and so on, so those things happen especially in a school with no fence. And when these students go into the bush to go and pee, they (hooligans) think that things will fall off which they can pick... at times students will leave their bags to

play, they will come and search their bags and pick these books to go and sell as second hand books in the market (Principal)

Parents' socio-economic status

Although perceptions of parents' socio-economic status, and its influence on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, were limited, concerns were attributed more to lack of parental involvement. One teacher claimed that, although parents' SES within the region was perceived to reflect an average standard, deficit in their engagement and involvement in the teaching and learning process negatively affected academic achievements and teachers' performance. The comment below supports this point:

We will always blame the economy, I will just say that the economic situation can afford for good education, how much fee do they pay even.... Yes even if we talk of economic difficulty,..it has always been the way it is. But it's normal, you will still see parents rushing for more income, and so they are not there to take care of the children. Yes... you will be surprised that there are children who don't see their parents in a whole week but they sleep in the same house, so civil servants in Buea can't use money as an excuse (Male teacher FK-08)

Leadership

Collectively, teachers expressed satisfaction with the cooperative and professional work ethics of the senior management and administrative team. In particular, the principal's leadership was perceived as a strong motivational factor. Ten teachers expressed satisfaction with the cooperative, supportive and collaborative leadership enacted by the principal and the management team. Perceived as a counsellor, her motherly approach was cited as sources of satisfaction and motivation. Alongside the added financial rewards the principal distributes at the end of each term, she also wrote overt and covert letters of appreciation and encouragement to teachers. Four

teachers stated that the principal's, democratic and open-minded approach were aspects that motivated and encouraged them. The comments below illustrate these points:

The main administrator, my principal, is very cooperative. She is just like a mother, she makes sure when you have a problem in your social life she tries to see you are happy before you get into the classroom to teach (Female teacher FK-10)

We have been receiving verbal motivation from the principal, sometimes she even writes letters of congratulations and signs them, I think I received one yesterday, letter of congratulation for helping the administration and for the academic year (Female teacher FK-04)

Two teachers cited the principal's cooperative and supportive behaviour to have encouraged their inclination to aspire for better teaching competences and intellectual growth. Their satisfaction was linked to the positive feedback and sense of improvement they derived. The comment below illustrates this point:

One thing I love here is that we talk about the way we teach assess and other things...the principal holds meetings with us to explain things and this makes the job easy for us (Female teacher FK-03)

Conversely, two teachers were dissatisfied with the administrative team, and claimed that administrators were rigid and unnecessarily strict. This was particularly the case for two teachers who reported dissatisfaction with the way they were treated and addressed in public. They claimed that some administrators were not as supportive as they expected. Dissatisfaction was also linked with the poor communication styles their superiors employed. The principal explained that teachers' dissatisfaction could

be linked to conflict that arose from poor professional conduct from colleagues. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

I feel the administrator does not really support us, for me the way some of them talk to people is very dissatisfying. Yes, so I would say the leadership approach of some administrators is not professional (Male teacher FK-06)

At times with administration, when I want my documents I go and leave the folder, and I give deadlines, and if the deadlines are not respected, then it doesn't look well on my colleagues and me. So it is not an easy thing everybody is human, at times we get hurt and you can use language that is not professional, but so far we are trying to our best (Principal)

However, one teacher perceived that the leadership team and the principal to have limited influence on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. This perception was linked to the school administrative team being limited to administrative duties designed by the system and had no control over teachers' salary or working conditions, which were perceived as the most crucial motivators. The comment below illustrated this point:

I think that the school administration, they are doing their best, and because they are not directly concerned with what is happening to people [teachers], we should not be looking at them to be our motivation to do our do our job...they have proper education, they use proper encouragement, proper incentives as requested, so that the teachers can be happy, but it's not really them we have to blame (Male teacher FK-02)

Involvement in decision-making

Despite limited evidence about teachers' perceived involvement in decision-making, one teacher's comments suggested satisfaction with this factor. His consultation and participation on issues that affected his department and the learning outcome were elements that were satisfying. According to this teacher, being involved within the hierarchical circle that influenced school operations, as well as making decisions and providing directives that could positively affect the physical, intellectual and emotional working conditions and welfare of his subordinates, led to satisfaction. The comment below illustrates this point:

Other things too make me happy and satisfied, like I mentioned before, I am always looking into ways to help Mr FK-06 , although it is our place to, I feel am being useful...even the administration can not really see into his problems, so the principal is always on my case [requesting me] to intervene and rectify the situation and help...and my position as HoD makes it easy for me too ... so, yes so these little things make you feel valued and important in the job (Male teacher FK-01)

Status and professionalism

The findings revealed that a teacher's personal characteristics played a role in the way they are perceived by colleagues, students and community. These diverse perceptions had implications for teachers' motivation and satisfaction as they affected their self-image and efficacy, and also their colleagues. This was particularly the case for two teachers who were exposed to subtle discrimination based on their genetics and language orientations. The poor social perception and regard for persons with albinism within the region was a demotivating factor, for one teacher. The fact that she was often referred to as "ngengeru" was an aspect her colleagues disapproved and condemned. This negatively affected class management and control, as well as lesson

delivery, which also had consequences on departmental performance. The comment below supports this point:

Yes, I think she didn't like it here in the first year, it was hard for her because students will make her cry and call her names... you know... it's been a long journey for her...you know in Buea sometime in the past they used to use albinos for sacrifice, and the society has stigmatised them (Female teacher FK-07)

Disgruntlement was also mentioned with regard to a French trained mathematics teacher, deployed to teach under the Anglophone system. Dissatisfaction was linked to the language barrier and unavailability of support. This prevented him from social and professional integration with students and the system (Anglophone). The comment below supports this point:

He is not happy, there are times he fills the master sheet...and one he saw that many of the students failed in his subject, so they insulted him and he was not happy with that. (Male teacher FK-01)

Dissatisfaction was reported with the perceived low professional status of teaching, which was described to be unsatisfactory compared to other professions of the same civic ranking. Six teachers claimed the profession had lost public respect, and cited other interconnected factors to be accountable for the perceived low professional status. According to these teachers, poor professionalism, low self-esteem, government's inadequate support, as well as low salary, contributed to the low status. The poor professional conduct and low self-image that certain teachers portrayed in society contributed to their poor public image. Four teachers claimed that most teachers joining the profession are only after money and usually uninterested and disengaged with the actual teaching and learning process. Despite this view, teachers'

salaries were generally perceived to be too low to afford a decent standard of living and this contributed to the perceived low status. The comments below illustrate these points:

Teachers are negatively labeled, we [teachers] are not respected . . . I do not envy people in other professions. I like my job, and I know I am somebody in the community, and even if you are a labourer or a cleaner in the treasury, and once they say they work in the treasury, people will not care to ask the post in the field but will just respect them. They turn to respect journalists, people working for the presidency or where there is money. People think teachers are no body, poor and are stingy
(Female teacher FK-07)

Five teachers claimed that teaching had lost its academic value and prestigious status that it used to enjoy some three decades back. They blamed the bureaucratic nature of the profession and claimed that the politics involved encouraged malpractices from senior officials. They added that the profession was ‘infested with politicians’ (Male teacher FK-05) who were only interested in their personal situation. The comments below support this point:

The status we have is terrible ... if they could give back the teachers’ their status, then I believe it will make the teacher feel important in society. The government does very little to encourage the teaching career. (Female teacher FK-04)

My motivation has dropped, yes...my job has been devalued.... Parents don’t even care, no one does, and the government does not provide enough professional support instead they have turned the profession into some business, too much politics you can’t understand. The profession is now infested with money- seeking teachers, business men and politicians (Male teacher FK-05)

Professionalism

Three teachers reported that they were satisfied working with collaborative colleagues who shared a similar work ethic and managed their portion of work responsibly. The comment below illustrates this point:

I have been working in collaboration with other colleagues who share a similar approach to work and they have been very collaborative. I mean, you feel it, I have always loved to work with people who collaborate with me (Male teacher FK-09)

Conversely, three teachers were concerned with the professional ethics of their colleagues. Dissatisfaction was associated with colleagues who did not act in a professional manner, especially with student-teacher relationships, and personal comportment. Time management and consideration for others were also cited to cause dissatisfaction. Inappropriate behaviours from teachers within and outside the school undermined the profession's public image. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

The thing that demotivates me is that, some of the my colleagues, like we have one here,... she may leave her home, she comes to school quite alright and then she stays in the staff room without going to class without a reason, without a reason. You ask her why she has not gone to class, maybe she would just say Hah! (leave me to relax), ..(Laughs).. But she is in school, but she's not gone to class and her period goes and the students are sitting there idle (Female teacher FK-04)

Intrinsic themes

While both intrinsic and extrinsic factors have been identified as significant, most of the reasons stated to have encouraged teachers to stay longer in the profession are intrinsic in nature. This section will present and discuss intrinsic factors identified from the analysis.

- interpersonal relationships
- school culture
- indigenes' attitude towards education
- student related factors
- teaching orientation
- mastery efficacy and intellectual growth
- career profile, advancement and promotion
- appreciation and recognition

Interpersonal relationships

A collective sense of satisfaction was reported with the interpersonal relationships and camaraderie teachers shared with their colleagues. Satisfaction was linked to the social support these relationships provided. It was evident that teachers' satisfaction was based on healthy interactions they shared with colleagues, administrators, ex-students and current students. These relationships created a friendly interactive environment that encouraged cooperative working relationships that also extended beyond the school.

In addition, satisfaction was based on the perception that they belonged to a community that valued, trusted, and treated them fairly with respect. They claimed

that the interactive and open minded approached encouraged trust and rapport building and made the job less stressful. Teachers also shared close relationships with the principal and this also led to satisfaction and motivation. This was particularly the case for three teachers, who enjoyed the direct contact they shared with the principal. The comments below illustrate these points:

As concerns interaction with my colleagues, that is wonderful, and that is one of the aspects of the job I like very much because they are very friendly, they are very good, even the administrators, they too are very receptive, they encourage us a lot (Male teacher FK-09)

At the level of the interaction with colleagues, that one is fine. I enjoy it because we don't have any problem of any sort, so that makes the working atmosphere very good (Female teacher FK-11)

School culture

Teachers were satisfied with the collaborative work culture that existed in the school. Evidence from field notes and interviews revealed that teachers enjoyed being part of a supportive community that practices collectivism and cooperation. Three teachers added that the professional culture, which focused on openness, good pedagogy, and interpersonal interaction, were aspects that the school principal championed. Her supportive administrative and managerial attitudes encouraged inclusion. Teachers could be seen discussing personal or school related issues. The researcher's field notes also revealed that interactions between teachers, and between teachers and students, were friendly and cordial. The comments below support this point:

I have an understanding principal and most of the administrative staff are supportive, at least they are there when you need their help. They assist you, especially my

principal, she is of the English Literature department so she is very supportive, So I like where I work (Female teacher FK-11)

When you are in a place where people work with their hearts and share with you and inspire you to work well, I think you obviously get motivated. In this school, we work more like a team and the principal does her best to make sure we are treated as one , whether you are new or not, the atmosphere here is cordial (Male teacher FK-08)

Indigenes' attitudes towards education

Although the teachers' perceptions of indigenes' attitude towards education were positive, and suggested that parents valued and acknowledged the importance of providing children with education, their perceived level of involvement and engagement with the school were dissatisfying. Three teachers claimed that economic hardship partly accounted for parents' lack of interest in being actively involved with school issues. Many parents were more likely to pursue their careers and finances rather than invest time to support their child's learning. This posed challenges on how well they supported the learning activities of their children, especially in the completion of students' homework. The comments below illustrate this point:

I will just say that the economic difficulty has led to a fall in income by parents and so they are not there to take care of the children. You will be surprised that there are children who don't see their parents for the whole week but they sleep in the same house. I just sent a child home who said there was nobody at home so the next place she finds anybody around is in school, so the school becomes a hostel. We are having a drop or reduction in participation (Male teacher FK-08)

Most of the parents don't even care for the children, you find students in class with no text books, out of 50 students in a class you will find only two students having the required text books. How do you effectively teach? (Male teacher FK-09)

These students even have very unsupportive parents, some don't even know if they come to school or learn...Parents don't buy text books, and most of these one are always being driven out for school fees ok, so I try to motivate them, recently we called their parents and tried to talk to them, but they don't come so they end up failing and it's very dissatisfying because you feel wasted (Male teacher FK-05)

Student related factors

Teachers' satisfaction and motivation was also influenced by the quality of students (their attitude towards learning and achievement), as well as their behavioural dispositions. Dissatisfaction and satisfaction were linked to student outcomes, attitudes to learning and behavioural issues.

Student outcomes

Student outcomes (academic achievement) were collectively perceived to create a sense of pride and satisfaction for teachers. This was amongst the three most cited factors (salary and interpersonal relationships) that mattered most to them. According to all the teachers, this was the second most motivating factor after salary. Gratification with students' success was based on its indirect association with teachers' positive self-image, self-efficacy and sense of worth. They claimed that student success was a very important indicator of their effectiveness and how well they are perceived as professionals by the public.

Commenting on class progress, all the teachers reported that students' daily performance and overall development was also a potential source of satisfaction and motivation. Ten teachers claimed that this factor was a unique motivating factor that could encourage them to devote more effort and time to the profession, especially when outcomes were favourable. Teachers also claimed that students' academic outcomes affected commitment and that, when outcomes are positive, commitment is higher and vice versa. Their comments suggested that teachers were likely to experience a more positive self-image, pride and commitment when students achieved desirable targets and were well behaved. The comments below illustrate these points:

If you teach a student and, at the end of the day, you find the student passing in your test, at least, no matter how hard hearted you are, it softens your heart, it makes you feel happy with a sense of purpose and belonging. That is one of the things that makes me happy (Female teacher FK-07)

I ask questions of the students on the lesson that has just been taught . . . and the students are able to answer those questions...So you have that satisfaction that at least you have achieved something, it's like you plant corn and you have harvested something and when you give them a test, at least 50 % of the students score a least a pass mark (Female teacher FK-04)

Conversely, they also reported experiencing dissatisfaction and demotivation when student outcomes were unfavourable. Teachers were unhappy that they were held accountable and blamed for poor student achievements. Although much of their dissatisfaction with this factor was attributed to students' attitude towards learning,

teachers blamed the poor support from the government and low parental involvement for the overall performance of the students. The comments below illustrate this point:

When a child fails they line up here saying “Oh why is this child failing these teachers are not teaching well, why is it that the child failed? The teachers are the main actors but there are other stakeholders, the parents did not buy textbooks, they don’t help direct students after school, they don’t help them do assignments, no help to read, look t the report card, help and support the child (Male teacher FK-12)

Those things are not just the teachers’ or government’s fault, also the parents . . . because they are not doing their part of the business. It’s not only on the side of the government, the parents are not doing their own side (Principal)

Students’ attitudes towards education

Teachers’ satisfaction and motivation were also influenced by students’ attitudes towards learning and education. All the teachers asserted that students whose attitude towards learning and education were positive created satisfaction and motivation, and vice versa. They reported experiencing more satisfaction when students are well behaved, more determined to learn and aspire to achieve or succeed. This factor spurred them to work harder as it had the potential to negate the effects of a child’s socioeconomic background. Students with a positive attitude towards learning and education displayed more enthusiasm, motivation and positive behaviours that encouraged learning and teaching and these were also critical to academic success. In addition, twelve teachers claimed that students who demonstrated interest towards learning their subject, and perceived the teachers as role models, created great motivation and satisfaction. The comment below illustrates this point:

They say that a teacher works on a child's mind, that's why they call it a child centred profession. It means that you have that possibility of making people think positively and, if you are building a society for tomorrow who are interested and ready to learn, but it's common now to find those who are not interested in the classroom, and cannot share or understand the beliefs you are trying to circulate through teaching, then we have challenges and our objective to change or impact on the society by educating the people becomes very limited and dissatisfying (Male teacher FK-02)

Dissatisfaction reported with student's lack of interest was associated with lack of parental support and environmental factors. Four teachers also blamed the media for students' loss of interest in education. They contended that students grow in an environment that is proliferated with a lot of social distractions that deviate attention from learning and education, but rather promotes immorality and social denigration. The comments below support these concerns:

I would say what worries me more are the students themselves, most of them don't know what they want and I can say the society is not helping them to redirect them....and the life style most of them want to live is that of a celebrity and, with such mind set, education goes through the window and the school becomes like a hospital with uninterested patients. So, we are not only having a drop in standards, we have a drop in standards of the society (Male teacher FK-08)

I remember children used to have educative programmes, now they watch adult movies even with their parents and these things affect the way they behave in school and how they learn (Female teacher FK-11)

Student discipline

In a similar fashion to students' attitude towards learning and education, all the teachers reported experiencing dissatisfaction and demotivation with student discipline issues, and vice versa. Teachers claimed that dealing with students that were stubborn, insolent, and behaved inappropriately, were the root causes of dissatisfaction and frustration. Dealing with student disciplinary issues was perceived to be stressful and demotivating. In addition, the crowded nature of classrooms rendered the management of student discipline issues psychologically demanding and time consuming. This was particular a major concern for female teachers who all reported dissatisfaction with this factor. The comments below support this point:

All the students are not the same, and not all the students will always satisfy you, you may be lucky to have a batch that is quiet and obedient, another set will give you hypertension. Because some of them being what they are, and looking at our environment, the way students are brought up, they are too loose [carefree character], it makes it very difficult for you to interact with all of them when they are heady, ... they are very stubborn and this makes your work difficult (Female teacher FK-13)

May be you don't know, it can be a headache at times... some of these children are very stubborn and difficult, We have some big truants here too, even though you have a few good one, but you know, we also have to hit hard when they are not portraying the right attitude and we must follow and do what is right to make sure the school is disciplined and calm (Male teacher FK-05)

Teachers collectively expressed a preference to work with students who obeyed school rules and were of good conduct. They claimed that, not only was working with

disobedient students disruptive to learning and learning outcomes, it also had negative implications on the relationship teachers shared with students. Comments also revealed that discipline was more difficult in large classes. The comment below illustrates this point:

Teaching crowded classes is simply a night mare, it's like we have form four, there are like 84 student, and it is extremely difficult to manage the discipline when you are teaching...so teachers need to put in extra energy to ensure that the objectives of their lessons are achieved in that class but no one recognises that (Female teacher FK-03)

The kind of students you have makes your work interesting, when my students are willing to learn and are well behaved, the ones that will do your assignments and even come to you before you ask will always make you happy with the job, not the ones that will give you more headaches than you can carry (Female teacher FK-10)

Teaching orientation

Love for teaching

The love for teaching and imparting knowledge was another factor that was cited by all the teachers. Although four out of the fifteen teachers did not initially perceive teaching as a desirable career, the socioeconomic opportunities teaching provided encouraged their love for the profession. Teaching was perceived as the only job that provided a salary alongside opportunities to learn, helped people to develop intellectually, practice new things, interact and work with young people, and experience an exciting range of different daily events, while making a difference in the community and to the nation. The comment below illustrates these points:

The teaching job itself, the act of teaching, when I teach, I realise some students are really intelligent. If you do not know the subject matter you can teach, they are some smart students that will challenge you..... we try our best to teach and talk to them in a nice way that will enable them to build trust and love for the subject...when I explain in English when some sentences are very difficult for them to understand, I even find myself learning new things (Male teacher FK-05)

Four teachers who were initially reluctant to join the profession claimed their motivation for their job had increased after experiencing the non-financial rewards from interacting with children. Their love for teaching rested on their passion of working with children, patriotic obligation and altruistic orientation. Twelve teachers reported that working with children who were to grow old, and perceive them as role models, and possibly emulate their career path and choice, were key drivers for their motivation. They also stated that their love for the children spurred them to sacrifice extra time to support learning even during weekends.

Seven teachers identified with patriotism and altruism. Their motivation and dedication to teaching were grounded in an obligation to serve and contribute to the development of their community and the nation as a whole. Their assertion was premised on the belief that teachers had to teach effectively irrespective of the conditions. Referring to their predecessors, who taught them even under severe adverse condition, these teachers claimed their patriotic obligation, was a strong motivational drive that instigated them to teach and be accountable for the educational outcomes of the country. They added that their commitment to the profession continued despite their working conditions. They claimed that poor teaching had

severe repercussions for society and the nation at large. The comments below illustrate this point:

I think if I were left on earth to write an exam over and over to become something, I will want to become a teacher again . . . , because I love my country and simply because I always wanted to become a teacher (Male teacher FK-02)

What I find satisfying is the role and part you play in the lives of these children, you see them grow, you see them learn, you will see that gradual growth and development in their academic level. . . . It makes you understand that these children are learning and developing and you are making a valuable contribution to society (Female teacher FK-11)

I know the part which I play counts, so my motivation is the love for my job, the love for my nation, and the human mind that I have (Male teacher FK-08)

Mastery, sense of efficacy and intellectual growth

It was evident from all the interviewed teachers that satisfaction and motivation with teaching was partly explained by their quest for subject mastery, sense of self-efficacy and intellectual growth. Ten teachers reported that they enjoyed the challenging nature of the job, especially where they had to try new and creative things in their classrooms. Teachers reported that despite the limited resources available, their ability to create conditions within their classrooms that were favourable for student attainment, were aspects of their job that gave them satisfaction.

Students' academic achievement and progress were perceived as indications of teachers' performance and success rendered these accomplishments emblems of a strong sense of self-efficacy and intellectual capacity. All eleven teachers who

identified with this point stated they were satisfied with their sense of fulfilment and capability. They added that the aptitude level of some students stimulated their motivation for research and subject mastery, which they enjoyed. The comments below illustrate this point:

I enjoy the fact that each time I need to find new ways to make my lessons interesting, because that is how you capture their interest... and this makes me do loads of background work and research, luckily we have now the allowance for research...I just like that, as they learn I learn too (Female teacher FK-10)

The performance of students makes.... you definitely feel happy and satisfied with what you've done or the efforts you have put in towards their education and their success. It gives me that sense of pride and I am confident, because I produce the goods [good results] (Female teacher FK-11)

Career profile, advancement and promotion

Teachers reported dissatisfaction that, despite notionally possessing the highest qualifications and topping the employment index classification (category A2), they still lacked a career path that commanded respect and advancement. Seven teachers criticised the Ministry of Education for the poorly designed career profile, on the grounds that the profession did not fully support personnel development. Criticisms were expressed against promotion practices that governed principals' appointment. Four teachers, who reported dissatisfaction with this issue, claimed that promotions were neither based on seniority or longevity but rather through unscrupulous means and private negotiations. The comments below illustrate this concern:

I have been here since I got into teaching, and I am still in the classroom... how do we feel? What job is that? What is even demotivating is when you see, for example,

all appointments are done in Yaoundé and us doing the job, we don' t have that recognition (Female teacher FK-04)

It's unfair...you are working with the government you never change ...it [promotion] should be automatic. They [government] say things that conditions should change after 2 years...you need to be stepped up. But when you have this advancement you need to go to Yaoundé pay people to go, whereas you deserve it, and you find it difficult to have it [promotion]. You pay people to have it and it's difficult to move forward. We find it very difficult (Male teacher FK-01)

The absence of alternative job roles other than ranks like counsellors, HoDs, discipline masters, vice principals and principals were identified as a cause of dissatisfaction. These limited opportunities also attracted unethical behaviours within the system (bribery and corruption) as competition for these positions constantly increased. The prevalence of bribery and corruption in Cameroon is a phenomenon that has received considerable attention (Ndangam 2006, UNESCO 2007). This generally caused dissatisfaction for teachers who couldn't afford to bribe for such positions or who were disadvantaged by these acts of bribery and corruption.

Further claims of dissatisfaction were also based on the comparison of certain professions that were perceived to possess more favourable professional advancement, alternative career options, and better promotion prospects. This was the case with professions such as the police and armed forces, which teachers claimed had better career profiles and enjoyed multiple promotions. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

Looks at other professions...they are fine, before they [government] said, after 10 years you can become this but now people just come and are made principals and so

on so they don't follow what they said, you can teach for 35 years and go on retirement in a classroom. (Female teacher FK-03)

The job doesn't really inspire one, we don't move, no development and so even the few spaces for VPs and principals, you see people to go out there to buy appointments to become HoDs, VP, and principals, whereas these things are supposed to be looking at longevity , age, but these days, everyone needs some form of advancement (Female teacher FK-11)

However, two teachers were satisfied with their advancement and promotion prospects. Their satisfaction with career advancement was premised on the financial benefits and respect that teachers with such official ranks benefited from. The comment below supports this point:

Secondly, the honor they give me as HOD, I need to move round to see what the other teachers are doing . . . Also I have an allowance every month of 9,000 frs. Beside that, the incentive the principal gives at the end of each term is slightly higher than others. So, with that, it will give me some advantage more than others and [makes me] happier than others (Male teacher FK-01)

Dissatisfaction with the unavailability of opportunities for continuous learning was another aspect that four teachers identified. With descriptions like 'dead-end profession' and 'stagnant profession', teaching was perceived as a career that did not offer a meaningful range of growth opportunities for teachers. The comment below supports this concern:

I had to quickly get a job because I thought I will have the possibility for further education which I failed to realise teaching was not going to help... this makes me dissatisfied with the job (Male teacher FK-09)

Appreciation and recognition

Another important category of factors that influenced satisfaction and motivation were non-monetary rewards. Verbal and non-verbal appreciations, alongside public or private recognition teachers received from colleagues, students, parents and the community, for duties well done were of high motivational value. Three teachers reported experiencing great satisfaction when being appreciated by their former and current students. They added satisfaction was at its highest level when recognition came directly from the principal or a member of the community. This was often preceded by outstanding student achievements. The following comments illustrate these points:

I love it when I teach and students pass, they see you on the road and they are happy passing their GCE with A grades, that makes me very happy and that also motivates me to teach more (Female teacher FK-11)

I have taught for 9 years and students recognised and greeted me. I was happy because of the recognition and this is just like a motivation to me, it's not just the money (Male teacher FK-05)

However, the perceived absence of appreciation and recognition was a source of dissatisfaction and demotivation for nine teachers who claimed they received little or no recognition. This was also exacerbated by the fact that certain professions which benefited from public recognition, such as the military, were used as a basis of comparison. Ten teachers perceived that the government paid little attention to their profession and did not recognise them as a part of the workforce necessary to achieve better educational standards, as well as the nation's developmental objectives for 2035. The comments below illustrate these concerns:

The worst part of it all is that we [teachers] are not given the respect that we deserve. I cannot see any profession that does not go through a teacher yet we are the last in the society....we are blamed for everything, [including] poor GCE results. I don't feel lower than anybody for anything because I know I am somebody in the society and I am sure of my contributions. The government and society need to respect us for what we do (Female teacher FK-11)

It's really disappointing that we don't get the same public recognition as other professions. The head of state's emerging Cameroon by 2035 policy cannot be realized if teachers are not given that recognition and making the teachers comfortable in all aspects of their professional life (Female teacher FK-13)

Overview

This chapter presents the qualitative findings from the case study school in Fako. It reveals that intrinsic and extrinsic factors together influence teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. The findings show that salary, allowances and working conditions were among the most cited extrinsic factors that negatively affected teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. Other extrinsic factors, such as government policies and school management, were also identified to contribute to positive or negative job satisfaction and work motivation.

The absence of job alternatives in the profession, coupled with limited opportunities for advancement and promotion, inadequate salaries, unprecedented policy changes, and unattractive and insufficient allowances, are among the factors that demotivate teachers and cause dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction with financial rewards (salary and allowances) and working conditions are linked to the complex interplay of other

interacting factors such as the economic situation and teachers' comparison of the working conditions available in other professions.

Teachers are satisfied with their perceived professional capability and are pleased with their ability to create classroom conditions that encouraged learning and long lasting relationships with peers and students. Students' academic outcomes are also a strong motivator as this enhanced teachers' perceived self-efficacy and mastery, which led to recognition and appreciation. Alongside the sense of accomplishment and pride, arising from students' success, the ability to impart knowledge and contribute in the development of the society are satisfiers for teachers. In addition, the principal's leadership is one of the main extrinsic factors producing satisfaction.

The four most highly cited intrinsic themes that emerge from the findings are the quality of the interpersonal relations teachers shared with colleagues and students, appreciation and recognition, students' academic performance and teachers' orientation towards teaching. However, lack of opportunities for advancement or promotion provoke dissatisfaction, and have implications for the wellbeing of teachers. The findings generally show that teachers' satisfaction and motivation are influenced strongly by salary and working conditions, the quality of relationships, and their sense of achievement and recognition. The next chapter will discuss the findings from the Ndiian case study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS IN NDIAN

Introduction

This chapter presents qualitative findings from the case study school in Ndian. It presents findings obtained from the thematic analysis of 12 semi-structured interviews and field notes. These data collectively formed the basis on which themes were identified and classified.

Underpinning the research design described in chapter three, the case study school, from which data were collected, was the fifth ranked school (NDY) among the 10 schools. The ranking was based on the mean scores of job satisfaction of these schools. The twelve teachers (nine males and three females) were drawn from five departments (Mathematics, English, French, Biology and Chemistry), and the principal was also interviewed.

Adhering to the study's aim to investigate the factors that influence teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, themes and sub-themes (highlighting the multidimensional nature of factors that influence these phenomena), derived from deductive and inductive analysis, were grouped under intrinsic and extrinsic themes. The chapter begins by discussing the extrinsic themes.

Extrinsic themes

The thematic analysis indicated that some extrinsic factors of job satisfaction and work motivation caused satisfaction and dissatisfaction to teachers. These extrinsic themes, to be discussed in this section, are:

- teachers' salaries
- allowance and benefits

- government policy
- system management
- workload and work convenience
- school infrastructure and working conditions
- environmental factors and safety issues
- parents' socio-economic status
- school leadership
- involvement in decision making
- Most of these extrinsic factors have been consistently identified to have an impact on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Akiri and Ugborughb 2009, Altinyelkin 2010, Chireshe and Shumba 2011).

Teachers' salaries

Reports from all the teachers revealed dissatisfaction with their pay. Teachers considered themselves to be seriously underpaid. Descriptions such as “chicken change”, “very poor salary”, “chicken feed” and “ground nut money”, illustrated teachers' dissatisfaction with their salary. The effects of low salary have marred the socioeconomic status and professional status of teachers, as well as their social wellbeing. These effects are particularly severe within this region as a result of the poor transport network system, which exacerbates the cost of transportation and basic commodities. The comments below illustrate this concern:

Wish I had all day to talk about this. Yes salary is really low, I mean low and discouraging. I think in remote areas there should be extra motivation. The problem here is that it is not that teachers don't like to teach but the environment is difficult,

and the salary is not encouraging enough. For me, I think financial motivation is the greatest, with money you can eat anything you want, do anything want, buy anything you want (Female teacher NDY-10).

You know in Africa, when you are classified as a working class, peoples' expectations are high and they start looking up to help, but with the meagre salary, which I cannot even take care of my needs, how do I support these people? It becomes really uncomfortable, this makes your people to think you are stingy and some will even term you the beggar element. This is getting really irritating because we don't have to be regarded so low (Male teacher NDY-8).

The comparison of salary against other civil servants, with equivalent qualifications in different sectors, also caused dissatisfaction among teachers. Eight teachers were convinced their profession was the least paid public services in the country and anticipated searching for better-paid jobs if salary conditions did not change. This was a serious problem for ECIs (newly qualified teachers with no government salary) whose pay package was almost six times lower than the regular government teacher's salary. Their dissatisfaction was based on the absence of a salary for ECIs as opposed to colleagues who received full pay. Although the government pays the arrears it owes when teachers finally get on the payroll, its consequences were perceived to be negative. The comment below illustrates these points:

I like the teaching job but the money we get out of it makes it frustrating for one to do anything useful. We can't buy a car, build a house or even afford good things that you like, what kind of job is that?especially when you are putting in your all and the money you get at the end of the day doesn't motivate you. you see someone who does very little work and at the end of the month they have a bigger salary than you....

I feel like they are insulting me...because my colleagues have their salary and we are still waiting, (Male teacher NDY-7)

Dissatisfaction with low pay also undermined teachers' commitment, and increased absenteeism and lateness, as the comment below illustrates:

You would find signs of dissatisfaction time and again... sometime I wonder why they come to teach when they don't feel ready and committed to you. You will see a teacher who walks in a class and sleeps or tell stories of his life and you begin to wonder whether such a teacher is for real or just something I don't know... those whose body is in school physically but his mind is somewhere else, who knows? [laughs]. In my department, I would say they are trying, because to be fair they are not comfortable with the situation. (Female teacher NDY-02)

Delays in receiving salary

Besides inadequate pay, the long period of wait for the payment of salary also caused dissatisfaction. Perceived as an inefficient aspect of the management system, five teachers reported that these waits exacerbated the poor salary situation, and triggered much dissatisfaction and demotivation. The fact that NQTs (Newly Qualified Teachers) wait for between 12 and 24 months to be placed on the payroll also caused dissatisfaction. This led NQTs into serious economic hardship and heavy debts during their first two years of service and demoralised even the most enthusiastic teachers. The comments below illustrate this concern:

The salary situation has not been the best. Since they were slashed some 19 years ago, things have never been the same. And the fact that many teachers have gone to

school, graduated and are sent here, and have to wait for so many years before getting their salaries, that keeps many of them away and that kills their morale to work when he or she is sure of no pay. So when you talk of satisfaction or motivation I will be honest to tell you that the salary situation is not the best (Male teacher NDY- 4)

One thing I would say I find really dissatisfying is the fact that we work with no salary. Ever since I graduated, to my posting from ENS I have not been paid properly like the document stipulates. This does not speak well of our profession and the ministry. [I am sure if I tell you I am just living by the grace of God you would surely laugh or say I am joking, but I know you know already because you have spoken to some of my colleagues, I am not even excited about the gross lot [the salary with arrears] because I owe so much money which I will have to repay to the Njanji houses with what I get now from the PTA, I don't feel moved at all... it is so demotivating, how do I go to class to teach? (Male teacher, NDY-7)

Teachers criticised the management system responsible for their salaries, claiming that the managerial procedures were demotivating and acted as a deterrent or disincentive for both new and old teachers. Coupled with the poor transport system, this was often cited to explain why many teachers did not resume duty on time, or even assume duty at all once posted to this region. Late resumption had implications for colleagues in departments who had to deal with increased workload and other work-related stress. These conditions demotivated and excessively stretched teachers. It was evident that the government's approach to teacher salary management was perceived to be inefficient, dissatisfying, and encouraged absenteeism. The following comments illustrate this point:

What I earn is very meagre, and comparing it, it is minimal for what I do. And am sure if I am motivated I can do more than that. Again, what I earn is enough to frustrate one at this level at the same time it hinders one from moving forward with other aspects of life...What I earn is really minimal as a reward and hinders my personal dreams, because for example I am a writer, but at the moment I lack the resources to carry out research and write quality stories and to improve or even to go back to school. That is why I am so dissatisfied (Female teacher NDY-10)

Let me paint it clear okay, vividly, I am an ECI (En Course Integration) from ENS and where I have been posted, but as you can see I am not yet at my post because of finances and I really don't have the means to get to where I am posted because only transportation would cost like 50.000frs CFA (£63), and what I earn here is not even up to that amount. We lack the financial power, and it makes it hard for me to further my studies to get even up to a DIPES II. The small money I am paid here by the PTA is just like a pocket allowance, after I pay rent, the rest I can have cannot even feed me for two weeks (Female teacher NDY-10).

Allowances and benefits

Although certain financial benefits, incentives, allowances and rewards (e.g. maternity leave, head of department and class master allowances, and pensions) are notionally available to the profession, all the teachers reported that most of these benefits were unavailable or insufficient. The lack of financial allowances and benefits was an issue of concern to all the interviewees. The slow process in making payment was also reported to be demoralising.

Dissatisfaction was reported to be at its peak when these benefits are not paid at all, or when the teachers have to negotiate to claim the benefits. This was an inconvenient situation for teachers for two reasons. First, travelling out of their workstation had

implications for their workload and lesson coverage. Second, besides the risk and stress involved, money spent on transport exacerbated their dissatisfaction. The comments below illustrate this point:

Teachers complain, they grumble, sometimes they don't even turn up for our meetings, and that is just a manifestation of how angry they are,...and at the end of a term you give him 15.000frs CFA as motivation, that is demotivation, sometimes they don't even see it [the money] (Female teacher NDY-02)

I think teachers need to be encouraged with better incentives and rewards, because the teaching activities are very strenuous, but yet we are given very little incentive or sometimes not even given any at all. So I find this very demotivating and discouraging (Female teacher NDY-03)

Being a remote region, the effects of these circumstances were unbearable for NQTs. This was particularly the case for three teachers who were posted in Ndian with limited prior knowledge of the place and with no local contacts from which they could seek financial or social support. Teachers who commented on this issue indicated that it had repercussions for their psychological wellbeing, workload coverage and overall engagement with teaching. This also affected students' learning, since the students went for days without a teacher, or attended lessons with disengaged teachers.

In addition, the workload that some teachers encountered in the absence or irregular attendance of their colleagues was also reported as a source of work stress and demotivation. The following comments illustrate these concerns:

The allowances we get are very small, for example I need to use my personal money to buy teaching texts and carry out research to impart knowledge to the students. We need to be covered, something has to be done, this is so demotivating, we [teachers] in this area should be given even more allowances (Female teacher NDY-3)

I think this point is not taken into consideration, we don't have incentives that keep us going and it is dissatisfying because the paper work would suggest that they are paying attention to what you do but, at the end of the day, you realise they are not even aware and cannot measure one's potential and don't even motivate us to do better (Male teacher NDY-1)

Almost all the teachers were unhappy with the incentive system associated with the profession. Alongside poor working conditions, teachers pointed at inadequate incentives as a reason for the high attrition rate in the profession. This was because teachers preferred seeking job opportunities in ministries that offered better incentives and rewards. The comments below illustrate this point:

There are other colleagues in other ministries, they have ehm...some amenities and benefits that we don't have or enjoy in our profession, and these make us feel very bad. And it is demotivating. These guys have amenities like scholarships to study abroad and other facilities for openings we don't have and we are not very happy with that (Principal)

In contrast to reports of insufficient benefits, two teachers were happy with the extra financial rewards they got at the end of the term. These additional financial rewards were perceived to be very encouraging and motivating. The comments below illustrate their opinions:

I am satisfied with the allowances provided by the government, even though they are small, at least it is something new and it helps a little to assist us update our

knowledge. I think that is a plus which you don't find in other public services
(Female teacher NDY-2)

Government policies and system management

Besides prevalent pessimism with regards to the hierarchical and centralised administrative nature of the education system, two government policies were identified as sources of discontent. Seven teachers criticised the introduction of “the no child left behind” policy, and the ban on corporal punishment in schools. The no child left behind policy, implemented in non-examination classes in government schools, is an approach introduced in secondary schools to reduce the number of students repeating a particular class. The ban on corporal punishment stems from a human rights perspective that seeks to protect children from physical abuse and torture. However, teachers complained about these policies which contributed to their dissatisfaction. The comment below illustrates these concerns:

I am not happy with these changes they [ministry of education] are making to the system, every time the principal will call for us for meetings now and then, before it was the new pedagogic approach, later the student centred approach, and today we are on the competence based approach... all these changes eh...but what really is disturbing me is this new way of promotion. I think they have it all wrong this time, I don't understand how we can promote a child with 5 average to the next class...what quality of students do we want to produce? We are not helping these children....yes. Soon you hear they say the standards are falling, and who is to blame? Teachers are the scapegoats (Female teacher NYD-10).

The policy guiding students' promotion to the next class was perceived to undermine the motivation of both students and teachers. Teachers reported that the implementation of this policy provoked negative perceptions from students who worked hard to develop their learning. Two teachers added that students perceived the practice to be unfair and unjust, since it encouraged the promotion of all students regardless of their attitudes and achievements. In some extreme cases, students who felt unhappy as a result of this policy eventually lost their interest in learning and their confidence in their teachers. This policy had negative effects on teachers' job satisfaction. The following comment illustrates this point:

For examplewe have instructions to make sure that we promote every child in the junior forms,... and when they get to form five, will the GCE board promote them, or will we be there to show them the answers? You see... (chuckling) some of these things make the job discouraging because not only are we preparing these children to fail, we are at the same time wasting our time, (Male teacher NDY-06)

Demotivation from this policy centred on the perception that it generally encouraged weak learners to continue with mediocre performance and also adversely affected the standards of education. This made assessment exercises difficult and dissatisfying for teachers as the following comments illustrate:

The Vice principal always makes it clear that, no matter the average, even below 5, we have to try and promote them [students] just to encourage them. I don't know if they know how many times my students have come to confront me on the last year's promotion when they see students who can, and could not afford a score of a pass mark in Biology and are now sitting in the next class. I feel embarrassed and I have

told the principal and all he keeps saying is that is the law and it comes from Yaoundé. This is very humiliating because these students even lose confidence in you as a teacher, how do you explain that? It does not satisfy me at all (Female teacher NDY-10)

If you see the children from primary school, they are not really suitable to enter secondary school and this makes teaching hard for teachers. And the ministry has said that we should not allow a child to repeat so, as soon as we promote even those who have very poor averages,] my teachers really get very demotivated. This does not encourage teachers to teach, some even would say why should they teach when student fail and they still get promoted. That is the decision of the minister, they want to bring the American system of let my people go [leaving no child behind] (Principal)

The ban on corporal punishment in schools was a controversial issue that caused dissatisfaction for teachers. This was because it was perceived to reduce teachers' authority and autonomy. This policy was seen as a digressive mechanism employed by the government to avoid addressing important issues that teachers had raised. The female teachers claimed that the policy adversely affected students' misbehaviour in and out of the classroom. This had negative implications for teachers' self-efficacy and confidence in controlling the learning environment. The comment below illustrates dissatisfaction with this policy:

The government imposes everything on us, even the type of punishment that should be given to a child. A child should not be beaten, which is meant to be the main discipline mechanism for a student. They should come and do our work then, because now even it is worse, the students disrespect teachers here and there, some even

threaten you, and the principal does not dismiss. These things can affect teachers negatively... we know it. (Male teacher NDY-08)

General teacher management

The Ministry's management procedures were sources of dissatisfaction for teachers, who described the management system as inept and inefficient. Six of the teachers believed that the government neglected them. Their comments centred on the government's sluggish approach to teacher management issues (salary payment, teacher deployment and reward distribution) and how they responded to their needs and request. The comments also suggested that these teachers were ineffectively deployed and poorly managed. The following comment illustrates this opinion:

The state has not actually taken the plight of the teachers to heart because we are giving it our best, yet see the way we are, you see we leave here at 6pm and we are tired but someone has to do the job... but if you look at the end of the day what we have to take home as remuneration is nothing. It is an insult, all you hear over the radio are appointments and new law... but once you love your job you have to be there, that is why you find us here... and that is Cameroon. Our government is not looking after us, everything that is put in for education ends up in big towns like Buea (Male teacher NDY-04).

These dysfunctional procedures, exacerbated by the hierarchical nature of the Ministry of secondary education, were identified as the main causes of teachers' dissatisfaction.

Deployment of teachers

Dissatisfaction with administrative procedures, and the misuse of demographic data regarding the deployment of NQTs and other teachers, added to teacher dissatisfaction reported by the principal and five teachers. Most teachers expressed concern about their professional profiles, and the purpose these profiles served. These concerns arose because operations regarding teachers' deployment were perceived to neglect certain demographic data (marital status, ethnic origin, gender and age etc.).

The irrational distribution of teachers had further implications for teachers' workload, work coverage and stress. It was evident that the school suffered from an acute shortage of staff, especially in mathematics, physics and chemistry. In addition, issues such as teachers' unavailability, irregularity and absenteeism were additional problems that were identified as a result of poor teacher deployment. The comments below illustrate this point:

Even the way things are done demotivates me, we are here working under tight conditions whereas teachers in Kumba are more relaxed, or even in Buea, if you go there, you find one department with at least 4 teachers and all of them having fair amounts of teaching hours. Here the government wants to break our backs, I have to teach more than 20 hours... For me the way our profession is managed shows that they [the Ministry/delegation] don't know what to do, yes...in fact they are charlatans (Male teacher NDY-06).

There is a lot of late resumption, which makes my work difficult. I am talking as the discipline mistress, you will see colleagues who will come back as late as two months after schools have reopened and you will find yourself running from one class to another to restore order, and reduce misbehaviour, to keep children calm. Like

yesterday and even today when I went out for control, there were 6 classes with no teachers (Female teacher NDY-02)

These bureaucratic procedures were perceived as elements that facilitated the system's permeability to bribery, corruption, and nepotism. The evidence showed that these practices were geared to avoid working in rural areas. The comment below illustrates this point:

You see many teachers would not like to come here, because the place is not yet developed, and teachers especially those from Yaoundé, would prefer to use their connections to influence their posting...I find it common with women. A teacher is posted here and never shows up, I have had such cases here, yes...where a teacher is posted and she never reports for duty, you know these things are becoming rampant now, people buying concourses, positions and transfers (principal)

Workload and paper work

Dissatisfaction was reported with the perceived excessive workload, accompanied by heavy paper work. Nine teachers cited these factors as sources of stress and demotivation. Understaffing, linked to limited working resources, over-stretched teachers, who were required to perform multiple duties, leading to dissatisfaction and a sense of inefficacy. Teachers pointed to over stretching as a major source of physical and mental breakdown.

The amount of time spent on completing documents designed to monitor student progress, or teachers' work coverage, was reported to increase teachers' workload and dissatisfaction. Four teachers reported that these exercises, which were often

performed under pressure, negatively affected their teaching performance, wellbeing and health. Dissatisfaction with paper work was exacerbated because there was no feedback from the authority or government. Completing these documents was generally perceived to be boring and monotonous. The following comment illustrates this point:

So at times it is irritating when they put a lot of paper work before you when you have other issues and it disturbs our actual work that we are expected to do, which is important, rather than filling useless papers here and there. Even this filling of pedagogic documents, normally it is supposed to be done electronically, but they will present it to you on a hard form which is boring and causes one to do the same thing over and over and this is irritating (Male teacher NDY-09)

The existence of “ghost teachers” (teachers who never resumed duties but receive a salary) in Ndian also contributed to perceived excessive workload. Teachers claimed that this was partly responsible for the shortage of staff in this region.

Work convenience

Although school accessibility was a contentious area, nine teachers were very satisfied with the convenient working hours, regular breaks and long holidays associated with the job. Teaching was seen as the most convenient profession for three reasons. First, it empowered them economically. Second, it was one of the most accessible employments, which served also as a platform on which they could build other skills for future job opportunities. Third, most of the female teachers, in

particular, were pleased with their work-life balance and with the extra time available to attend to personal activities. The following comments illustrate these observations:

Comparing with other jobs I have done like accountancy, and what they pay us, we have extra time to catch up with other things and for me I find this so satisfying because I can relax and stay with the family but with the accounting job that wasn't really possible for me ...so now I enjoy this job plus like I said before I love teaching
(Male teacher NDY-1)

I really feel happy to be a member of the community and especially with the school I work in. For instance, I can just trek to school, this saves me a lot of money I should have been spending on transport or something like that...yes am quite pleased with that (Male teacher NDY-11)

The tough terrain, inadequate roads, poor transport facilities, and lack of personal vehicles or motorbikes, exacerbated the difficulties teachers encounter with school accessibility. Teachers were dissatisfied because they had to trek long distances to get to school, or spend money on public transport to get to school. Teachers claimed that this issue had consequences for the quality of teaching, since it affected their job satisfaction and motivation to teach.

The further a teacher stayed from the school campus, the more likely s/he encountered difficulties and vice versa. This was a source of concern to five teachers who were dissatisfied with the distance between their home and the school. Their dissatisfaction was based on the risk (accidents and health) and financial implications involved.

More dissatisfaction was reported from two teachers who claimed that their weekly expenditure on motorbikes exceeded half of their monthly pay. The comments below illustrate these points:

Well for me the distance from my house to school is very far off, about eight kilo metres to and fro, that is about 16 kilometres every day, and the risk on being on a bike on a daily basis does not make me happy. The risks involve, the money I spend all of that, I don't feel happy about it (Male teacher NDY-01).

The location of the school too is not to my advantage, you know `I have to be here every morning as early as 7:20am... but I think one of the reasons for this problem is the road, and I am talking for me I don't know how that is for other colleagues, only to come here is a nightmare, I cannot dress well because by the time I am entering this office, I am full of dust, the road makes things unnecessarily difficult, a 10 to 20min distance can become 1 hour (Female teacher NDY-02)

School infrastructure and working conditions

School Infrastructure

The physical aspects of the environment, and the school in particular were also identified as factors that caused dissatisfaction. Seven teachers who reported dissatisfaction with the infrastructural design, nature and arrangement of the school buildings, claimed that these buildings were old fashioned, less attractive and were in deteriorating states. Generally, the fact that many facilities like the administrative offices and staff room particularly lacked modern aesthetic features or elements evoked dissatisfaction amongst all the teachers. The comment below illustrates this concern:

Look at the infrastructure you see nothing spectacular is happening here, the pace is still remote. Facilities to entertain teachers are lacking, I feel like this place is abandoned, the government is showing no interest for the wellbeing of teachers working here. Buildings are not looking good or well painted (Female teacher NDY-03)

Dissatisfaction was also expressed on the lack of certain structures that teachers needed to support them on the job. The absence of recreational structures was at the centre of this concern. Concerns were also raised regarding the poor condition of the staff room, especially the absence of storage facilities, and space. The absence of an equipped library, a furnished laboratory, a decent staff canteen, and modern staff toilet, were issues of concern to teachers. The following comment illustrates this point:

I don't think I am happy, as a teacher working for the government, how can I not have a good space to work in, this school has no canteen, ...we even have to go to the bush to ease ourselves, because the state of the pit toilets can even make you sick, I don't [find] these things motivating (Female NDY-10)

Dissatisfaction was also reported with the nature of the roof of some classrooms, which two teachers claimed it had disruptive effects on teaching, especially during raining seasons. Also, the floors' condition, chalkboards, doors and windows were also cited to cause demotivation. Dissatisfaction with these elements was based on the challenges they imposed on teachers' work, especially with maintaining students' engagement. The fact that the walls of some classrooms had holes running through, and lacked pedagogic charts, yet coated with roughly scribbled names and raunchy

messages with paint, ink or mud characterised some of the issues that demotivated teachers. These circumstances eroded teachers' motivation and generally posed challenges on teaching. The comment below illustrates this observation:

Oh, you can see, look around, we lack didactic materials, many other teaching resources and during the rainy seasons some classes get flooded because of the zinc, and even when its heavy, it gets cloudy and dark in classes, and we can't teach like that...because of the irregularity of electric supply, these things do not go well and the students suffer.... These are some of the problems in our region (Principal)

The teachers were unhappy with their operating and working conditions, and criticised the limited support they received. Eight teachers reported that the conditions within which they operated were counterproductive and constrained effective teaching. Although government schools operate under a common centralised system, with similar or modest difference in operational plans and working conditions, the case study teachers claimed that the working conditions were particularly poor and more challenging than those in government schools in urban settings. These teachers expressed a strong preference to work in urban cities that offered better working conditions.

Five teachers further reported that they would have been more satisfied, engaged or committed to teaching, if conditions of work and rewards were conducive. Teachers were particularly concerned about the absence and lack of maintenance of certain facilities (laboratories, library, toilets and canteen), inadequacy of didactic materials, inaccessibility to clean water and electricity, unavailability of technology, and poor accommodation facilities. The following comments illustrate this observation:

The working conditions are poor, yes, very dissatisfying, classes even are too crowded and with much noise, see like form three and five, very crowded, how do you teach? As if that is not enough, how many of them can you boast to say they have a textbook? I am talking, to teach graphs and trigonometry, I have spoken to the VP [vice principal] and I am tired, no graph board, no compass, if we do not even have these materials, how do they expect us to teach and be happy? (Male teacher NDY-08)

I don't think they find it generally motivating eh... because many of them are still complaining of the poor working conditions and that is why many of them are either going to other ministries or even going abroad. For example, the new ministry, which has been put in place now, the Ministry of Public Contracts, half of the personnel are teachers [laugh]. They go where there is money and leave us here to chaff (Principal)

The principal added that basic conditions are unsatisfactory.

At times, even when the salary is available and constant, they seek to be transferred to other schools because their current duty post is not only in a remote area, but also that the place is unbearable to stay in due to lack of basic living commodities. Perhaps, government's promise to improve the conditions of teachers...Housing here is a little bit expensive, and when they come here they don't really have houses and that makes them scared and miserable. This alone scares them, and should be dissatisfying to them, they begin to wonder where would they stay and so forth (Principal).

School leadership

The findings revealed that the principals' behaviour and interpersonal skill were dimensions of the principal's leadership that were perceived to contribute to job

satisfaction and motivation. Six teachers indicated satisfaction with the principal's leadership, while two reported dissatisfaction and the other four were neutral. These opposing opinions were based on the perceived accountability system the principal created, the availability of support, fairness and interpersonal skills.

While four teachers were satisfied with the principal's interpersonal skills, and behaviour, two other teachers were particularly motivated with the additional pecuniary tips he provided. Generally, the principal's friendliness, politeness and supportive behaviours were important elements of his leadership style they enjoyed. They added that, not only did these elements uplifted their morale and satisfaction, they also helped in shaping the school culture. Teachers cited the principal's ability to cultivate and support good interpersonal relationships, as well as providing advice on professional and personal issues, as positive elements that enhanced motivation. The comment below illustrates this point:

Yeah, the principal is very friendly. When you get there with a problem, he talks to you one on one. He is always available to hear and solve our problem. When you are not satisfied with a class, he will go there in person and talk to the students. That's why I am very satisfied because in other schools you don't have the opportunity to see the principal but here you can walk into the office of the principal any time you have a problem and it will be dealt with (Female teacher NDY-03)

In contrast, two teachers were dissatisfied and convinced the principal did not possess expertise in performing his job. Evidence emerged suggesting dissatisfaction with perceived inefficiency in principal leadership. These teachers claimed that their dissatisfaction was linked to the principal's poor approach with regards to resource management, conflict management, staff collaboration and teamwork. His perceived

lack of teamwork spirit, ineffectiveness in listening to staff, and discriminatory behaviours, were major elements cited to have caused dissatisfaction. The perception that the principal discriminated, and preferentially treated certain colleagues, was an aspect that evoked dissatisfaction. One teacher commented on the absence of transparency and fairness in the manner in which the principal distributed financial rewards to the staff. The following comment illustrates some of these concerns:

I feel disadvantaged especially when our man [the principal] discriminates,.. not all the time but he does not treat us the same,..I know he has his people, when there are opportunities for us to do something, or there is some extra thing to share, he shares it only among themselves and this is not really good because we work together but at the end not favoured together (Male teacher NDY-09)

Concerns were also raised about some teachers who boycotted work without permission, or disrespected the principal without being penalised. The following comment illustrates this point:

I cannot talk of motivation when I see open discrimination, some of these things are not healthy in a working milieu like a school, we don't have the same rights here... some people are untouchable and this makes me feel demotivated... yes one case was the economics teacher, this woman would talk to anyone the way she wanted, she was very rude, and even to the principal. The most annoying thing is that he will not even do anything or sanction, to reprimand her, but if you dare oppose his ideas in a staff meeting you become a victim of insults (Male teacher NDY-05)

Involvement in decision-making

Dissatisfaction and demotivation were also reported with the extent to which teachers perceived they were involved in decision-making. Teachers who reported dissatisfaction claimed that their contributions were rarely accepted. This was particularly a major concern for four young male teachers, who reported that their opinions or ideas were often disregarded by the principal. More importantly, their exclusion from certain decisive meetings was perceived to undermine their intellectual capacity, morale and ego, as they were often treated as inexperienced. This was dissatisfying because it also hindered their self-efficacy, creativity and problem solving. They also pointed at the cultural belief (one that expects young members of a community to respect the words and instructions of elders without questioning) to have strongly disfavoured them. The comments below illustrate this point:

One of the things I find dissatisfying in my job is what I call “the young man concept”, when you look at me, I am aged 27 years old and I have come into the profession with fresh impetus and the problem we face is that when you bring up important suggestions or your ideas, your ideas are always suppressed. They are suppressed by more elderly colleagues, on the basis of experience, and especially when those arguments you bring up are strong. So when my ideas are suppressed I am always unhappy, but I have always tried to fight against this (Male teacher NDY-09)

I believe the school is a system that brings intellect together, and where ideas are shared, but when you give your own point and ideas and people think they are not

good ...or we are too young to deliver, it is demotivating. Teaching does not count on age, but how well you deliver (Female teacher NDY-03)

However, three teachers were satisfied with their involvement in decision- making. Their perception that their contributions were incorporated into the development of the school was an aspect that gave satisfaction. The teachers who reported satisfaction with this factor were older (above 35 years of age) and had either been teaching for at least five years or had an administrative role (HoD). The comment below illustrates this point:

I am equally pleased with my contribution to the development of the school, it makes me happy that the principal always calls us together to discuss problems in school... yes this too I find satisfying (Male teacher NDY-04)

Environmental factors and safety issues

Environmental factors were consistently cited as major sources of dissatisfaction. Being a remote area, and often described as a difficult area (geographically and economically), the physical settings of the area, bad roads, poor climatic conditions, characterised by heavy rains, and high temperatures were elements that caused dissatisfaction and demotivation. Coupled with the low economic status of the region, these factors imposed both physical and socio-economic challenges on teachers.

The tough terrains, bad roads and poor weather were aspects of the environment that were generally perceived with negative implications on teachers' work. Three teachers reported that it was common and likely for teachers to forego lessons or boycott school if road or weather conditions were unfavourable. These elements were

cited to account for a proportion of teachers' absenteeism, lateness, tiredness and even poor lesson delivery. With the exception of the principal, all the interviewed teachers expressed resentment with the fact that they were posted to serve in Ndian.

The deplorable conditions and inadequacy of minor and major transport links in Ndian were additional sources of demotivation to teachers. The conditions of these roads which are often narrow dusty passages with rough stones, deep gutters and potholes, which during the rainy seasons become muddy and slippery roads caused dissatisfaction to teachers. In addition, the fact that these conditions made transportation expensive and costly also imposed financial challenges on teachers.

The comments below illustrate these concerns:

The fact that I work in a difficult environment makes things hard for me. The road, the climate, like now, see the sun overhead is so harsh, when you go to class now to teach what do you expect? Students will not follow; you yourself may end up with headache. But I guess the nature of the road is the root cause of most of our difficulties here. It has made things hard, for example hunger, things are very expensive here. All these things affect my psychology and wellbeing and have an effect on me as a worker....Yeah (Female teacher NDY-02)

Maybe the area in which they are working in is not quite conducive for them, especially someone leaving Bamenda to come and work here in the rainy season when the road is very bad. It is really not satisfying; some of them even come very late after the resumption, due to the nature of the road (Principal)

Safety Issues

Four teachers reported demotivation with the ongoing inconspicuous security issues that prevailed around the Bakassi region. Expressing their uncertainty and fear of kidnappers, teachers claimed that this issue caused great anxiety and fear. This factor drained teachers' morale and was cited as a reason why many teachers requested early transfers. Despite the endorsement of the International Court of Justice, and 'The Green Tree Agreement', between the Nigerian and Cameroon authorities (see Aghemelo and Ibhasebhor 2006; Sama and Johnson-Ross 2006), teachers reported that the region continues to suffer from ongoing attacks from pirates and kidnapper, especially around Isangele. These shallow on-going crises instilled perceptions of insecurity among teachers and eroded their motivation. It also marred the attraction and retention of qualified teachers in this region. The following comments illustrate this point:

Now and then you hear of someone who is being kidnapped and so forth, this makes me worried and unsecure, as I don't know when these guys might strike again. On top of all these, the government is not recognising these threats and not even compensating us with a risk allowance (Male teacher NDY-05)

Parents' socioeconomic status

The weak socioeconomic status (SES) of the learners' parent was identified to contribute to teachers' dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction with this factor was cited to be accountable for low parental involvement, and explained why many students did not possess learning resources. Eight teachers reported dissatisfaction with this factor, and claimed that it was partly responsible for the unavailability of learning resources like

text books and note book. This caused dissatisfaction and made teaching difficult and boring. It equally posed challenges on monitoring and managing pedagogy. Six teachers cited this factor to partly account for the low pedagogy coverage and mediocre academic performance, especially in Mathematics and English Language. The comment below illustrates this point:

Some of these students come from very poor backgrounds and this is not good, even on the system, they can barely eat, and so buying textbooks and learning materials is very difficult. You will send students home every time because they don't have text books, but that doesn't solve the problem (Male teacher NDY-11)

Intrinsic themes

As noted earlier, intrinsic factors also impinged on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. These factors are:

- interpersonal relationships (with colleagues and students)
- school culture
- indigenes' attitude towards education
- student related factors
- teaching orientation
- mastery, efficacy and intellectual growth
- career profile, advancement and promotion
- appreciation and recognition

Interpersonal relationships

Unequivocal satisfaction with interpersonal relationships was reported from all the teachers. Satisfaction with the collegial interaction and friendly relationships they

shared with colleagues and students was also evident from all the teachers. This was a highly valued motivational factor for teachers. Teachers also found solace from colleagues and various solidarity groups that existed within the school campus. The establishment of strong bonds, and lasting relationships, were elements of the social interactions teachers enjoyed. They perceived themselves as being part of a family. The following comments illustrate this point:

Yes, I really like my colleagues and we think of our department like a family. So when things get rough, we try to support one another, I remember a colleague who was sick last year, we all contributed money and visited her I think this also helps and removes stress (Female teacher NDY-10)

Just my interaction with my colleagues, and even with my students to some extent, you know being a human being you must not be idle, yes, you are not an island, once you are around people you are satisfied. That is the first thing that gives me satisfaction on the job (Male teacher NDY-05)

The existence of certain external social groups (traditional ethnic associations) within the region also played a supportive role in establishing and sustaining strong social ties between teachers and community members. This factor was particularly important to three teachers who were indigenes with ethnic origins from Ndian. The following comment illustrates this observation:

I can say the environment has a double effect, one part makes me happy and the other makes me unhappy. Yes, like I said before, when I meet with my tribes' men and

women ... on Sundays and we share together, it is great encouragement for me, you know as the son of the soil you should have home advantages and these things make me satisfied (Male teacher NDY-09)

School Culture

The interviews and field notes showed that the school culture was an important element of the work context from which teachers derived satisfaction and motivation. A general sense of satisfaction with the friendly and collaborative working atmosphere that existed in the school was evident. Teachers pointed to the calm working atmosphere, which was perceived to be espoused with good interpersonal relationships and an amicable ambiance to cause satisfaction. It was evident that teachers interacted amicably with each other, especially in the staffroom. The comment below illustrates these observations:

I am impressed with the way teachers treat one another here, we have a good sense of togetherness and the working climate that is very nice and friendly. For example those of us who are new here, when we come they are always kind and help us, treated us fairly even though some are not so welcoming but the general atmosphere makes work a little more easy (Male teacher NDY-08)

The principal's interpersonal orientation was perceived as a key contributory factor to the school's culture as two teachers reported. Their opinions also suggested that the small size of the school necessitated a working culture that was supportive and friendly, as the following comment illustrates:

For me I really like the collaborative atmosphere we share here in this school....you know it's a small community, we know each other, and that bond keeps us going even though sometimes things don't go well amongst us,.. some time we have issues, one person gossiping here and there or misunderstandings but we are bound to come together and work as a team and help these children grow... yes the way we operate is so hard to stay away from each other, we share similar problems and we can only cope if we work well together and stay as a family. The principal always encourage us to work as a family (Female teacher NDY-10)

Indigenes' attitude towards learning

Dissatisfaction about indigenes' poor attitude towards education was attributed to the repercussions of the conflicts that plagued the Bakassi peninsula during the early 1990s (see Aghemelo and Ibhasebhor 2006, Konins 2005). This factor was cited to account for the low rates of school attendance in this region, and was also linked to parents' socio-economic status. Most parents were perceived to be non-supportive and less collaborative with the school, and generally showed little interest in the educational activities of their children. This was a source of dissatisfaction and frustration for teachers.

Teachers claimed that most parents were unlikely to invest in the education of their children because they needed their children to assist them in agriculture or fishing, which were the major socio-economic activities in the area. This was an issue of concern for teachers because of its impact on the school's enrolment and the number of children that dropped out of school. Two teachers claimed that indigenes' perceptions of the immediate benefits of education, as opposed to those of farming or fishing, were obscured by financial rewards that did not work in their favour. Dissatisfaction with this factor was reported from seven teachers (ECI and PTA

particularly), whose incentives or salary depended solely on the school's enrolment.

The following comments illustrate this point:

The people here don't see any benefits from schooling, sometimes you will hear a student even asking, why are we studying this? And these are things their parents surely ask them and they would ask us, they want them to help sell fish or go to the farm and work. So when do they learn how to read and write, no textbooks, it is really dissatisfying. I don't seem to enjoy the end product of my work because many of them fail the GCE, especially in my subject, which is not satisfying at all (Male teacher NDY-11)

Student related factors

Student's attitude toward learning

The calibre and quality (aptitude level and obedience) of the students were identified to impinge on satisfaction and motivation. All teachers pointed at students' willingness to learn, obedience, and cognitive abilities, as elements they found satisfying and motivating. These points were perceived to have a considerable impact on the quality of teacher-student relations, as well as teachers' efficacy. However, teachers were less satisfied when students did not possess a positive attitude towards learning. The following comment illustrates this point:

Teaching is interesting but satisfaction is relative because, based on the student you have at times in a particular year, you may find it interesting. At times, some students make your work frustrating because you can have the subject matter to deliver, but you have students who don't want to study, especially students in the higher classes like form four, five and lower sixth, at times you find them distracting their friends and you find this difficult (Female NDY-03)

Teachers reported satisfaction and motivation from learners who were enthusiastic to learn and displayed good conduct and behaviour. Their comments suggested that the drive to engage fully with the teaching process depended to a certain extent on students' attitudes towards learning. Teachers also expressed concerns with the stress associated with managing learners' attitudes, especially in cases where learners were unwilling to learn. The following comments illustrate this point:

Some students really discourage us, and really don't move one to work as we intend to do. Sometimes you expect students to perform but they just let you down and this makes me perform below my potential ... most of the examination class students are adolescents and they have a lot of distractions, sometimes making them understand simple concepts can really be frustrating and this is really dissatisfying (Female teacher NDY-02)

When I dish out my lesson, and students can replicate and pass well and like having my lesson, I feel very motivated. You know everyone will like to walk into a hall where he is cheered and encourage teaching or talking, but the demotivating bit is when you do your best to get them to success even when you go to their classes in your free time and they don't want to learn (Male teacher NDY-07)

Teachers reported motivation and satisfaction from students who showed interest in their subject, answered questions during lessons, did assignments and were successful in exams. Students' readiness to help their teachers with farm work was an additional source of satisfaction to two teachers. However, the opposite scenarios of these declarations evoked low morale and demotivation. The comment below supports this point:

If you give an assignment and you come to class the next day and students have done the assignment, or you ask them questions and they can answer, I think that is the highest motivation you can get (Male teacher NDY-04)

Teachers also added that students' attitudes towards learning varied considerably from class to class. Three teachers reported preference to teach students in lower classes (form one and two and examination classes, because they were perceived to be more oriented to learn.

Teaching orientation

Seven teachers expressed a strong passion and interest for teaching and were satisfied with their involvement in the job. Their satisfaction was attributed to their contribution towards the development of young minds and lives. Teaching was also perceived as an intellectually challenging, stimulating and worthwhile profession that caused satisfaction. Teachers' perceived self-driven orientation toward teaching young minds, and fostering community development, emerged as the driving force behind their work motivation. Satisfaction was reported from the opportunities for knowledge acquisition, self-growth and development. While most teachers were driven by a strong sense of altruism, six teachers also mentioned their commitment towards community development. Their satisfaction was based on their pride in contribution to the development of the society. The following comments illustrate these factors:

It is often a pleasure to see that young people develop and we help them put them on the right track...It's my heart's desire to see that these children have the opportunity because other teachers did that for me. (Female teacher NDY-10)

Working with the youths is like working with the future. It is enjoyable to see yourself as someone who can nurture and educate those who are the future of tomorrow. You see their minds changing (Male teacher NDY-01)

Teachers generally attributed motivational values to cognitive dimensions of teaching than they did with affective elements. This was because the main indicator of a teacher's contribution to learning was based on students' academic achievement. The following comment illustrates this point:

I like the nature of the job because it arouses the brain and even though it gets tough you still find a way... some time we have to be there because of the love for the job... you get home tired but you are here again the next morning to impart knowledge because that is what the job requires, that we teach no matter the conditions (Male teacher NDY-04).

Generally, satisfaction was derived from teachers' passion to impart knowledge, interact with students, and engage in a profession that groomed young minds and nurtured future citizens and promoted financial stability.

Mastery, efficacy and intellectual growth

The cognitive dimensions of teaching especially the intellectual activities were interesting and challenging elements teachers perceived satisfying. Satisfaction and motivation was also linked with their perceived quest for personal growth, knowledge mastery and efficacy. The perception that students' achievement and overall success was dependent on a teacher's subject mastery and intellectual growth catalysed

teachers' desire for mastery. In addition, it was evident from all teachers that the acquisition of new ideas and subject mastery was the most stimulating and exciting aspect they enjoyed.

Although teaching was perceived as a challenging job, teachers were satisfied with the perception that it fostered intellectual and personal growth, and provided opportunities for social and emotional development. Despite complaints of the paucity of skill development opportunities, teachers' perceived love for continuous learning and mastery was an aspect the job provided. Satisfaction was also reported with the degree of autonomy teachers had in their classes, and their sense of responsibility towards the education of the children. All the teachers claimed that these aspects were capable of enhancing their self-confidence, self-efficacy, creativity and overall development, which further procreated motivation and satisfaction. The following comments illustrate this point:

I think teaching is a calling for me, I think when I was a child I use to teach my classmates. My teaching satisfaction comes first from the interaction with colleagues
(Male teacher NDY-04)

Teaching is one of those rare professions where you find that you are constantly challenged, your brain is constantly working, with fresh ideas, and if you don't keep up, some of these students can challenge you. I have always loved to be a teacher because it allows one to continue a steady journey of learning (Female teacher NDY-02)

Career profile, advancement and promotion

Teachers were dissatisfied and unhappy with the nature of their career profile and their limited opportunities for growth and advancement. This factor provoked great dissatisfaction for almost all the respondents who described their profession to be stagnant. The seven teachers, who identified with this factor, emphasised the unavailability of professional advancement and development, compared to other government services. Dissatisfaction was also attributed to the limited support provided for lifelong learning as well as the lack of alternative careers. Five teachers described the profession as one with a non-progressive career path. Teaching was limited to either serving entirely as a classroom teacher until retirement, or getting promoted to an administrative role (with limited available positions), and this was an issue of concern to teachers.

Teachers reported dissatisfaction with the promotion plan available to those who have served for at least two years. Beginning with the post of the discipline master, vice principal and finally the principal hierarchically, teachers criticised the plan for neglecting their efforts, sacrifice, devotion, loyalty, creativity and contribution to the profession. The slow implementation of the two-year promotion plan, coupled to the number of teachers in the profession and the unavailability of these positions, was also an issue that caused dissatisfaction. Teachers could teach for many years, or throughout their career, without any recognised formal promotion or advancement. Four teachers were unhappy that some teachers acquired promotions without the required years of teaching experience. These malpractices undermined teachers' enthusiasm, and motivation. The comments below illustrate this observation:

Some of the things that make me dissatisfied is the way our job is structured. I don't think I like it, look at the police, premier grade, and second grade and so on... it's colourful. But for us, we are just here, teacher and that is it... Yes, because of the poor structure, I hardly see any form of advancement. One thing which is killing the profession in our system in Cameroon is how people just get promotion... this is very dissatisfying and like an insult to us. ... Yes, the promotion at all the levels, even at the level of the pedagogy inspectors. I don't like the way it is done. ...Actually, for example, someone who just came into the field, and has served for 1 or 2 years and is promoted, while someone who has been in the field for 10 to 20 years has not been promoted....this makes us not to work hard and dedicate to the job fully (Male teacher NDY-08)

The status of the teacher is not respected, there is no progress or evolution in this career, we have just SDM, VP and Principal, and how many teachers are there to get to those posts and, even when they get there, what advantages are there? We are not even respected, teachers are the least respected in the community....the career plan is not motivating (Female teacher NDY-02).

Despite ministerial efforts to clarify and guide the operational circumstances characterising the profession, three teachers were dissatisfied with the lack of proper implementation of these specifications in the field. The inappropriate implementation of the hour distribution, for example, was cited as a dissatisfying element that negatively affected teachers' workload, stress and wellbeing. The comment below illustrates this point:

How can you be happy with a job that you don't have a career plan...I am not happy I don't see myself evolving, you imagine, I am a chief of service yet the government expects me to carry children to the field for grass cutting, I don't know if that is by

text or but I have said I will never do that again.... My boss will tell me to dress in a suit, but how can I dress well and carry children to the field with machetes to cut grass, what kind of satisfaction will I have? We are not supported with the work we do, I remember I used to be the surveillante de couloir [corridor surveillance] to assist in discipline, now I am supposed to be in the office and at the same time be chasing students (Female teacher NDY-02)

The availability of in-service training was identified as an important instrument for development, and was perceived to provide teachers with opportunities to improve on subject mastery and teaching practices. Although most teachers expressed concerns with this point, two teachers were satisfied and motivated with the availability of training programmes. Despite being infrequently organised, the planning and execution of these training programmes were perceived to be unsatisfactory. This was because in-service training programmes were organised annually on a rotatory basis, and often with few spaces for attendees. As a result, only one or two teachers from a department attended. Also, most of these events were hosted in urban areas, which often posed access challenges for teachers in Ndian. The comment below illustrates this point:

Even when they say seminars, you will see they will take one person to go for a seminar so if three are five of you, it means you will attend a seminar once in five years, if you are ten, you will go once in 10 years, and if you are unfortunate before ten years you are transferred to another school, you will go to the tail. Also, what is interesting about it [the seminar]? They keep saying the same things over and over (Female teacher NDY-02)

Student factors

Although satisfaction was reported from the cognitive elements of teaching, stress was equally reported from the affective demands associated with the job, especially managing students' behaviour. Although opinions varied along these dimensions, most teachers expressed difficulties managing students and felt challenged by the affective demands of the job. Relating these challenges to be stress inducing, three teachers identified the providing of emotional support and counselling services to students as aspects of the job they disliked. These concerns were cited as causes of frustration and stress especially when students failed to consent with teachers' advice. Managing students' emotions and behaviour was perceived as a very challenging element of the job that provoked stress. Teachers complained that the crowded nature of some classrooms (often between 65 to 130 students) worsen the situation. The findings showed that this particular dimension of teaching often led to stress and frustration, since it had negative implications for teachers' workload and health. The following comment illustrates this point:

Teaching these children sometimes can make you go mad, they have all sorts of problems, and you have to deal with it, delivering the material and managing them at the same time is hard....if they are not helpful you can get high blood [pressure], so I often feel so demotivated when I encounter this kind of emotional constraints, some will even challenge you (Female teacher NDY-03)

Dissatisfaction was also noted from three teachers with the kinaesthetic elements of the job, much of which related to the amount of physical effort required to perform some of the tasks. These teachers complained of the number of hours they spent standing and walking. The fact that these classes lacked teacher's desk was also

challenging. Altogether, these elements were seen as aspects of the teaching profession that caused dissatisfaction and health problems. The comments below support this point:

what I find dissatisfying would be teaching stubborn children...and those who don't want to learn...but at times it's not the fault of the child you see, some of them manage to come here like that, with many problems back home, and they come to school and we don't know... if you don't investigate you would never know and you see managing these things at times is stressful (Female teacher NDY-10)

If you look at the number of teachers in the department, you realise that they are not up to the task and this increases the workload and being here really is dissatisfying (Female teacher NDY-03)

Student discipline

Dissatisfaction and demotivation were linked to student misbehaviour. Teachers claimed that this factor directly affected the quality of the relationship teachers shared with students, especially if the management of student disciplinary issues was unsuccessful. Students' misconduct was cited as a source of demotivation and stress, especially to all the female teachers. It was also perceived to have a disruptive effect on teaching. Four teachers added that, with teacher-student ratios of 1:65 or more, the crowded nature of classrooms exacerbated disruptive behaviours and posed challenges for teaching. Teachers' dissatisfaction was based on their perception that the management of students' misconduct reduced the proportion of time on task and

teaching, which also had a direct impact on students' achievement levels. Teachers identified this issue as a source of stress, as the following comments illustrate:

I remember a situation where we had to dismiss a case [student] and then that didn't happen for reasons I don't know to date, only the boss, this child openly insulted me, and fortunately the boss was on seat, I sent for him but he did not come. I expected the principal to react, but nothing and for like a week I did not come to this campus. Things have become really bad, students can now insult you publicly with no fear. This is demotivating (Female teacher NDY-02)

I had been teaching and this student kept disturbing the entire class, I asked him to go out and yet he didn't. With two other teachers, we went to class and we asked the student to leave and the student refused to leave. We reported the case to the principal, he himself carried the student to the assembly and there the student disgraced him, and I want to assure you that is not the only case where a student disobeys the principal (Female teacher NDY-10)

Students' learning outcomes

All the participants cited students' learning outcomes as a valued contributory factor to job satisfaction and motivation. Teachers reported that working with children who succeeded in exams was the most valuable aspect of their job. Their pride in seeing students successfully grasping concepts taught in lessons, progressing with and completing tasks, were aspects from which teachers claimed they derived the most satisfaction. They perceived students' learning outcomes as a measure of their efficacy, which further engendered confidence and joy. This factor made teachers happy, and fuelled their love for continuous learning. Three teachers reported that

they were inclined to staying longer in the profession if their students consistently succeeded, regardless of their working conditions.

In contrast, dissatisfaction and demotivation were evident when students fail or under-achieved, as the following comment illustrates:

The worst situation is when you give an exam for the whole stream and you don't have a single student with a pass mark. This is really so discouraging and frustrating as it implies that what you have spent time preparing and delivering has been a complete waste of time. In fact, when I think of this and the discouraging incentives we are given, I feel like sitting at home, because coming to school will just be a waste of my time (Female teacher NDY-10)

Appreciation and recognition

Four teachers reported that the appreciation and recognition that came directly from the school principal, colleagues, students, and community members were highly valued sources of satisfaction and motivation. Although four different teachers expressed dissatisfaction, and felt underappreciated by the community and system, the motivational role of appreciation and recognition of teachers' efforts on job satisfaction was evidently an important factor they all identified. Teachers reported that the presence of this non-financial motivator energised their efforts and commitment. Thus, in the absence of this appreciative feedback and recognition, which was often reported to be lacking at the level of the system, teachers often felt discouraged and demotivated. The comments below illustrate this point:

Satisfaction from recognition, It is joyful to see someone you have trained and helped to be somebody important in future when people keep calling you and appreciating

you... like this is my teacher, I am this because of this person, and so forth, it makes you very happy and encouraged (Female teacher NDY-03)

When my boss tells me that this is a job well done, I feel so motivated. This is the best time. And the same time when he tells me “Ah General this is not correct, you should have done like this. I find this demotivating..[laughs]. You know every human being likes it, when they congratulate, you feel happy and even feel like doing more. And it’s the reverse, because if you think that you have done your best and then someone tells you, you haven’t done anything, or what you have done is rubbish, it makes you demotivated, you feel as if you are out of place (Male teacher NDY-04)

Three of the 12 participants were dissatisfied with the government’s approach to teachers’ recognition, as compared to other professions such as the military. These teachers claimed that they did not receive any form of recognition during the course of the year. Also, the fact that appraisals and assessments exercises on work coverage and assiduity yield no form recognition rendered them unhappy. One teacher added that it was a waste of time completing forms for the Delegation of Secondary Education, from which they rarely received any feedback. The comment below illustrates this point:

I am demotivated...we don’t have anything that motivates us here, we are not respected, not even recognised, we are forced to think no one is paying attention to the sacrifices we are making. The government has made the job very dissatisfying, they don’t ease our job (Male teacher NDY-05)

Overview

This chapter presents the main qualitative findings from the case study school in Ndian. It shows that both intrinsic and extrinsic themes account for teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. Teachers' salary, benefits and the environmental conditions are among the extrinsic factors that affect teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation the most. Other extrinsic factors, such as working conditions, government policies, and school management, also impinge on job satisfaction and work motivation. The chapter shows that teachers' believe that money and financial rewards were of great motivational value

In contrast, interpersonal relations, students' success and teachers' orientation towards teaching, appreciation and recognition, are the most common intrinsic factors to induce satisfaction and motivation. However, factors such as teachers' workload, student misbehaviour, and poor promotion prospects, provoke dissatisfaction, and have implications for the wellbeing of teachers. Teachers' motivation is heavily influenced by pay and working conditions, but also by altruistic reasons, a sense of achievement and recognition.

The next chapter will discuss these findings.

CHAPTER EIGHT

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter analyses and discusses the findings of the study presented in chapters four, five, six and seven, linked to the empirical literature. The study sought to investigate and identify factors that affect, and contribute to teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in the south West region of Cameroon. The chapter has a thematic structure, integrating data and literature, to provide an overall analysis of the main factors influencing satisfaction and motivation.

This chapter will begin by presenting and discussing the extrinsic factors influencing satisfaction and motivation.

Salary

The literature on organisational studies suggests that salary stands out as one of the major factor influencing job satisfaction and work motivation (Dolton 1999). In education, teachers' financial compensation is cited as the most attractive feature and medium of exchange for teaching time, commitment, loyalty and effort in pursuing the system's educational goals. International studies (UK and African inclusive) have established links between salary and other variables like, teacher quality, recruitment and retention, as well as job satisfaction and motivation (Barmby 2006, Dolton 1999, Hargreaves et al 2006, Travers and Cooper 1996, Spear et al 2000, UNICEF 1999).

Although some western commentators have suggested that intrinsic factors, such as student outcome and self-growth, are more significant elements to teachers' job satisfaction than financial rewards (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Evans 2001), research in Africa shows that salary remains the most significant factor affecting teachers' satisfaction and work motivation (Adelabu 2005, Bennell and Mukyanuzi

2005, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Monyatsi 2012, Tanaka 2011, Titanji, 1994). Despite this contrast in the literature, research in both contexts suggests that low satisfaction and motivation, commitment and high attrition rates ensues when teachers are dissatisfied with salary, or when salaries are lower than expected, especially when compared with those in non-teaching professions (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Dolton 1999, Dolton and Van der Klaauw 1995, 1999 Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010). The present study supports this argument and also indicates that salary is a key contributor to teachers' social standing.

The quantitative findings show that dissatisfaction with salary was consistent across Ndian (*Mean*=8.6) and Fako (*Mean* =8.5). Even though the rankings of the *salary subscale* of job satisfaction showed very modest differences for Ndian (8th position) and Fako (7th position), this finding supports the literature, particularly that from Africa. It supports Titanji's (1994) claims and those of other African studies that have demonstrated the significant and influential role salary plays on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation (Akiri and Ugborugbo 2009, Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010, George and Mensah 2010). It supports arguments which suggest that teachers are underpaid and insufficiently financially motivated (Akiri and Ugborugbo 2009, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, George and Mensah 2010, Tanaka 2011, Titanji 1994). This author's research, however, contradicts Michealowa's (2002) study, which showed that salary did not have any impact on Cameroon teachers' job satisfaction.

The qualitative evidence confirms teachers' dissatisfaction with salary and also indicates that teachers in Ndian are more dissatisfied than their counterparts in Fako. The rurality of Ndian, linked to the high cost for goods and services, increased their concern with salary. The poor transport network and managerial procedures

associated with provision of salaries, added to teachers' frustration. This finding suggests that a teacher's geo-political situation could affect their perceptions and interpretations of the value of their earnings. This confirms the argument by Dolton and Newson (2003), who note that salary appears to be the most significant factor in recruiting and retaining teachers in deprived areas. In Ndian, teachers had to pay more than double the price for a similar commodity or service found in Fako, because of the difficulties associated with transportation and distribution of goods in Ndian. This research also supports other studies, which show that teachers in rural areas are more susceptible to economic and environmental challenges than teachers in urban settings (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002).

The study also shows that delays in paying salaries add to dissatisfaction and demotivation. This lends support to other African studies which suggest that, if salaries are not paid on time, teachers tend to focus their attention on other activities, such as private tutoring or business ventures, to address their domestic and social needs (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Nbina 2010, Titanji 1994). Although salaries have remained stable in Cameroon since the 1980 economic crisis, the continual increases in the price of basic commodities and services may partly account for teachers' concerns with salary. Overall, the findings are consistent with Titanji's (1994) study in Cameroon, which found that teachers are dissatisfied with their salary and are likely to engage in other activities for survival.

The absence of salaries for NQTs within the first 15-27 months of service is an additional source of dissatisfaction. The author's evidence shows that teachers in Ndian were more affected by this issue than those in Fako. The Ndian teachers faced

additional economic hardship as a result of this situation and accumulated more debt, which led to additional stress and dissatisfaction. The availability of structures that could provide financial and social support also differed considerably, to the disadvantage of Ndian teachers, who felt neglected and abandoned. NQTs in Ndian survived solely on monthly PTA contributions of 25.000frs XAF-35.000frs XAF per teacher (worth \$43.19- \$60.43 per month), sums that fall below the basic salary index in Cameroon (43.740frs CFA). This finding shows that such teachers earn less than those discussed by Bennell and Akyeampong (2007), who claim that most African teachers live on a wage that is between \$2 and \$4 a day.

The study shows that dissatisfaction existed at three levels. First, delays in salary caused concerns for NQT PLEGs (qualified teachers with no salary), who perceived their salary situation to be unfavourable compared to fully integrated PLEGS (teachers with a monthly salary). Secondly, comparisons were also made between teachers' input and output (effort plus workload versus salary), as well as the workload distribution of their colleagues with the same standardised salary. Comparisons with colleagues who earned the same remuneration, but with a lower workload, were central to teachers' dissatisfaction. This finding supports Adam's (1963) equity theory, that satisfaction with salary is based on comparative analysis of teachers' earnings, which is linked to workload, as well as against those of their colleagues or non-related professionals. Finally, salary differences between teachers and other public service professionals, (medical doctors and military), also caused dissatisfaction. Similar to Bennell and Akyeampong's (2007) argument that unfavourable salary comparisons are often sources of dissatisfaction, this study shows that teachers are unhappy with the remuneration system of the profession. This study

shows that such comparisons and unmet expectations often lead to dissatisfaction, lending support to Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, which suggests that individuals feel undervalued when their salaries are below their financial expectations.

Another consistent pattern across both regions was the perception that low salary was a corollary of the declining professional status of teaching. Teachers believed that their salary aggravates their stigmatisation as poor individuals and low class professionals in society compared to other civil servants. Despite being top ranked civil servants (category A2), most teachers cannot afford a car or build a house, and it is common parlance for teachers to be attributed labels like; "Japanese hand brakes" or "bitter leaf eaters", and many others, which denote poor and stingy individuals. This is an inadvertent social phenomenon in African societies, as it is common for people to link professional status with financial earnings and wealth (Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010).

Generally, the teachers in the study perceived that the salary available was insufficient to cover their basic domestic needs. Male teachers reported more concerns with salary than women because they perceived themselves to be the main breadwinners of the family. Other African studies support this claim, that male teachers are more concerned and dissatisfied with salaries than female teachers, because of the financial demands of their direct and extended families (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Titanji 1994).

Allowances and benefits

While salary is a major factor, financial allowances and benefits also strongly influence job satisfaction. The literature also shows that the allowances and benefits associated with the profession play a significant role in determining the supply and retention of teachers (Barmby 2006, Bennell 2004, Bennell and Akyeapong 2007, Davison 2007, Dolton and Newson 2003). These concerns relate to pensions, housing allowances, health insurance and maternity allowances (Agezo, 2010, Chapman et al, 1993, Bennell and Akyeapong 2007, Titanji 1994). These claims are corroborated by the present study, which shows teachers' concerns with allowances and benefits.

The quantitative findings show that teachers in the study are dissatisfied with the allowances and benefits scheme of the profession. The mean scores for the *fringe benefit sub-scale* on the job satisfaction section, reveals dissatisfaction in Ndian ($M=7.61$), and in Fako ($M=8.35$). Although mean scores for Ndian and Fako ($M=11.61$ and $M=12.25$ respectively) for “*external regulation/rewards sub scale*” on the work motivation section revealed ambivalent perceptions, the sub scale for both regions recorded the lowest mean. An explanation for the different findings on both sections (job satisfaction and work motivation) could be linked to the methodological design. This is because, while the job satisfaction scale exclusively elicited perceptions of allowances, the work motivation scale encapsulated a combination of many external variables such as parental influence, desire for rewards and other material benefits. These findings collectively suggest that teachers are not happy with the allowances and benefits available to the profession.

Even though allowances and benefits increase with teachers' seniority (rank) and responsibilities, the qualitative data shows unequivocal discontent with allowances

across both regions for male and female teachers. It reveals that dissatisfaction is at its peak when allowances and benefits are delayed, missing or suspended, and also when obscure negotiations are required to claim these benefits. Although some Africa studies have shown that teachers in remote areas are given extra allowances to compensate for the rural-urban differences (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michealowa 2002), this study shows that teacher in Ndian only received benefits attributed to assiduity (devotion to work) and teaching, which is similar to what their counterparts in Fako receive.

The dissatisfaction with allowances is compounded by comparisons of allowance and benefit schemes of other civil servants. For example, graduates of the National Institute of Administration and Magistracy (ENAM), or police officers, are perceived to be wealthier and more socially respected as a result of the benefits and rewards their jobs offer. The present study suggests that teachers are demotivated by the limited opportunities for external rewards and benefits. This corroborates other studies showing that additional rewards and benefits are essential factors in enhancing employees' job satisfaction and work motivation (Fletcher 2001, Maurer 2001).

Delays in receiving payments are also identified as sources of dissatisfaction, especially for teachers with extra administrative or pedagogic duties, (class masters, HoDs and teachers with laboratory sessions). Teachers sometimes wait for more than two years for allowances to be disbursed following the allocation of extra duties. These delays frustrate and demotivate teachers, especially when repetitive paper work and document compilations are required to obtain these benefits. These practices were perceived to be time wasting and costly for teachers.

The evidence also shows that negotiations were sometime required to acquire allowances and benefits, and this process exacerbates teachers' dissatisfaction and frustration. Teachers blamed some of their colleagues for perpetuating this practice and criticised the management system's administrative procedures. Despite being criticised, these malpractices are perceived to be beneficial to some government officials who are alleged to manipulate and exploit these procedures fraudulently. The data also show that teachers are unhappy and concerned about this unhealthy practice (negotiations geared at securing and obtaining prescribed allowances). Where money is spent on negotiation, teachers experienced more dissatisfaction. The evidence suggests that these events encourage a culture of bribery and promote a sense of false entitlement (wanting to claim money spent through whatever means). Despite being a shared concern, the poor transport network makes the effects of the practice more acute in Ndian, because teachers in this region need to travel to Yaoundé (capital city) or Buea, incurring travel costs to claim these allowances. This adds to the rate of absence from work sites, which creates additional workloads within departments and may also mean that students miss lessons for an extended period.

This study's findings also confirm previous research that, in the face of financial adversities, teachers tend to seek alternative jobs to cater for their domestic needs (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Nbina 2010, Titanji 1994). This pattern is observable in Ndian and Fako, and echoes Titanji's (1994) finding that private tutoring was a commonly adopted strategy employed to raise extra income. Some teachers in Fako and Ndian instigated extra lessons for examination classes for which students (GCE candidates) were expected to contribute money or goods in exchange

for instruction. Teachers in Ndian were also more likely to seek other professions which offered better incentives and privileges. Since most of the teachers in Ndian are often posted far from their homes and families, this was regarded as a sacrifice that necessitates additional allowances to compensate for foregone job alternatives and disconnection from the main cities.

Government policy and system management

Dissatisfaction has also been linked to reforms and policy changes in many empirical studies in the UK and Africa, showing that policy changes negatively affects teachers' welfare and working conditions (Altinyelken 2010, Evans 2000, Fraser et al 1998, Merwe et al 2005). Rapid changes in policy have been cited to cause role ambiguity and complexity as well as frustration and stress to teachers (Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 2000, Smethem 2007, Travers and Cooper 1993). The present study confirms these views and also shows that teachers are not only dissatisfied with government policies, but with policy development and implementation.

In the author's quantitative study, two items (Q 6 and Q15) on the '*operational conditions sub scale*' on the job satisfaction section provided data on this factor. The mean scores for both Ndian and Fako ($M=8.97$ and $M=8.79$ respectively) revealed dissatisfaction with government policies. This finding supports the literature and shows that teachers are unhappy with many policies affecting the profession (Altinyelken 2010, Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 2000, Fraser et al 1998, Merwe et al 2005, Smethem 2007, Travers and Cooper 1993).

The qualitative data show that dissatisfaction with operational policies was not limited to the types of policies, but also linked to the formulation and implementation processes, as most of the policies are not perceived to help teachers' welfare. This finding supports earlier studies that suggest teachers are dissatisfied with policies that negatively affect teachers' welfare (Altinyelken 2010, Dinham and Scott 1998, Titanji 1994). Beside teachers' concern with the absence of support, especially with the implementation of certain policies, dissatisfaction was also linked to the lack of consultation with teachers.

Teachers in Fako voiced more dissatisfaction, than those in Ndian, with their limited influence over textbook selection, and with curriculum development and assessment formalities. Curriculum and assessment procedures are changed, without proper support to assist teachers to understand and implement them, causing frustration to teachers. The absence of in-service training exacerbated these concerns, increasing the disconnections between policy and practice. The author's evidence confirms Evans's (2000) and Traves and Cooper's (1993) studies, showing that teachers experience an increase in role ambiguity and role complexity as a result of such changes. Similar claims can also be found in Altinyelken (2010), Merwe et al (2005), and Rangraje et al (2005), affirming that teachers are dissatisfied with curriculum or pedagogic reforms and changes.

The study shows a consistent pattern of dissatisfaction in Fako and Ndian, with the schools struggling to sustain and manage the *No Child Left Behind* agenda that encourages students' mass promotion. Adopted from the promotion procedure used in elementary schools, this practice was identified to undermine both teachers' and

students' motivation. The implementation of this policy was perceived to denigrate the standards of education. Teachers felt it was unfair to hard working learners while encouraging lazy students.

The ban on corporal punishment was also identified as a source of dissatisfaction, but only in Ndian. Many teachers claimed that this policy undermined teachers' authority and the respect given to them by students. Female teachers were particularly concerned and reported that schools were fast becoming crowded with poorly behaved children. This policy, according to the teachers, has encouraged student delinquency, while handicapping teachers' ability to deal with student discipline issues and the learning environment. This also negatively affected teachers' self-confidence and motivation. The Ndian teachers, who were mostly inexperienced, perceived that their job would be less stressful if this policy was changed.

System management

Teachers in Africa have consistently reported concerns with administrative procedures governing resources (teachers, teaching materials and finances) and their management (Bennell 2004, Bennel and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). The perceived inefficiencies and poor system management structure are cited in the literature as sources of dissatisfaction and demotivation (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007).

The author's qualitative findings show that teachers are dissatisfied with the logistic operations and government policies governing teachers' deployment and transfers. The managerial procedures, especially those relating to human resource management,

are criticized for lacking accountability and transparency. Teachers cite the bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of the system to contribute to the slow and inefficient services. Dissatisfaction was also reported with the perceived irrational distribution of teaching resources among schools in Fako and Ndian. The teachers were unhappy because they perceived that their school was underequipped compared to others of the same type and in the same municipality. Drawing on Adams' (1963) equity theory, this finding suggests that teachers' motivation diminishes when comparisons of working conditions are deemed to be unfavourable. All the teachers, particularly those with extra administrative duties in Fako, were dissatisfied with this issue.

The disconnection between teachers' expectations, and the realities of the work context they encountered, was also at the centre of teachers' concerns. Unlike teachers in Ndian, who expressed concerns with deployment, only one teacher in Fako was negatively affected by deployment procedures. In Fako, the deployment of a mathematics teacher, trained under the Francophone education system, caused frustration and challenges to the teacher and colleagues. Similarly, NQTs deployed in Ndian were frustrated and demotivated by the unexpected challenges of the region, compared to towns or cities with better social amenities.

The perception that teachers' demographic information, particularly marital status, and ethnicity, were not considered during deployment also added to teachers' concerns. Generally, this study corroborates earlier claims that teachers deployed to rural areas are not satisfied with their posting (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002).

Workload and work convenience

Teacher workload and hours worked are recurrent issues in the literature (Barmby 2006, Butt and Lance 2005, Butt et al 2006, Evans 1998, Spear et al. 2000). The hours spent marking and compiling administrative documents, alongside student behaviour, have been internationally recognised to be concerns for teachers (Butt et al 2006, Barmby 2006). An additional consideration in Africa are the large class sizes (Altinyenlken 2010, Davidson 2007, George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994), exacerbated by students' misbehaviour (George and Mensah 2010). Workload as a stress inducer (Kyriacou 2001, Miler and Traves 2005) has also been highlighted as a factor that can discourage individuals from joining the profession (Barmby 2006, Davidson 2007). The present study confirms that workload has a negative impact on teachers' job satisfaction.

In the author's quantitative study, workload, measured using two items (Q 24 and Q31) of the '*operational conditions sub scale*', within the job satisfaction section, reveals dissatisfaction in Ndian and Fako. This shows that teachers are unhappy with the operational conditions of work (including workload), confirming much of the existing literature (Altinyenlken 2010, Barmby 2006, Butt and Lance 2005, Davidson 2007, Spear et al. 2000, Titanji 1994). The low teacher-student ratio, leading to large classes, and particularly acute in Ndian, could also partly explain dissatisfaction with workload. Large class size was perceived to constrain lesson delivery, while increasing teachers' stress, especially with the continuous assessment system. This finding is in line with other African studies (Altinyenlken 2010, George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994).

The *work convenience sub scale* in the work motivation section reveals ambivalent mean scores in Ndian ($M=13.91$) and Fako ($M=13.11$), which suggests that opinions and experiences varied considerably across the various dimensions of this sub scale (time compatibility, affinity to work schedule and holiday). The evidence shows that situational (married, area of residence etc.) and personal characteristics (e.g. gender) affected satisfaction. For instance, the work schedule (start and end of school day) and the long holidays were work elements that female teachers particularly liked, since it suited their domestic and personal responsibilities. The qualitative evidence further suggests that working hours and holidays evoked varied satisfaction or motivation, depending on the particular teacher.

Similarly, the distance between the teacher's residence and their school affected job satisfaction in Ndian and Fako. The journey to school was a main source of discomfort that resulted in unintended absences, disengaging behaviours and fatigue. The absence of reliable transport services in Ndian exacerbated dissatisfaction and had additional financial and risk implications for teachers. The finding supports the notion that teachers in rural areas are faced with more challenges than their urban counterparts in travelling to school (Bennell and Akyewampong 2007).

In contrast to teachers who were satisfied with their convenient and manageable workload, overburdened teachers reported fatigue and stress from workload. HoDs and English language teachers in Fako were the only group of teachers with a favourable workload and teaching hours (8 hours per week) compared to teachers in Ndian, with some having over 22 teaching hours. Staff shortage was also a pervasive issue for all departments in Ndian, which was also a problem for the chemistry and

mathematics departments in Fako. This supports Nbina's (2010) claim that the shortage of teachers in Nigeria, especially in Mathematics, is as a result of poor motivation and support, and also shows that science teachers are generally dissatisfied with workload. The author's qualitative evidence showed that Chemistry teachers were generally overstretched and overburdened with teaching hours exceeding 26 hours per week with additional laboratory sessions. These teachers reported the highest amount of stress, frustration and exhaustion from their work demands, and cited the extra time invested in preparing and executing laboratory sessions as central to their frustration. Generally, the findings suggest that teachers suffer from burnout and fatigue as a result of excessive workload and long working hours, confirming earlier research (Altinyenlken 2010, Barmby 2006, Davidson 2007, George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994).

School infrastructure and working conditions

UK and African studies suggest that dissatisfaction ensues when teachers' working conditions are perceived to be poor and unattractive (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Crossman and Harris 2006, Michaelowa 2002, Spear et al 2000). Under unfavourable working conditions (large classes, unavailable pedagogic resources and lack of support), teachers are likely to be underperforming with more work pressure, anxiety, stress and dissatisfaction (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Crossman and Harris 2006) and vice versa. According to Crossman and Harris (2006) and Sutcliffe (1997), UK teachers are dissatisfied working in schools that are underfunded or dilapidated. Media reports also suggest that strike actions in England have been related to teachers' working conditions (BBC 2014, Daily Mail Online 2014). Similarly, African teachers, particularly those in rural schools, are very dissatisfied with their school settings,

learning facilities and overall work context. Schools in Africa are often poorly constructed, with limited learning facilities and equipment (Adelabu 2005, Akiri and Ugborugb 2009, Bennel and Akyeampong 2007, World Bank 2004). These conditions, which also play an important role in teachers' decision to stay in, or leave the profession (Altinyelkin 2010, George and Mensah 2010, Titanji 1994), are also evident in the present study, which shows that teachers are discontented with their working conditions.

The author's quantitative evidence shows that teachers are dissatisfied with working operations as measured by the job satisfaction scale. However, question 31 of the work motivation section, which assessed teachers' physical working environment, revealed a consistent ambivalent mean in both Ndian and Fako ($M= 13.91$), suggesting that teachers' perceptions of their work setting were neither positive nor negative.

Conversely, the qualitative findings support Titanji's (1994), and Adelabu's (2005), evidence and shows that teachers are generally unhappy and dissatisfied with working conditions. Dissatisfaction is higher when teaching resources (textbooks, tables, cupboards and other facilities) are absent or inadequate. The inadequacy of teaching and other resources was particularly evident in Ndian where, for example, it was typical for teachers to work throughout the year with a single box of chalk. These conditions could partly explain teachers' preference to work in urban schools. This finding confirms previous research showing teachers to be dissatisfied with working conditions (Adelabu 2005, Akiri and Ugborugb 2009 Chireshe and Shumba 2011). Similar to Titanji's (1994) study, the data show that a few teachers across both

regions purchased teaching resources from their own income.

The school's infrastructure was also a source of dissatisfaction, particularly in Ndian. The poorly designed and equipped classrooms, and the background noise, caused widespread dissatisfaction. Both schools lacked a library, but the absence of electricity, portable water, and staff toilets were specific to the Ndian case study school. This finding echoes Titanji's (1994) study, which shows that the lack of library resources, adequate learning spaces and over-crowded classrooms were rated at the top of teachers' reasons for dissatisfaction.

The author's qualitative evidence shows that the communication channels within the school also influences satisfaction with working conditions. The *communication sub scale* on the job satisfaction section shows ambivalent scores with this factor in Ndian (M=11.46), and Fako (M=10.79). Although modest differences existed with the mean scores, the results were broadly similar. The centralized system of education in Cameroon, which operates communication channels that are predominantly top-down in nature, could partly account for these consistent results.

The author's qualitative evidence suggests that, though communication channels are predominantly unidirectional and top-down, the adopted style in Fako was perceived to be open, with a feedback loop, which encouraged a shared understanding of school values and operations. The greater dissatisfaction in Ndian was based on the top-down unidirectional communication style teachers experienced, particularly from the principal. This finding suggests that principals have the potential to influence the communication and networking system even in centralised contexts.

Environmental factors and safety issues

Environmental factors, especially geo-political elements, have been cited to affect teachers' job satisfaction in Africa (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michealowa 2002). The geographical setting, and particularly the rural or urban context, also impact on teachers, particularly those in Africa.

Teachers in Ndian experienced more challenges from the environmental and geographical landscape (harsh weather and tough terrain) than their colleagues in Fako. The NQTs, in particular, perceived the environmental factors in Ndian to be negative and life threatening, as a result of the security situation in Bakassi. In contrast, the urban location of Fako, linked to the calm coastal weather, led to teacher satisfaction. This confirms Monyatsi's (2012) finding, in Botswana, that teachers are motivated to work in safe areas. The presence of higher education institutes and social amenities could also account for satisfaction with the environment in Fako. Ndian teachers reported higher levels of physical and emotional exhaustion from the environmental challenges, exacerbated by the unfavourable weather, bad roads and absence of social amenities. These conditions eroded motivation and discouraged both untrained and qualified teachers working in Ndian.

The tension in the Bakassi peninsula in Ndian led to teachers' uncertainty with security issues. The fear of possible attacks and kidnaps were at the heart of teachers' concerns with safety. This finding suggests that even the most enthusiastic teachers experienced demotivation and supports Masitsa's (2011) argument that, if the level of insecurity is high, teachers will leave the profession

Parents' socio-economic status

Although much has been written about the influence of parents' socioeconomic status on teachers' job satisfaction in the US, this has received very little attention in African and UK Studies.

The author's qualitative evidence shows that parents' weak socioeconomic status negatively influenced teachers' satisfaction and motivation indirectly, since it had a bearing on learners' academic performance and behaviour. Although dissatisfaction was more modest in Fako, teachers' concerns with this issue were pervasive, because it affected the perceived commitment of parents to students' education and learning needs. The predominant socioeconomic activities in Ndian and Fako, which partly accounts for parents' income level, influenced why dissatisfaction was lower in Fako than in Ndian. The administrative landscape and strategic position of Fako suggests that more parents are involved in higher income earning jobs than those in Ndian.

Concerns with parents' socio-economic status show that teachers are unhappy with the level of investment in education from parents, especially in the provision of learners' textbooks. Lack of learning materials undermined teachers' motivation and was also perceived to constrain students' academic progress and overall performance. In Fako, in particular, the evidence suggests that parents do not readily invest in the educational needs of their children, which leaves many students attending lessons without textbooks and writing materials.

School leadership

Leadership is acknowledged to possess motivational potential that can affect satisfaction and performance (Dinham 2005, Evans 1998, George et al 2008, Malakolunthu et al 2014). UK and African studies have established an association

between leadership and teachers' job satisfaction as well as work motivation (Dinham 2005, Evan 1998, 1999, Evans and Johnson 1990, Singh and Manser 2008).

International research has identified the principal's attitude, behaviours, leadership style, and role in encouraging instructional practice and managing change, to directly affect teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation (Butt et al 2005, Evan 1998, Dinham 2005, Mercer and Evans 1991, Singh and Manser 2008, Babatope and Hezekiah's 2013). Empirical studies in Africa show inconclusive findings, with some reporting satisfaction with leadership (Babatope and Hezekiah's 2013, Nguni et al 2006, Singh and Manser 2008, Titanji 1994), while others show dissatisfaction (Ariko and Simatwa 2011, Rangraje et al 2008). The present study also shows that leaders' influence on teachers' job satisfaction varied across the schools and depended on the principal's leadership behaviours. The study supports Evans's (1998) argument that school leadership is one of the most significant school-based factors that influences teachers' job satisfaction, either positively or negatively. It also reflects other African studies which have shown inconclusive reports on the relationship between leadership and teachers' job satisfaction. This may be attributed partly to the absence of leadership institutions in Africa, notably in Cameroon, where principals can be trained and equipped with school leadership skills, principles and strategies (Bush and Glover 2013). The study also supports Titanji's (1994) comment that principals are selected on their years of teaching experience or seniority rather than on their leadership capability.

The quantitative evidence, which focused on the supervisory and supportive role of the principal, shows that the *supervision subscale* recorded the highest mean score overall (Fako M=12.29 and Ndain M=12.69). Ranked first of the nine facets of job satisfaction in both regions, with satisfactory means, this finding shows that teachers

believed that their principal was competent and fair. This finding links to Babatope and Hezekiah's (2013) study in Nigeria, which shows that the principal's supervisory role was perceived to have a positive impact on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

In contrast, the qualitative evidence shows disparities between teachers' perceptions of leadership, showing satisfaction in Fako and dissatisfaction in Ndian. The provision of praise and positive feedback to teachers, after each administrative evaluation in Fako, was cited to be a source of great satisfaction with the principal's supervisory role. This supports Monyatsi's (2012) finding that, alongside teachers' perception of their supervisors being skilled and knowledgeable, the praise they received from their supervisor yields satisfaction. In contrast, the evidence from Ndian shows that dissatisfaction with leadership was linked to the absence of positive feedback and support. Evaluations in Ndian did not lead to favourable administrative actions in line with teachers' expectations (additional incentives or promotions) and this eroded their motivation. These evaluations were perceived to be boring, unnecessary, time consuming formalities. This supports Altinyelkkin's (2010) view that teachers often perceive supervision as an administrative intervention established to reduce absenteeism, or as unnecessary controls.

Although principals retained much of the power to influence the school's culture and micro-politics, the behaviours of other members of the leadership (administrative) team also contributed to teachers' overall satisfaction. Despite inconclusive results, satisfaction with the collective leadership was more positive in Fako than in Ndian, suggesting that leadership influence is no longer limited to a single leader (the

principal). This suggests that some aspects of distributed leadership are practiced in secondary schools, since the principal's role is becoming more complex and demanding in the 21st century (Bush 2013).

Teachers in Fako shared a collective sense of satisfaction with their principal's leadership approach and style compared to their counterparts in Ndian, who reported more mixed views. The principal in Fako was perceived to be an inspirational and transformational leader who enthused teachers to improve their teaching practices and behaviours. Alongside the flexible use of recognition and appreciation mechanisms, her leadership style was perceived to be friendly, caring, and supportive. This finding supports Enueme and Egwunyenga's (2008) study that identified the principal's instructional role, including promoting professional development, to be a great source of encouragement and motivation for teachers. It is also in line with findings which suggest that teachers are satisfied with principals who encourage positive working relationships through verbal or written messages (Titanji's 1994), as well as supporting collegiality and assisting teachers to achieve personal accomplishments (Brackett et al. 2010).

Unlike the seemingly transformational leadership experienced in Fako, the leadership style in Ndian was perceived to be more authoritative, directive and non-consultative. Even though opinions differed modestly, the majority dissatisfaction with leadership in Ndian was linked to the principal's lack of collegiality, failure to incorporate NQTs' opinions, inability to empower and encourage teachers to take initiatives and to participate in decision-making. The principal's inability to act as a team player was also perceived to considerably reduce teachers' motivation and self-worth. This finding is in line with earlier studies which showed that principals who do not create

working environments where teachers feel valued, and respected as professionals with the capacity to influence their schools, led to dissatisfaction (Arikio and Simawa 2011, Rangraje et al 2005, Titanji 1994, Wanzare 2012). This finding also connects with Van der Vyver *et al*'S. (2013) study in South Africa, which reports that, principal's lack of emotional intelligence, and inability to show interest, inspire, and support teachers, led to dissatisfaction.

The principals' personality traits and behavioural attributes, as well as the contextual setting within which these schools operated, could partly explain the variations in the impact of leadership. The author's field notes show that the principal in Fako adopted a more engaging approach, from which collaboration and active staff engagement ensued, as a result of available administrative support and the fairly stable state of the school. In contrast, the principal in Ndian adopted a more directive approach and spent more time in the office focusing on managerial issues. Features and words attributed to the principal's leadership in Fako include fairness, open communication, instructionally supportive, active presence on campus, collaborative, friendly, collegiality and teamwork. Conversely, reported characteristics in Ndian include authoritative, unfairness, less supportive, inability to support teachers over school discipline and student misbehaviour, and poor team player. This finding supports the view of Dinham and Scott (2002) that principals' ability to make teachers feel part of a collegial and supportive working environment, with a focus on improving instructional practice, is fundamental to improving teachers' satisfaction.

Field note evidence shows that the distinctive rural-urban, physical and operational context of both schools (Ndian and Fako) could partly account for the different

priorities and focus each principal adopted, which subsequently shaped teachers' experience with leadership. These schools operated under seemingly similar administrative settings, but managerial challenges such as claiming teachers' salaries, absenteeism, staffing issues and inadequate teaching resources, were specific to the Ndian school. It is possible that the principal in Ndian adopted a more managerial approach to leadership than the Fako principal, as a result of these challenging circumstances. This would suggest that the principal in Ndian had less time for monitoring and supporting teachers in their instructional practices compared to his counterpart in Fako. The government's perceived neglect of rural schools may have compounded these leadership challenges.

There was also inconsistency between the two regions in respect of teachers' and principals' perceptions of the latter's influence on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. The perceptions were consistent in Fako and showed that teachers and the principal recognised the positive influence and support teachers experienced from leadership. In contrast, the Ndian teachers reported less support from their principal than the latter's claims. This finding supports previous evidence that principals often over-rated the support provided to teachers compared to what teachers actually experience (Van der Vyver et al. 2013).

The provision of incentives by the principals, and the interpersonal relationships they shared with teachers, were common sources of satisfaction across both regions, though to a lesser extent in Ndian. This is consistent with Titanji's (1994) study, which shows that many teachers are satisfied with the interpersonal relationships with their principals. It also corroborates Evans's (1991) claim that, although there are

limits to what may be achieved, institutional leaders have the scope to redress the negative effects teachers encounter in their work.

Involvement in decision-making

The extent to which teachers participate in shaping the micro-politics of their school is widely recognised as a factor affecting job satisfaction (Dinham 2005, Dinham and Scott 1998, 2000, Evans 1998, Harris 2006, Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978, Rangraje et al 2005, Titanji 1994). African studies have associated teachers' participation in decision-making with the principal's leadership style and power structures. Rangraje et al (2005), for example, report that teachers are dissatisfied with their lack of participation. An additional consideration is that male teachers appear to be more interested in decision-making activities than women (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978, Titanji 1994, Travers and Cooper 1993).

This study supports the literature and shows that, although participation in decision-making was limited in Ndian, teachers in Fako were given sufficient opportunities to be involved in decision-making. In line with Travers and Cooper's (1993) claim, the qualitative evidence shows that male teachers desire more opportunities to influence decisions taken at the school. Young male teachers were most dissatisfied with the limited opportunity to participate in decision-making activities and reported more dissatisfaction than women. Similar to Harris's (2006) view that lack of participation eroded teachers' professional autonomy, the author's evidence shows that teachers' exclusion from decision-making undermined teachers' self-confidence, efficacy and professional capability. Teachers in Ndian reported a decrease in their creativity and problem solving potential as a result of this barrier, which also strained collegiality and collaboration amongst the teachers. This supports Kyriacou and Sutcliffe's (1978)

study, which shows that male teachers are more dissatisfied with their lack of participation in decision-making. This finding could also link to Fraser et al's (1998) research, which posits that female teachers find satisfaction with recognition while men focus more on their influence over school policies.

Similar to Rangraje et al's (2005) argument that the principal's leadership style could affect the extent of teachers' involvement in decision-making, the author's evidence showed that leadership and social power structures indirectly affected teachers' participatory role in decision-making. In Fako, satisfaction was linked to the principal's consultative and collaborative approach, which encouraged teachers' participation in decision-making. This finding corroborates Butt et al's (2005) claim that, regardless of teachers' gender, age or experience, satisfaction levels are higher for teachers who identify with increased autonomy as a result of their personal involvement in the change process.

The deep-seated cultural belief that young people should respect their elders emerged as a source of dissatisfaction. NQTs were particularly challenged by this cultural belief, which hindered their desire to question the principal's authority and led to their exclusion from decision-making activities. Similar claims are found in Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010), who argued that most Nigerian schools are encroached within an authoritarian culture, which is observed in everyday life, in which a deep reverence for age and authority prevails. This cultural dimension disfavoured young male teachers in Ndian who were often unable to question their superiors on issues that affected their work. This issue was much less prominent in Fako which could be attributed to leadership and the demographic characteristics of teachers in Fako, who are predominantly older teachers with many years of teaching experience. The male-

dominant society experienced in most African countries, as noted by Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010), could also account for this finding in Ndian.

Status and professionalism

The declining professional status of teaching is increasingly becoming an international concern (Adelabu 2005, Boreham et al 2006, Dinham and Scott 2004, Mtika and Gates 2001, Spear et al, Titanji 1994, Towse et al 2002). These concerns are linked to societal perceptions, expectations and comparisons with other professions (Azare 1992, Spear et al 2000, Hargreaves et al 2006). The decline in the perceived social standing of teachers, compared to that of other professions, shows that teaching is losing professional standing (Azare 1992, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Travers and Cooper 1993, Hargreaves et al, 2006). The present study supports this claim, corroborating Evans's (2000) point that the decline in their professional status undermines teachers' morale, job satisfaction and motivation.

Although perceptions varied considerably, the author's study suggests that teachers were generally unhappy with the limited respect accorded to the profession, from students, colleagues, superiors and the community. The evidence shows that teaching is regarded as a low status profession compared to that of other public servants. Similar to Azare's (1992) argument, that teaching was viewed as one of the most underrated professions in Nigeria, teachers in the present study feel that they are undervalued.

Compared to Fako, despite the collective dissatisfaction with their declining professional status, teachers in Ndian were slightly happier with the respect they

received from their community. The dissatisfaction supports Bennell and Akyeampong's (2007) point that teachers in the 21st century no longer enjoy the high social and professional standing experienced in the 1970s and 1980s. It also lends support to Evans and Olumide-Aluko's (2010) view that there has been a shift in the way African societies and teachers of the 21st century perceive their profession and the rewards of the job. Harsh economic conditions have inclined societies to rely on money as the main motivator and basis on which social and professional status is judged. It is plausible to argue that financial needs have undermined societal values, such that respect is focused on those who possess more material and financial wealth.

Perceptions that the profession was no longer sought for its status, but rather for economic reasons, was also a cause for dissatisfaction for teachers who expressed a passion for the profession. The recruitment formalities, and the ways in which individuals accessed the profession, were perceived to contribute to its low public status. This finding supports the views of Bennell and Akyeampong (2007), and Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010), that teaching has lost its professional value and status, because it is being perceived as a last resort job, which young school leavers and graduates turn to in order to escape unemployment. This is particularly evident in Ndian, where a shortage of teachers led school authorities to recruit any available candidate to ensure that schools operate normally.

Teachers with particular personal or professional characteristics also attracted discrimination. In Fako, a teacher with albinism faced stigmatisation and challenges interacting with students, which had negative implications for lesson delivery and student engagement. Similarly, a French trained mathematics teacher faced huge

challenges accessing extra professional support as a result of his deployment to an English language school. These examples suggest that teachers who possessed unusual features or characteristics faced difficulties integrating with the school and the wider education community.

The perceived absence of professional and social support from the government, teachers' unions and society were cited as elements that have cemented the negative perceptions of the profession. The inefficiencies of the education system, and its bureaucratic nature, with politicians who were perceived to lack the zeal to elevate the profession's declining status, were central to teachers' dissatisfaction. Teachers believed that the profession was not given as much attention as other civil services, leading many teachers, particularly those in Ndian, to feel neglected and abandoned.

Some teachers believe that the conduct of teachers themselves contributes to the profession's declining status. Teachers claim that some of their colleagues have developed inappropriate unethical and non-collaborative behaviours on campus and in public, such as disrespecting colleagues, use of abusive language, and engaging in fraudulent activities. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) reported similar issues and noted that misconduct has become a challenging issue for education authorities. Despite teachers desire to be role models, these unprofessional and unethical behaviours undermined the respect the profession commands, even among teachers themselves. The, collection of bribes for assessment marks, and other inappropriate behaviours, were key aspects of dissatisfaction.

Intrinsic Themes

The next section of this chapter focuses on the intrinsic themes.

Co-workers

Relationships with co-workers, is one of the most cited factors in the job satisfaction literature (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Altiyelkin 2010, Butt et al. 2005, Dinham and Scott 2000, Monyastsi 2012, Spear et al 2000, Titanji 1994). The literature shows that working with collaborative colleagues, and sharing healthy interpersonal relationships, is at the heart of teachers' satisfaction with co-workers. However, it is also recognised that, when these factors are unfavourable, teachers are dissatisfied. Studies from western and African studies show that teachers enjoy working in schools with co-workers who are amicable, collegial, supportive and collaborative (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 2000, Monyastsi 2012, Titanji 1994). The interpersonal relationships teachers share with their learners also has motivational potential (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham 1995, Titanji 1994). The author's quantitative and qualitative evidence strongly supports these views.

The *co-worker* and *interpersonal orientation sub scales* of the job satisfaction and work motivation sections registered mean scores showing that teachers are satisfied with co-workers and feel motivated by the relationships they share. This finding corroborates Titanji's (1994) study, as well as the wider literature, that teachers enjoy working with co-workers and students with whom they share good interpersonal relationships (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Monyatsi 2012).

The qualitative evidence shows that teachers actively seek to foster and enjoy healthy relationships with their colleagues beyond the school. The teachers enjoy working with co-workers who share similar social interests and are considered to be

trustworthy. For example, sharing a drink over a football match after a day's work was one aspect common to Ndian and Fako. Similar to the insights from Dinham (1995) and Titanji (1994), teachers are satisfied with friendship ties, within and beyond the workplace, that are grounded in mutual trust, respect and support. In Ndian, teachers were particularly dependent on these social ties for financial and social support. This shows that relatedness and belongingness were central to teachers' satisfaction in respect of co-workers. Teachers who were satisfied working with their colleagues experienced higher intrinsic motivation, as well as an increase in their engagement and commitment. This lends support to Alderfer's (1969) view that humans are eager to associate and desire to maintain important interpersonal relationships.

In general, teachers in the study emphasized the social benefits associated within work settings that cultivate healthy interpersonal relations and camaraderie, which they shared and nurtured through their daily interactions. Teachers in Ndian expressed a stronger inclination than those in Fako towards interpersonal bonds that led to community building. This is because social ties were perceived to be mutually helpful in minimizing the difficulties and challenges teachers in Ndian encounter as a result of the unfavourable socioeconomic landscape and family disconnection.

Another recurrent element in Fako and Ndian was the belief that, if teachers bonded (have positive and healthy relationships) with their students, they were more likely to motivate and foster students' interest in learning. Through these relationships, teachers were able to understand their students' preferred learning styles, and identify better ways to overcome learning barriers, which eventually yield better academic outcomes and subsequently high job satisfaction and motivation. In line with Butt et

al's (2005) study, this finding shows that teachers' sense of satisfaction and motivation is embedded in the beneficial effects of working and connecting with children within an ethical framework.

School culture

It is recognised in the literature that job satisfaction is influenced by school culture, which is also cited to contribute to the micro-politics teachers experience at their school (Evans 1998). This also links to other school related variables such as communication systems and operations (Dinham and Scott 2004)

The author's data show that teachers are motivated and happy to work in a school environment that promotes a culture of collaboration, collegiality, and open communication. The school's culture positively contributed to teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in Ndian and Fako. Although teachers identified work cultures that promote collaboration, openness and trust, the evidence shows that the perceptions and experiences of these elements varied across the case study schools. The evidence from Fako suggests that the work atmosphere teachers experienced was more relaxed, collaborative, professionally and socially supportive, with a focus on pedagogy, than that experienced in Ndian. This difference was partly attributed to the style of leadership and communication in the two schools. In Ndian, the principal's interpersonal relationship with staff, and the communication style employed, appeared to have adversely impacted on the school's culture. This finding supports Evans's (1998) claim that leadership determines the micro-politics of the school, which eventually shapes the school culture (Dinham and Scott 2004).

Although government schools follow a similar pattern of operation, the findings suggest that the leadership style enacted is a significant factor that shapes the culture

of the school. Unlike in Ndian, the strong positive culture in Fako was attributed to the principal, who promoted professional value and norms, especially collaboration and excellence in pedagogy.

Indigenes' attitudes towards education

The author's evidence suggests that indigenes' perceptions and attitudes to education were partly influenced by their socioeconomic activities. In Ndian for example, indigenes' economic survival (food and income) is heavily reliant on their economic opportunities (dominated by agriculture, hunting and fishing). Indigenes' heavy reliance on these activities reduces the value they place on education, and this is particularly unfavourable for girls. Activities such as harvests and fishing seasons were counterproductive to the school's timetable, causing dissatisfaction for teachers, because of a decrease in the school's enrolment during such periods. This is because students' prolonged absences affect the school's enrolment, which also has a bearing on teachers' termly remuneration. For example, NQTs and PTA teachers' incentives in Ndian depends on the student population for the school because, the higher the the student population, the higher the incentive and vice versa. This partly explains why concerns with indigenes' attitude toward education were significantly higher in Ndian than in Fako.

Indigenes' perceptions of education, especially with regard to its short or long term returns, were elements of concern to teachers. Dissatisfaction was also linked to parents' myopic view of the value of education, since its immediate benefits did not help in solving their daily needs and demands. This has also contributed to the gender disparity in the number of students who enrol in school, since parents feel more secure investing in a boy than a girl's education. These findings are echoed in Bennell

and Akyeapong (2007), and also suggest that parents' educational background exacerbates these perceptions and attitudes. The high unemployment rates among young graduates cement these myopic perspectives of the value of education.

Most families depend on their children to contribute to some of these economic activities (manual labour, harvesting or selling) and this also had a disruptive impact on learning and students' achievement. Students' absences, especially during harvest seasons, negatively affected students' interest in education, and their performance, which also eroded teachers' motivation. This supports studies in Tanzania (Dachi and Garrett 2003) and Botswana (Molefe et al.2009), showing that children in rural schools are often involved in manual labour during term time and sometimes face the dilemma of having to drop out of school to support their families.

Generally, the study shows that low parental engagement and involvement increases teachers' dissatisfaction, which widens the gap between schools and parents. The lack of parental support in managing learning and difficult students' behaviour were central to these complaints. This finding suggests that teachers believe that parents' involvement in the school can positively affect learning outcomes and their job satisfaction.

Student-related factors

Working with students, making significant contributions to their learning, and helping them develop better skills, attitudes and behaviours, are internationally known to contribute to teachers' passion for teaching (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 1998; Scott et al 1999; Spear et al 2000). Teachers experience more satisfaction, and feel very motivated, when their students successfully understand learning objectives and complete learning tasks (Addison and Brundrett 2008).

Despite these intrinsic reasons for choosing the profession, students' attitudes towards learning and behaviour may also adversely affect teachers' motivation and satisfaction (Michaelowa 2002, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007).

The present study also shows that students' academic outcomes, attitudes to learning, and behaviour, are factors that affect satisfaction. Teachers generally take pride in their students' achievements and cite it as a powerful motivator. Satisfaction with students' academic outcomes was significant because it provides an indirect measure of teacher's performance and efficacy. Teachers were likely to experience more satisfaction, self-pride and commitment when students successfully achieve desirable learning goals and performed well in national exams (GCEs). This finding corroborates previous studies, which show students' achievements are great sources of motivation and satisfaction for teachers (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 1998, Spear et al 2006). However, demotivation and dissatisfaction ensues when students perform poorly.

Students' interest in learning, as well as their aptitude and attitudes, were identified to impact on job satisfaction. Negative attitudes to learning undermined teachers' commitment and drive. In Ndiya, particularly, teachers were concerned about students' learning attitudes and capacity. This supports Michaelowa's (2002) study, which shows that the aptitude level of learners affects teachers' motivation. Collectively, teachers link satisfaction to students' behaviour and interest to learn. This finding demonstrates that teachers' are more likely to be satisfied and motivated when working with academically focused, obedient and well-behaved students.

Managing poor student behaviour, conduct and discipline problems were major issues of concern to teachers generally, although female teachers in Ndian were most affected, and served to cause stress and frustration. This finding confirms earlier studies linking student behaviour and teacher stress (e.g. Butt and Lance 2005). The author's research suggests that, besides the undermining effect on teachers' motivation and satisfaction, managing student misbehaviour imposes a challenge for teachers' psychological, social and physical welfare.

Teaching orientation

The literature shows that the profession is often chosen for the love of teaching, alongside other non-monetary features and values (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Bennell and Akyeapong 2007, Spear et al 2000, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007, Titanji 1994). Opportunities to impart knowledge, interact with learners, and seeing learners' achieve and grow, as well as teachers' self-development, are some of the most recurrent themes in the Western and African literature. Teaching is internationally recognized as possessing intrinsic and altruistic dimensions that are powerful motivators for teachers (Barmby 2006, Dinham and Scott 1998, Scott et al 1999, Titanji 1994). The current study confirms this view, showing that teaching itself is a powerful source of motivation, from which teachers derive meaningful social and psychological benefits.

The author's quantitative evidence shows that *the nature of work* sub scale of job satisfaction in Fako and Ndian reveals ambivalent perceptions with this dimension. This could be because, while teachers' propensity to teach is high, their evaluation and experiences of teaching is more negative. It could also partly be attributed to the

reported lack of professional and social support available to teachers. The work motivation section is less ambiguous, as the mean scores registered for the *altruistic subscale* for both regions suggest teachers are highly motivated and happy with teaching ($M=17.01$ and $M=17.91$). This suggests that teachers are generally motivated with these orientations (love for teaching, subject mastery and growth), supporting previous studies by Addison and Brundrett (2008), Barmby (2006), Scott et al. (1999) and Titanji (1994).

The qualitative evidence indicates that a sense of patriotism and national development also drives teachers' motivation. The teachers, particularly those in Ndian, understood the importance of their job for society. This corroborates Hackman and Oldman's (1976) view, that employees experience motivation when they understand the significance of their task or job. Despite the difficult conditions in Ndian and Fako, teachers felt a strong obligation to contribute to the economic growth of the nation by educating young people.

The author's findings show that teachers are generally satisfied with their opportunity to deliver lessons, and to impart knowledge, as well as to develop intellectually and socially. Teachers' altruistic drive to transmit knowledge, and inspire young minds, was also strengthened by a sense of pride and patriotism. Despite these views, teaching was also physically challenging, particularly for teachers in Ndian, who worked under difficult circumstances. The physical challenges of teaching were a major source of dissatisfaction. First, teachers, particularly in Ndian, felt over stretched and stressed in teaching large classes with minimal support. This finding supports Travers and Cooper's (1996) study, that teachers dealing with large classes,

who also lack support and resources, are likely to suffer from occupational stress. It also confirms studies that have reported teaching to be very dissatisfying under such conditions (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Spear et al 2000).

Secondly, the nature of teaching also led to dissatisfaction. Linked to Nbina's (2010) study in Nigeria, which shows that teachers are unhappy with having very few practical sessions with students, the Fako evidence shows that chemistry teachers are dissatisfied because of the absence of practical sessions. In Ndian, teachers' involvement in extracurricular activities, particularly farm work, led to dissatisfaction. As Hackman and Lawler (1971) point out, job characteristics can clearly affect employees' attitude and behaviour at work, and dissatisfaction in Ndian seems to be linked to this premise.

Mastery, efficacy and intellectual growth

Motivation and satisfaction have also been associated with teachers' desire for personal and intellectual growth (Scott et al 1999). The desire for subject mastery and professional growth are recurrent themes in research in England and Africa (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 1998). Although challenging, teaching is universally perceived to be intellectually stimulating, interesting and worthwhile (Spear et al 2000, Titanji 1994). The present study supports this literature, and shows that motivation and satisfaction depend on whether and how teachers' desire for subject mastery, efficacy and intellectual growth are met or satisfied.

The author's quantitative data show that the *personal orientation* and *professional orientation* sub scales of the work motivation section show that teachers are

motivated with these dimensions of their job. The mean scores for personal orientation in Ndian (M= 16.1) and professional orientation (M= 15.2), and in Fako (M= 15.6 and M= 15.9), show that teachers are motivated by the desire for knowledge, mastery and intellectual growth, with only modest differences between the two regions and the two sub-scales.

The qualitative evidence shows that, generally, satisfaction was greater with cognitive activities, such as answering students' questions and providing new knowledge, despite associated challenges. Teachers were happy with the sense of efficacy and the intellectual benefits these exchanges provided. Having the responsibility and ability to be creative was also perceived to be very satisfying and motivating. Opportunities to share knowledge, and nurture intellect, creativity and self-confidence were at the heart of teachers' satisfaction. This finding supports earlier research showing that teachers are satisfied with their degree of autonomy and responsibility (George et al 2008, Titanji 1994). The study also shows that teachers derived satisfaction from their activities being meaningful and their responsibility for shaping the learner and the learning environment. This also fuelled teachers' commitment and desire to improve subject mastery.

Career profile, advancement and promotion

Opportunities for professional development, promotion prospects and career advancement all affect job satisfaction, according to research from England and Africa (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Evans 1998, Scott et al 1999, Mtika and Gates 2011, Titanji 1994). Dissatisfaction with these issues reduces job satisfaction and these problems are more acute in Africa (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe 1978, Spear et al

2000). In particular, promotion procedures have been criticized in African studies for lacking transparency and objectivity (Mtika and Gates 2011, Titanji 1994). The present study is consistent with the literature, and shows that teachers are concerned about their career prospects. It also affirms that, because promotions lead to extra allowances, benefits and prestige, teachers experience satisfaction when promoted.

The author's quantitative evidence shows that teachers are dissatisfied with promotion prospects. Ranked 7th in Ndian (M=8.8, SD=2.3), and 9th in Fako (M=8.2, SD=21), the mean scores clearly show collective dissatisfaction with the '*promotion sub scale*'. Perceptions that promotion prospects were limited were widespread. Similarly, the qualitative evidence shows that the profession's career path is perceived to be unattractive, compared to other professions, causing dissatisfaction. Teachers claimed that the job had a very poorly designed career profile, and lacked a transparent advancement path. These perceptions led to dissatisfaction for teachers. In particular, the most qualified teachers in Fako felt that their career was stagnant. These findings are similar to Monyasti's (2012) report from Botswana, that teaching is perceived as a dead-end job. It also corroborates other studies which show that teachers are unhappy with career advancement and promotion opportunities (Ariko and Simatwa 2011, Titanji 1994, Traves and Cooper 1993, Hargreaves et al 2006).

The disparity between notional promotion requirements and the reality was a source of great dissatisfaction to teachers. First, there is dissatisfaction with the appointment of principals, which is perceived to be non-transparent, poor and politicized. Second, many teachers taught for most of their career without being promoted, despite satisfying the promotion criteria.

Teachers with a similar or lower profile (in terms of length of service) were perceived to obtain promotions through unethical means, an additional source of dissatisfaction for teachers. This supports Titanji's (1994) claim that teachers are dissatisfied with their promotion prospects and that other teachers use their networks (connections) at the ministry to obtain these positions. This finding suggests that the education system is characterized by a weak accountability culture, with a poor promotion scheme for school leaders, since it does not fully recognise the skills sets, qualities and attributes of those it promotes.

In-service training

Although more opportunities for in-service training exist in Fako, the overall perception is that teachers are not offered opportunities for professional development programmes on an on-going basis. Pedagogic seminars were perceived as annual events, with little or no feedback loop on teachers' learning needs or development. The absence of feedback channels, focusing on teachers' development, progress and performance, were sources of dissatisfaction. The evidence also shows that pedagogic inspections (supervision), geared at supporting teachers' learning needs, were limited and often occurred only once a year. Similarly, Titanji and Yuoh (2010) found that pedagogic inspections in Cameroon are very limited. .

Teachers in Fako and Ndian were also disgruntled that other civil professions appeared to have more learning options, and professional development opportunities, than teaching. In addition, teachers in Ndian were further limited by their rural locality. The absence of alternative career paths, especially promotion opportunities,

and lateral mobility (knowledge and capacity building) undermined teachers' satisfaction and reduces the profession's attractiveness.

Recognition and appreciation

Globally, recognition and appreciation are key motivators for teachers (Ariko and Simatwa 2011, Dinham and Scott 2004, George et al 2008, Greenglass and Burke 2003, Spear et al 2000, Titanji 1994). Teachers feel satisfied and motivated when honoured and appreciated for the work they do. Verbal or non-verbal forms of appreciation, recognising teachers' work and performance, are strong motivators, especially when provided by the immediate supervisor or authority (Nguni et al 2008, Titanji 1994). In their absence as Rangraje et al (2005) argue, dissatisfaction ensues.

The author's qualitative evidence shows that informal (verbal) and formal letters of recognition were valuable motivators for teachers. This finding supports earlier studies that show recognition and appreciation to be a major part of the motivation and satisfaction equation (Dinham and Scott 2004, George et al 2008, Greenglass and Burke 2003, Spear et al 2000, Titanji 1994). Recognition from the principal, in particular, positively influenced teachers' enthusiasm, commitment and loyalty. However, the absence of appreciation and recognition from the Ministry, and the wider society, causes much dissatisfaction and demotivation. This evidence confirms earlier findings from Tanzania, that the level of individualized consideration for teachers, especially appreciation at the school level, is weak (Nguni et al 2008).

Although modest satisfaction was recorded across both regions, that in Fako arose from recognition from the principal, while satisfaction in Ndian was linked to praise teachers received from the community. Teachers generally expressed satisfaction

with the recognition and praise they received from their ex-students, especially those who had graduated and were successful. Such recognition boosted teachers' self-image and pride as educators. This links to Addison and Brundrett's (2008) study, which suggests that teachers who receive positive feedback from children perceive it as a motivator.

Overview

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the findings in Fako and Ndian, as presented in the four previous chapters, linked to the empirical literature. The chapter identifies intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation. Overall, the quantitative data suggest that satisfaction is lower in Fako ($M=89.5$, $SD=10.9$) than in Ndian ($M=91.2$, $SD=9.3$). Similarly, scores for overall work motivation shows that teachers in Ndian ($M=104$, $SD=8.3$) are slightly more motivated than their counterparts in Fako ($M=101$, $SD=9.7$), despite the challenges of working in this rural context.

The thematic analysis of the main factors influencing satisfaction and motivation reveals that teachers are particularly concerned with pay, allowances, working condition, the status of the profession, and career profile, as well as their promotion prospects. Teachers are much more satisfied with the supervisory role of the principal in Fako than in Ndian. In both regions, teachers are very satisfied with the interpersonal relationships with co-workers and the intellectual aspects of the job (teaching itself).

Among the demographic variables investigated, only teachers' gender in Ndian showed a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction, while the null

hypotheses were accepted for teachers' gender, age, qualifications, length of service and official rank in both regions. The study also shows that, as well as teachers' altruistic and intrinsic orientation to the profession, the most significant motivating factors for teachers were appreciation, recognition, students' achievement, subject-mastery and efficacy.

The next chapter will present the conclusion, show how the research questions were answered and discuss the significance of the study.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the major findings of the study and draws from the discussion presented in the previous chapter, to provide answers to the research questions presented in chapter one. The chapter discusses the significance and limitations of the study, and also outlines certain recommendations for research, policy and practice in Cameroon.

This study sought to establish the level of secondary school teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in the South West region of Cameroon, as well as to investigate the factors that affected these two variables. The author utilised a sequential mixed methods design to obtain data for the study. The quantitative phase (survey) elicited data from 265 teachers from 20 schools to establish levels of job satisfaction and work motivation. Interviews and field notes were used during the qualitative phase from two schools (one in Fako and another in Ndian) to provide insights into the factors affecting job satisfaction and work motivation. This study provided answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?
2. What is the level of motivation among secondary school teachers?
3. What are the specific factors influencing intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?
4. What are the specific factors influencing extrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?

The next section will present the answers to these research questions.

Research question 1: What is the level of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers?

Although the primary purpose of this question was to establish teachers' level of job satisfaction, in Ndian and Fako, it also sought to provide answers to five hypotheses, which enabled the author to decipher whether any statistically significant relationships existed between teachers' demographic characteristics (age, gender, qualification, length of service and rank) job satisfaction.

Drawing from the overall job satisfaction mean scores in Fako ($M=89.5$, $SD=10.9$) and Ndian ($M=91.2$, $SD=9.3$), teachers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their job. Unlike the views expressed in previous literature, that teachers in Sub-Saharan African countries are dissatisfied (Adelabu 2005, Altinyelken 2010, Bennell and Akyewapong 2007, Rangraje et 2005), this study reveals that teachers are rather ambivalent about their job satisfaction and work motivation. None of the mean scores were within the satisfaction range (108-144), or dissatisfaction range (36-72), of the adapted JSS. However, with scores in the 108-144 range, it seems that satisfaction levels would be higher if teachers operated under more conducive working and living conditions. This finding modestly corroborates Titanji's (1994) study of Cameroon teachers, and Gesnide and Adejumo's (2012) study in Nigeria, which show that the percentage of teachers who are generally satisfied with their job overall barely exceeds a mid-range score (>60%). Titanji's (1994) study, for example, revealed that despite a significant number of dissatisfied teachers (47.5 % of 218), teachers had a slightly more favourable attitude towards teaching in general. The findings of the

present study illustrate that teachers find certain aspects of their job satisfying while others dissatisfy them, which suggests ambivalent feelings.

In contrast to the survey findings, the qualitative data show that teachers' satisfaction level is low in the two case study schools, and particularly so for teachers in Ndian. These perceptions are attributable partly to the lack of basic working and living amenities in this very rural context. This evidence corroborates the widely accepted view that most African teachers are generally dissatisfied with their jobs (Bennell and Mukyanuzi 2005, Chireshe and Shumba 2011, Christopher et al 2014, George and Mensah 2010, Hammett, 2008, Masitsa 2011, Rangraje et al 2005).

The quantitative data show that the highest and lowest job satisfaction mean scores were recorded in Ndian (school NDN $M=103.417$ and school NDO $M=80.33$ respectively). This difference in the levels of job satisfaction across schools could be attributed to the geographical location of the sampled schools in Ndian. The 10 schools from which data were collected operated within contextual settings (districts) that are different from each other socioeconomically and culturally (a gradual transition from mid-urban districts e.g. Ekondo Titi and Lobe to extremely rural districts e.g. Isangele and Bekorra). This suggests that the school characteristics, or the contextual settings (socioeconomic activities or the prevailing social life style), its connection with the community, local authority and indigenes could partly explain why job satisfaction scores varied from one area to another. Appiah-Agyekum et al (2013) suggest that school-based factors (school size, available facilities, student enrolment etc.) are potential elements that can affect teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

The age distribution of teachers may partly explain the slightly higher satisfaction scores in Ndian, despite the limited amenities. This is because the majority of the teachers in Ndian are NQTs, younger and inexperienced, who were still living the excitement of their employment as opposed to their more experienced counterparts in Fako. Their sense of responsibility, the recognition accorded to them by some members of their community, their opportunity to build new skills, their employability and financial security, could all be reasons why Ndian teachers recorded a slightly higher mean score than Fako teachers. The qualitative evidence, however, reveals that the Ndian teachers were more dissatisfied than their counterparts in Fako overall, as a result of situational and contextual variables. This specific finding confirms Takupiwa et al's (2013) view that teachers in urban areas have higher motivation levels and are more satisfied than their colleagues in rural settings.

While demographic variables (gender, age, qualifications, length of service and official rank), could explain some of the differences, most of these factors were not statistically significant contributors to teachers' overall job satisfaction. This contradicts some African studies (George and Mensah 2010, Gesinde and Adejumo 2012) but confirms other research (Akiri and Ugborugbo 2009, Iwu et al 2013). The present study shows that only gender in the Ndian sample showed a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. This is partly because female teachers, particularly those in rural areas, are happy with their employment and are less concerned with financial issues. This could be linked to the deep-seated African belief that men are the primary breadwinners of the family, leaving women with fewer financial responsibilities and a sense of financial security, which also elevates their

social standing (see Appiah-Agyekum 2013, and George and Mensah 2010). Despite these discrepancies, the levels of job satisfaction for the two schools that provided qualitative data in Ndian and Fako were similar (school NDBM $M=90.12$ and school FK $M=89.63$ respectively), providing a good basis for comparison.

An additional finding is the positive correlational relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation. This means that an increase in job satisfaction produces an increase in work motivation. This finding lends support to Schultz and Teddlie's (1989) claim that a teacher's job satisfaction may serve to influence their motivation and their overall willingness to maximise their teaching potential.

Research Question 2: What is the level of teacher motivation among secondary school teachers?

This question sought to establish the level of teachers' work motivation in Ndian and Fako. The answer to this question was obtained by computing teachers' ratings of the various elements of their work, from which an overall level of motivation was derived.

The overall quantitative findings established that teachers were neither motivated nor demotivated (Ndian $M=104$ $SD=8.3$ and Fako $M=101$, $SD=9.7$). Despite this ambivalent perception, teachers in the study were closer to being motivated (with motivation means ranging between 105-140). Although teachers do not feel entirely motivated with some of the job content or contextual variables, they possess an initial level of intrinsic motivation that keeps them in the profession. This may be because teachers are faced with the dilemma of creating a balance between their dissatisfaction, based on unmet and unfulfilled needs, and their strong altruistic

orientation and patriotic dedication towards the profession. However, it is evident that some of the job realities do not reflect or represent teachers' job expectations, which contributes to reducing teachers' motivation. As noted earlier, the lack of basic amenities could be one of the major reasons why teachers do not feel entirely motivated.

The quantitative data show that higher scores for motivation were registered in schools located in Ndian than in Fako (two schools in Fako compared to four schools in Ndian with motivation scores >105). This illustrates that, despite the poor working conditions in Ndian, these teachers were slightly more motivated than their Fako counterparts. As previously noted, the demographic composition (younger inexperienced and older experienced teachers respectively) could partly explain this finding. Irrespective of contextual challenges, younger teachers are more likely to possess a higher initial motivational drive to succeed in their career compared to older teachers who may have more working experience and exposure to the realities of the profession. However, despite the ambivalent reports on motivation levels, the qualitative data reveal that teachers in the study are generally poorly motivated. Evidence of low teacher motivation is also highlighted in other African studies (Altinyelken 2010, Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Michaelowa 2002). Even though the sample was particularly concerned about the weak financial and contingent rewards associated with the profession, the author's evidence also shows that teachers had very limited opportunity to enhance their intrinsic motivation through career development.

While the overall qualitative data show that teachers' motivation is generally low, there were certain variations. For example, teachers' altruistic orientation and patriotism, as well as the opportunity to build a portfolio that could serve for later employment, were strong motivational factors that were prominent in the Ndian sample. Teachers' ambition to contribute to community development, and a positive attitude towards change and life success, were central to their motivation. Overall, the qualitative evidence shows that teachers' motivation was modest but could increase if working and living conditions improved.

Research question 3: What are the specific factors influencing intrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?

This question sought to identify and explore intrinsic factors affecting teachers' intrinsic job satisfaction and work motivation, and draws on Herzberg et al's (1968) distinction between these variables. The answer to this question was provided through teachers' ratings of intrinsic factors as presented on the JSS instrument (Spector 1997), as well as their perceptions, captured from in-depth semi-structured interviews.

On the JSS, the most important intrinsic factor was that of 'co-workers' (the interpersonal relationships with colleagues, superior, students and parents), which registered high scores. In contrast, the promotion sub scale generally registered low scores, indicating that teachers are dissatisfied with their limited job alternatives and promotion prospects. The nature of the job itself registered ambivalent scores, suggesting that teachers were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. In contrast, all the intrinsic components on the work motivation scale consistently registered positive scores, indicating motivation. This shows that teachers were motivated by their

altruistic orientation (a desire to help children), personal orientation (a desire for intellectual growth), professional orientation (love for mastery and professional growth), as well as their interpersonal orientation (love to belong and be accepted). This finding confirms Western and African studies that have highlighted these factors to be sources of intrinsic motivation for teachers (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 1998, Michaelowa and Wittmann 2007). This shows that teachers feel intrinsically motivated when their personal needs and goals (to connect with people, help children, learn and grow) are fulfilled by their job.

The qualitative evidence also confirms that positive interpersonal relationships motivate teachers. The fulfilment of personal needs, especially those related to subject-mastery, achievement and intellectual growth, as well as a feeling of recognition and appreciation, were strong contributors to job satisfaction and motivation. This echoes Titanji's (1994) Cameroon study as well as research in Botswana (Monyatsi 2012), Malawi (Mtika and Gates 2001), and Tanzania (Davidson 2007). The study also shows that teachers' sense of self-worth, which also links to their professional and public image, is closely linked to their financial rewards as well as to stability and security. In addition to teachers' satisfaction with the quality of the social ties they share with colleagues, principals and students, a positive school culture, student achievements, the opportunities for teachers to be in control of learning activities, and to grow personally and professionally, were central to teachers' motivation and satisfaction. In contrast, parents' attitudes towards education, student attitudes and misbehaviour, and the limited opportunities for recognition, professional development and career growth, were intrinsic factors that caused demotivation and dissatisfaction. This adds credence to Appiah-Agyekum et al's (2103) finding that

community factors are a contributor to teachers' job satisfaction. They particularly cited the attitude of community members towards education as a key element, claiming that teachers are more satisfied in communities where members hold a favourable attitude towards education, and have greater economic and social resources. The present study also shows that teachers are dissatisfied with the unattractive nature of the job's design (the limited career prospects, promotions opportunities and alternatives in the profession).

Although the motivation and satisfaction derived from these intrinsic factors (connection with co-workers, teaching itself, students' achievement, school culture mastery and efficacy) were pervasive, there were certain distinctions between the Ndian and Fako samples. For example, co-workers, and relationships between teachers, were more strongly valued in Ndian than in Fako. This was particularly important because it constituted a major component of the social capital teachers in Ndian relied on for social support. In contrast, factors such as the school culture (collegiality at work and collaborative climate), and teachers' opportunity for recognition and career development, were stronger in Fako than in Ndian. Teachers in Fako were given more opportunities for professional development, and received more recognition and praise (verbal and formal recognition letters) from their principal, than their counterparts in Ndian. These points illustrate that, despite the collective sense of satisfaction with these factors, the extent to which teachers experienced intrinsic job satisfaction varied between the two regions. The influence of intrinsic factors were also enhanced or undermined by the extrinsic factors.

Research question 4: What are the specific factors influencing extrinsic job satisfaction and motivation within the Cameroon context?

This question focused on exploring teachers' perceptions of extrinsic factors that affected job satisfaction and work motivation. Quantitative and qualitative data were used to answer this question as in the response to question 3.

Among the nine facets of job satisfaction on the JSS, supervision was the only extrinsic factor that consistently recorded satisfaction in the study. Conversely, dissatisfaction was consistently recorded for teachers' operational conditions, pay and fringe benefits. This finding shows that teachers are unhappy with the working conditions, and financial rewards of the profession, highlighting the observation that teachers work under unfavourable conditions and lack basic amenities. Similarly, the motivation scale shows that external rewards, work convenience, and social and psychological security, were the least scored dimensions. Although these factors recorded ambivalent scores, they were closer to being demotivated than motivated, showing that teachers are not motivated by their financial and non-financial rewards of their job, or by their working conditions.

The qualitative findings also show that dissatisfaction was pervasive, with salary, allowances, government policies and system management, school infrastructure and working conditions, as well as the profession's status and teachers' professionalism, all showing low scores. These points have also been identified in research conducted in Kenya (Ariko and Simatwa), Botswana (Monyatsi 2012), Malawi (Mtika and Gates 2001), Nigeria (Enueme and Egwunyenga 2008), Tanzania (Nguni et al 2006), and Zimbabwe (Takupiwa et al 2013), which collectively show that teachers are concerned about the basic operational features of their profession. The highly

centralised nature of the education system, with many policy changes and poor management procedures, negatively affected teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. The qualitative findings also show that extrinsic factors, such as leadership, participation in decision-making, workload, and environmental factors, produced inconclusive findings. With the exception of science teachers, the findings in Fako show that these factors had a positive influence on teachers' job satisfaction, compared to teachers in Ndian, who experienced dissatisfaction.

The effects of certain extrinsic factors, and how they were experienced across both regions, reveal some interesting distinctions. The ways that certain factors were perceived depended on the situational and contextual characteristics of the school. For example, while dissatisfaction with government policy in Fako was related to changes in the curriculum and pedagogic resources, Ndian teachers were more concerned with the ban on corporal punishment. The demographic distribution (age and length of service) of teachers in Ndian and Fako could partly account for this different view of government policies. This is because, while the Ndian sample comprised mainly NQTs with little experience in teaching and classroom management, the Fako sample was composed of seasoned teachers who were more concerned with the politics affecting teaching and learning. Another related example is that of teachers' satisfaction with decision-making. While satisfaction is reported with decision-making in Fako, teachers in Ndian were dissatisfied. In the latter case, the principal's leadership style was cited as the main reason for dissatisfaction. Similarly, satisfaction with environmental factors depended on the geographical location of the school. These points highlight the intricate link between extrinsic factors, and how their interplay affects teachers' job satisfaction and motivation.

Although the study shows that some extrinsic factors consistently affected teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in particular ways (positively or negatively), the geopolitical, sociocultural and economic settings of the two regions contributed to the extent to which these factors were experienced and assessed. Factors such as salary, allowances and benefits, government policies and management systems, school infrastructure and working conditions, environmental issues and safety, parents' socio economic status and teachers' involvement in decision making were experienced with greater resentment in Ndian than in Fako. This also illustrates that teachers in remote areas encounter more challenges and difficulties than their counterparts in urban areas, which compounds the negative effects of a particular factor. The study also shows that, despite pervasive dissatisfaction with working conditions and transport difficulties, the conditions in Ndian were much more challenging. The Ndian teachers were particularly overburdened, and worked with very limited teaching and learning resources within understaffed departments. They were also more likely to travel long distances to their schools, compared to their Fako counterparts. This explains why teachers in Ndian experienced more stress and frustration than their Fako colleagues.

The study also shows that some extrinsic factors influenced the conditions under which other extrinsic and intrinsic factors were perceived to affect job satisfaction. This was evident with leadership, as it was perceived to positively contribute to job satisfaction in the Fako sample, while its influence in Ndian was negative. These variations are largely due to the different leadership styles adopted by the school principals in Fako and Ndian.

Overall, while intrinsic variables are strong contributors to teachers' levels of satisfaction and motivation in the UK (Addison and Brundrett 2008, Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 1998), this study shows that extrinsic factors are more significant for Cameroon teachers. This difference could be partly accounted for by contextual differences (cultural, geopolitical and socioeconomic characteristics) between the UK and Cameroon. This suggests that extrinsic factors, such as salary, benefits, accommodation and transport, will always be more prominent in developing contexts than in developed countries. This is particularly true for Cameroon where basic living and working conditions remain poor and limited. This study supports previous research suggesting that certain extrinsic needs must be met for teachers to experience or derive satisfaction from intrinsic motivators (Evans 1997, Herzberg et al, 1968).

Significance of the Study

This section discusses the study's contribution to the research and literature on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, particularly its contextual, empirical and theoretical significance.

Contextual Significance

This is the first major study of this topic in Cameroon for more than 20 years (Titanji 1994), and it also provides a significant contribution to the limited literature on teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in West Africa. As many changes have occurred over the past 21 years, this study provides a timely insight into teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in Cameroon. It also builds on Titanji's (1994) study, which focused predominantly on schools in urban towns (Tiko, Limbe, Buea, Mujuka

and Kumba), by including data from both rural and urban contexts, and it breaks new ground in respect of rural data.

Empirical Significance

Adopting a mixed methods approach (sequential explanatory), this study is empirically significant because it adds to the limited empirical literature on teachers' satisfaction and motivation in West Africa and, particularly, in Cameroon. The study provides a mixed and comprehensive picture of satisfiers and motivators. It adds significantly to the empirical literature in Cameroon in that it provides evidence from a stratified probability sample, compared to the non-probability sample employed in Titanji's (1994) study.

Although the study provides some support to the influential role of intrinsic factors on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation, as presented in Western literature (e.g. Spear et al, 2000, Dinham and Scott 1998, Evans 1998), it also shows that these aspects are overshadowed by extrinsic factors in Cameroon. For example, teachers' salaries, allowances and benefits, working conditions, and system management, as well as environmental and safety issues, were major factors identified in the present study to contribute to teachers' dissatisfaction and poor motivation. These differences could be linked to the different cultural, socio-political and economic contexts of Cameroon compared to the UK and other developed contexts. The strong influence of extrinsic factors on teacher job satisfaction and motivation confirms other African studies (George et al 2008, Iwu et al 2013). This is significant because it confirms that African teachers work in very different contexts from those in developed countries, elevating the attention given to basic amenities.

As noted above, this study contributes to the limited, but growing body of evidence on African teachers' satisfaction and motivation, which shows teachers' heavy reliance on extrinsic factors, particularly pecuniary rewards (Altinyelken 2011, Evans and Olumide-Aluko 2010, Sirima and Poiol 2010, Tanaka 2011). While there is previous evidence that teachers' salaries are often late and irregular (Appiah-Agyekum et al 2013), the present study shows that NQTs may be posted with no first salary. The study shows that NQTs have to wait for up to 17 months before receiving their first salary, which is understandably a source of considerable dissatisfaction, especially if the locality into which teachers are posted is remote and rural with limited basic amenities. Another distinctive feature of the present study, compared to other African research, is that, while some rural teachers are supported with hardship allowances (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007) and receive basic communal support, especially with respect to accommodation (Appiah-Agyekum 2013), teachers in Cameroon do not benefit from any such allowances.

The study also presents confirmatory evidence to support claims that teachers' location (rural or urban) plays a contributory role to levels of job satisfaction and motivation (Takupiwa et al 2013). The present study shows that the two districts in which the study was conducted exhibited geopolitical, socioeconomic and cultural features that were distinctive. Teachers working in these areas experienced differences in their lifestyles, the pricing of commodities and services, and the availability of activities in their immediate context. This is significant because the urban/rural distinction has not received much attention in the African literature on teachers' job satisfaction, since most studies tend to focus on urban schools or settings for ease of access.

While there is limited empirical evidence, from previous African studies, on parents' socioeconomic status, and its influence on teachers' job satisfaction, this study points out that parents' SES indirectly affects teachers' work motivation and satisfaction. The qualitative data show that teachers' perceptions and assessment of the support they gained from parental involvement and engagement with the education of their children was also dependent on parents' SES and attitude towards education. Appiah-Agyekum et al (2013) identified community factors as a determinant of teachers' job satisfaction in their study of Zimbabwean teachers, but parents' economic standing is only one aspect of community factors. Their study sheds light on the link between the community and parents' SES, and how that could affect teachers' job satisfaction. The present study shows that parents' SES may be a more important factor contributing to teachers' working life in Africa than suggested in earlier research. This is an important issue for teachers because students' academic outcomes contribute to teachers' self-efficacy, satisfaction and motivation. The perceived weak parental involvement, engagement and commitment are linked to parents' socioeconomic status and financial position.

The study improves our understanding of the nature of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation in Cameroon, and identifies extrinsic and intrinsic factors affecting these two variables. Empirically, the study shows that intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting teachers' satisfaction and motivation are intricately linked.

Theoretical significance

The theoretical framework for the study was based primarily on two prominent theories, that of Herzberg et al's (1968) two factor theory (job satisfaction) and

Maslow's (1969) hierarchy of needs (motivation). As only limited research has been conducted on this topic in Cameroon and elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa, the current study helps in broadening our understanding of job satisfaction and work motivation to different contexts from those underpinning established theory.

This study confirms Herzberg et al's (1968) classification of factors capable of causing motivation (motivator: the need for personal growth, responsibility, achievement, recognition and promotion prospects) and satisfaction. However, the author's findings show that salary has motivational potential, which contradicts Herzberg et al's (1968) classification of it as a hygiene factor. Teachers in the study gave great prominence to salaries and reported deriving satisfaction and motivation from monetary rewards and benefits. On the other hand, they experienced great dissatisfaction in the absence of these rewards or benefits.

The theory's classification of co-workers and communication as external components to the job (hygiene factors), were not fully supported in the present study. Firstly, the author argues that the interpersonal relationships teachers share within a school, and the internal communication channels, are intrinsically linked to the profession. This is because teaching is premised on an interconnected web of social interactions (teacher-teacher, teacher-student, teacher-parents etc.). Secondly, the internal communication channels within schools also form an intrinsic component, as opposed to the communications channels existing between the school and the local authorities or the ministry. Schools rely on these relationships to create learning communities that are functional and capable of enhancing students' performance and teachers' job satisfaction. Unlike professions that are algorithmic in nature (e.g. computer and IT

engineers, and industrial workers), teaching is a creative and people-centric profession, requiring a complex mesh of communication channels that are built on trust, flexible and adaptable. Following this premise, internal communication would also appear to be a valuable instrument necessary to achieve a collaborative work atmosphere, which should be perceived as part of the job itself. The findings from the present study suggest the adoption of a more grounded theory of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation that situates interpersonal relationships and internal communication as intrinsic features.

The evidence from this study is consistent with Maslow's (1968) theory of needs, and confirms that teachers consider higher order needs (ego or esteem and self-actualization) only after satisfying lower order physiological and safety needs with respect to work motivation. This holds true for teachers in the Cameroon context, particularly those in a rural setting such as those in Ndian, who expressed concerns about basic human needs, notably food, housing, transportation and safety issues. In addition, the study shows that, even where teachers aimed for higher needs, such as achievement and promotion, their motivation was driven by the monetary rewards associated with such advancement. This confirms Maslow's theory.

Limitations of the study

Despite the research's careful design, the study had some limitations, which are worth identifying to guide further research. Teachers' job satisfaction is subjective, yet multidimensional, and the quantitative phase of the study was not exhaustive enough to capture every aspect of teachers' personality traits and characteristics. Even though research evidence suggests that personality variables interact with the effect of

school-based variables to affect teachers' job satisfaction and motivation (Evans 1998), the JSS ignores the role of personality traits (extroverts and introverts). Data on teachers' personality variables or traits can further improve our understanding of job satisfaction, as well as provide insights on how to leverage desirable work attitudes. Similarly, the qualitative phase could have adopted focus group interviews to encourage a shared understanding of the concepts under investigation and enable shy NQTs to build confidence to express themselves on the issues that influenced their job satisfaction and work motivation.

Another limitation of the study is that it focused only on two locations (Fako and Ndian) in the South West region, making the findings hard to generalise across the entire region and the country. Nevertheless, the study collected and presented valuable quantitative and qualitative data on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in this under-researched context.

Recommendations

This section presents recommendations for policy and practice arising from the author's data.

Policy recommendations

- Ministerial authorities and policy makers should revise the profession's career profile and ensure teacher preparation programmes incorporate job enrichment alternatives that can enthuse and attract teachers. This could provide more learning opportunities for the acquisition of new skills that could expand teachers' employability in other sections of the school. For example, teacher-

training programmes could be enriched and enlarged by incorporating life skills as well as leadership and management programmes.

- Government and administrative procedures with respect to resource deployment should be more regionally equitable, efficient, timely and transparent. Particular attention should be given to ensuring prompt salary payments for NQTs. This will go a long way to reduce the stress levels of NQTs, and enhance their motivation, as they often work for several months without salary, especially in rural areas.
- Policy development officers and personnel should adopt a more consultative approach to policy design, implementation and evaluation, taking into account the voices and experiences of teachers and students through school or system reform dialogues. This will ensure that policy drafts are well informed and based on the needs perceived by educators. The government should also create training programmes to support teachers to cope with curriculum changes. This will equip teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to ensure that government policies are implemented effectively.
- Teachers in rural districts should be provided with affordable subsidized government-managed accommodation facilities. This will reduce teachers' worries, particularly NQTs' challenges of finding accommodation. The government could also partner with the local communities to contribute to curbing housing problems by providing accommodation with affordable rents.
- Since teachers' efficacy is linked to job satisfaction, the government should create more opportunities for ongoing professional development programmes. These programmes should be offered in both rural and urban areas, to facilitate peer-to-peer learning. This could be achieved by deploying more

experienced teachers to run training workshops at convenient times, which do not affect class teaching.

Following the author's research, there have been some noticeable policy changes. These changes have emanated from certain collaborative partnerships the author has established with some key government officials. The involvement of regional administrators and national pedagogic inspectors, in running interactive workshops and seminars, on topics that addressed teachers' concerns proved to be an effective channel through which certain school level policies could be reshaped to enhance intrinsic job satisfaction.

Currently operating under Teach Connect (www.teachconnect.org), schools in the South West region have started adopting a teacher-centred CPD approach to foster collaboration. This has increased teachers' involvement in decision making which is helping them to derive more meaning from their work. .

- School authorities should device innovative ways to recognize and encourage hard working teachers, to ensure that they feel valued and appreciated. Bearing in mind that appreciation is a fundamental human need, especially in the workplace, more efforts should be directed to identifying and utilizing performance feedback to appreciate teachers. This could go a long way to intrinsically motivate and enhance teachers' job satisfaction and commitment to the profession's goals.

- In order to enhance teachers' motivation and improve job satisfaction, school authorities could adopt a merit-based incentives scheme, and ensure that teachers are assessed on their academic duties and performance.

Recommendations for school practice

- Although it is a challenge for school principals to address teachers' individual needs, school principals need to develop skills and knowledge of human resource management, leadership (instructional and transformational) and work psychology. This could be in the form of regular training on how to create good and conducive working environments for teachers to perform efficiently with confidence. This will provide intellectual stimulation as well as support for staff to develop good practice.
- Principals should invest time in developing a friendly and welcoming atmosphere that can promote a culture of collaboration, transparency and trust within the school through weekly or monthly dialogues with teachers. They should also create avenues through which teachers can share their ideas and be actively involved in decision-making on issues that affect their work and welfare.
- Continual professional development programmes should be introduced at the school level, especially in rural settings, to encourage teacher-teacher learning from experts and more experienced teachers. Teachers should be supported with career development plans through mentorship and peer-to-peer exchange programmes.

Following the author's research, Teach Connect has been able to establish a school support programme, comprising continuous professional development for teachers and headteachers. Most (two-thirds) of the schools involved in

this programme are situated in the urban region due to the logistics involved in deploying people to rural areas, and their willingness to do so.

The school support programme has produced some positive outcomes, notably through peer-to-peer learning where older and more experienced teachers support new and less experienced teachers with pedagogic and professional issues. This has been successful in Yaoundé and Buea, where the majority of qualified personnel have engaged actively, enabling schools to internalize this philosophy. The feedback from schools within the Teach Connect school support scheme shows that most teachers have been able to align their teaching practice to enhance student engagement, as well as their own professionalism, leading to some rewards, such as being more helpful, supportive and open to students and colleagues.

- NQTs should be provided with an induction programme to enable them to be aware of the school context. The principal could assign more experienced teachers to serve as mentors to specific NQTs to ensure that they are able to integrate fully with colleagues and understand the work context. This will also help NQTs to feel welcomed and valued and may facilitate their ability to address workplace needs and challenges. This would also contribute to addressing issues affecting their motivation and job satisfaction.

Future Research

Given the methodological limitations discussed above, and with the dearth of evidence on teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in Cameroon, there is a need for more research on teachers' work, as well as on the circumstances that affect their

working conditions, especially for those working in rural and deprived settings. Even though the study has shed some light on a number of issues related to the scope of teachers' job satisfaction and motivation in Cameroon, it did not address extraneous variables such as professional networks, the family and community. It would also be helpful if further research could extend the study to more schools and districts in Cameroon, to broaden the empirical basis for policy and practice.

While attempts to raise teachers' job satisfaction and motivation should focus on addressing both extrinsic and intrinsic needs and factors, attention should be given first to basic needs such as better working conditions and better pay packages that may help enhance the pursuit of higher order needs, as suggested by Maslow's (1987) hierarchy of needs. In essence, teachers can only strive for higher order needs such as self achievement once basic lower order needs such as shelter, job safety and suitable pay have been satisfied.

Overview

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. This chapter presented a summary of the answers to the four main research questions, as well as addressing the significance and limitation of the study. It also provided some recommendations for practice and further research.

Underpinning Herzberg's two-factor theory, the study shows that, even though both intrinsic and extrinsic factors on satisfaction and motivation were evident, financial rewards and the contextual aspects of teachers' working environment (geographical, socio-political and school characteristics) dominated teachers' perceptions and

assessment of their satisfaction. The study shows that intrinsic and extrinsic factors are intertwined and coexist to affect teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation, rather than being mutually exclusive as presented by Herzberg et al (1968).

The study also adds to the limited literature on teachers' job satisfaction in Africa, and suggests that external factors, such as the centralised nature of the education system, affected teachers' perceptions of the profession. The study also showed that, in certain circumstances, some factors caused satisfaction, while causing dissatisfaction under other circumstances. For example, disruptive students and poor academic achievement were sources of dissatisfaction, whereas obedient and properly behaved students, who were academically successful, led to satisfaction. Although the study has identified and highlighted some important issues, it is limited to the contexts for which data were collected. However, the findings provide an important contribution to the body of knowledge on teacher satisfaction and motivation in Cameroon. The study provides evidence that teachers feel satisfied and motivated to work within schools that are effectively managed and have a supportive and collaborative environment, alongside a decent remuneration package, sufficient teaching resources and satisfactory working conditions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: A questionnaire to determine the level of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation

Thank you for opting to participate in this study that seeks to investigate the job satisfaction and motivation amongst secondary school teachers. Please note that all information provided by you will be treated in the strictest confidence possible. To this effect, you are not required to write your name or any information that could identify you. As mentioned in the cover letter, your honest responses will be very valuable for this study, and will provide practical knowledge for both practitioners and academics within the field of educational leadership and management. Please take a few minutes to complete this survey. Instructions are provided for each section of the questionnaire

If you have any queries in the course of completing the questionnaire, please contact Koge Henry M
(+237) 98 55 38 46 or via email: h.mpako@warwick.ac.uk

Section A: Job Satisfaction

Please **circle the one number** for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it.

1= Disagree strongly

2= Disagree

3= Agree

4= Agree strongly

1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do	1	2	3	4
2	There is little chance for job promotion	1	2	3	4
3	My principal is competent in doing his work	1	2	3	4
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive as a teacher	1	2	3	4
5	When I do a good job I receive the recognition for it that I should receive	1	2	3	4
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult	1	2	3	4
7	I like the colleagues I work with	1	2	3	4
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless	1	2	3	4
9	Communication seem good within this school	1	2	3	4
10	Salary rises are too few and far between	1	2	3	4
11	Those who do well in the job stand a fair chance of being promoted	1	2	3	4
12	The school principal is unfair to me	1	2	3	4
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other schools	1	2	3	4

	offer				
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated	1	2	3	4
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape	1	2	3	4
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with	1	2	3	4
17	I like doing the things I do at work	1	2	3	4
18	The goals of this school are not clear to me	1	2	3	4
19	I feel unappreciated by the school/government when I think about what they pay me	1	2	3	4
20	Teachers get ahead as fast (in terms of promotion) here as they do in other places	1	2	3	4
21	The principal shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates	1	2	3	4
22	The benefits package we have is equitable	1	2	3	4
23	There are few rewards for those who work here	1	2	3	4
24	I have too much work to do	1	2	3	4
25	The colleagues in my department are friendly and sociable	1	2	3	4
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the school	1	2	3	4
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1	2	3	4
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for a salary increase	1	2	3	4
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have as teachers	1	2	3	4
30	I like my principal	1	2	3	4
31	I have too much paper work	1	2	3	4
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	1	2	3	4
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion	1	2	3	4
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work	1	2	3	4
35	My job is enjoyable	1	2	3	4
36	Work assignments are not fully explained	1	2	3	4

37a. Generally, how can you describe the overall satisfaction of the teachers you work with in this school?

.....
.....
.....

37b. What factor(s) account for this overall satisfaction described above?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Section B: Motivation

Please **circle the one number** for each statement that comes closest to reflecting your opinion why you are presently involved in your work as a teacher.

1= Disagree strongly

2= Disagree

3= Agree

4= Agree strongly

1	Teaching allows me to perform a valuable service of moral worth	1	2	3	4
2	The workload (teaching work, marking and assessing) is heavy				
3	Teachers have nice benefits associated with their jobs	1	2	3	4
4	The official working hours are very suitable	1	2	3	4
5	I can positively influence student's live through my teaching				
6	My job gives me an opportunity to help students gain a sense of achievement and self worth	1	2	3	4
7	My parents felt that teaching would be a good career for me.	1	2	3	4
8	Teaching allows me to experience the love and respect of children	1	2	3	4
9	I have enjoyed working with children in other context	1	2	3	4
10	Teaching as an occupation is rewarding and pleasurable	1	2	3	4
11	I have an affection for a particular subject	1	2	3	4
12	Teaching provides constant updating of my professional knowledge	1	2	3	4
13	Teaching is a prestigious occupation	1	2	3	4
14	I feel a personal "calling" to teaching	1	2	3	4
15	Teaching allows me to do things in a creative manner	1	2	3	4
16	I enjoy the opportunities I have to participate in extracurricular activities	1	2	3	4
17	Teachers hours fit with my domestic and personal responsibilities	1	2	3	4
18	Teaching was the best job among those jobs most readily available to me	1	2	3	4
19	The location of the school is convenient	1	2	3	4
20	Teaching offers me a reasonable income	1	2	3	4
21	There are good opportunities for career advancement	1	2	3	4
22	Teaching can easily lead me to other careers, as it serves like a stepping stone for better opportunities	1	2	3	4
23	I have the knowledge and skills required to do my job effectively	1	2	3	4
24	We have a conducive physical working environment at the school (e.g. resources and infrastructure)	1	2	3	4
25	Parents in this school support and encourage teachers	1	2	3	4
26	The allowances attributed to teachers are enticing	1	2	3	4
27	Teachers in this community are respected	1	2	3	4
28	I enjoy the opportunity I have to interact with colleagues	1	2	3	4
29	Teaching offers me a job with security	1	2	3	4
30	I am satisfied with the interpersonal skills of the principal	1	2	3	4
31	There is a great need of teachers in this region.	1	2	3	4
32	It is worthwhile seeing students achieve and making progress	1	2	3	4

33	I enjoy the collegiality and concern teachers have for one another	1	2	3	4
34	My work permits me to affords a comfortable standard of living	1	2	3	4
35	I enjoy the intellectual challenges I encounter in my job	1	2	3	4

36a. How would you describe the overall motivation of your colleagues?

.....
.....
.....

36b. What factor (s) account for this overall motivation described above?

.....
.....
.....

Section C: Demographics

Section C: Demographic details

Please tick one box in each of the sections below that best describes you and the setting of your school.

1. Age 2. Highest qualification 3. Years of teaching experienc 4. Schools' Location

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|
| 21-25
<input type="checkbox"/> | FSLC <input type="checkbox"/> | 1-4 <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 26-30
<input type="checkbox"/> | GCE O/L <input type="checkbox"/> | 6-10 <input type="checkbox"/> | Rural district <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31-35
<input type="checkbox"/> | GCE A/L <input type="checkbox"/> | 11-15 <input type="checkbox"/> | Urban district <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36-40
<input type="checkbox"/> | CAPIEM <input type="checkbox"/> | 16-20 <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | DIPES I <input type="checkbox"/> | 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | DIPES II <input type="checkbox"/> | 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| | PLEG <input type="checkbox"/> | 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> | |

5. Gender school

- Male
Female

6. Administrative position in

- None
HOD
Dean /VP
Principal

Appendix B: Interview Schedule for teachers in the case study schools

1. Can you describe your overall satisfaction with your job as a teacher?
 - 1b). What accounts for this level of satisfaction you' reported?
 - Probe 1: What do you find satisfying/dissatisfying in your job?
 - Probe 2: Why do you find it/them satisfying/dissatisfying?
 - Probe 3: Can you give an example to illustrate/support your answer?

2. What is your overall motivation to your job as a teacher?
 - Probe 1: What do you find motivating/demotivating in your job?
 - Probe 2: Why do you find it/them motivating/demotivating?
 - Probe 3: Can you give an example to illustrate/support this?

3. Kindly describe a good day at work and what events or factors contribute to it
 - Probe 1: What are some of the key things that make it good?
 - Probe 2: Can you give a clear example to support this?

4. Kindly describe a bad day at work and what events or factors contribute to it.
 - Probe 1: What are some of the key things that make it good?
 - Probe 2: Can you give a clear example to support this?

5. In your own point of view, do you believe the teachers you work with are satisfied and motivated?
 - Probe 1: Why, what makes you say so?
 - Probe 2: Can you give a clear example to support this?

6. Are you quite happy with this job?
 - Can you still see yourself still being in profession in the next five years to come?
 - What do you quite like about this job
7. If you had the opportunity to start all over, would you choose to become a teacher?

Probe 1: if yes, why?
8. Do you have any suggestions on how teachers job satisfaction and motivation can be enhanced?

Appendix C: Application Letters for Access to Research Sites and Research Participants

Dear Colleague,

As a doctoral candidate for the Ph.D. program in Education (Educational Leadership and Management) at the University of Warwick conducting a research study as a requirement for my dissertation, I am pleased to inform you that your district and school in particular have been selected as a potential research site for a study aimed at investigating teachers' job satisfaction and motivation. Subsequently, you are being invited to take part in this research study. However, before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Please contact the researcher if there is anything that is not clear or if you need more information.

The purpose of the study

- The purpose of this study is to understand the level of teacher's job satisfaction and motivation and to understand what factors affect these phenomena.

Study Procedure

Upon acceptance of participation, you will be asked to commit at least 2 hours of your time for this study, one hour during a quantitative phase and another one during a qualitative phase. The period of study may range from January 2013- April, 2013.

If you choose to participate in the study, it will be very much appreciated if you can indicate by signing up on the study's participation register which can be obtained from the principal's office. However, you are free to decline this invitation if you do not want to participate in the study, or withdraw during any phase of the study. In effect, you have full rights to end or withdraw from the study at any time. Please also note that that your responses will be anonymous.

Your participation will be greatly appreciated, because not only will it help me to obtain my Ph.D degree, its results will be very significant in understanding teachers' working conditions, and what constitutes teachers' job satisfaction, it will also provide important information for policy makers.

If you have any questions, or wish to verify the research's objective further, please feel free to contact me using my contact details provided below.

Thank you for your help

Sincerely

Koge Henry M
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Gibbet Hill Road
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United Kingdom

The Regional Delegate
Of Secondary Education
Fako Division

An Application for Permission and Access to Schools and Personnel within the Fako Division

Dear Sir,

I am a doctoral candidate for a Ph.D. programme in Education (Educational Leadership and Management) at the University of Warwick, and I am conducting a research study for my thesis.

I have selected schools in Fako and Ndian Divisions as my potential research sites for a study aimed at investigating teachers' job satisfaction and motivation and working conditions. I am humbly writing to request permission to have access to schools and personnel within this region (Fako Division).

The purpose of the study is to understand the level of teachers' job satisfaction and work motivation and to understand what factors affect these phenomena drawing on the actual working settings. The study is divided in two phases, a quantitative and a qualitative phase and will run from March 4th, 2013 to April 19th in Fako and from the 23rd of April to the 17th of May 2013 in Ndian division.

I have attached a detail programme, a timeline and an outline of the personnel involved in the study. I will be very much pleased if my plea and application is favourably considered and granted.

Yours Sincerely,

Koge Henry M
Institute of Education
University of Warwick
Gibbet Hill Road
CV4 7AL, Coventry
United Kingdom
Phone: (+237) 698 55 38 46
E-mail: H.mpako@warwick.ac.uk

Appendix D: Authorised Letter for Access to Research Sites

<p>REPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN Paix – Travail – Patrie</p> <p>-----</p> <p>MINISTÈRE DES ENSEIGNEMENTS SECONDAIRES DELEGATION REGIONALE DU SUD-OUEST</p> <p>-----</p> <p>P.M.B. 10.015 BUEA Tel. 33 32 22 38</p>	<p>REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON Peace – Work – Fatherland</p> <p>-----</p> <p>MINISTRY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION REGIONAL DELEGATION FOR THE SOUTH WEST</p> <p>-----</p> <p>P.M.B. 10.015 BUEA</p>																				
<p>Ref N° <u>g.214/922</u> /MINESEC/RDSW/SDGA/IC/BIL</p>	<p>Buea, the <u>07 MARS 2013</u></p>																				
<p>The Regional Delegate Le Délégué Régional</p> <p>To</p>																					
<p>The Principals:</p>	<table border="0" style="width: 100%;"><tr><td>-BGS Molyko – Buea</td><td>-GHS Buea</td></tr><tr><td>-GHS Buea Town</td><td>-GSS Gt. Soppo</td></tr><tr><td>-GHS Bafia-Muyuka</td><td>-GBHS Muyuka</td></tr><tr><td>-GSS Malende</td><td>-GSS Munyenge</td></tr><tr><td>-GBHS Muea</td><td>-GHS Ekona</td></tr><tr><td>-GBHS Mundemba</td><td>-GSS Bulu Camp</td></tr><tr><td>-GBHS Ekondo-Titi</td><td>-GSS Lobe Town</td></tr><tr><td>-GBHS Isangele</td><td>-GSS Meka Ngolo</td></tr><tr><td>-GSS Funge-Balondo</td><td>-GHS Bekora</td></tr><tr><td>-GHS Bamusso</td><td>-GHS Bekora-Barombi</td></tr></table>	-BGS Molyko – Buea	-GHS Buea	-GHS Buea Town	-GSS Gt. Soppo	-GHS Bafia-Muyuka	-GBHS Muyuka	-GSS Malende	-GSS Munyenge	-GBHS Muea	-GHS Ekona	-GBHS Mundemba	-GSS Bulu Camp	-GBHS Ekondo-Titi	-GSS Lobe Town	-GBHS Isangele	-GSS Meka Ngolo	-GSS Funge-Balondo	-GHS Bekora	-GHS Bamusso	-GHS Bekora-Barombi
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-GBHS Isangele	-GSS Meka Ngolo																				
-GSS Funge-Balondo	-GHS Bekora																				
-GHS Bamusso	-GHS Bekora-Barombi																				
<p>Subject: Permission of Access to Schools for Research Study</p>																					
<p>Mr. Koge Henry M. is a doctoral candidate for a Ph.D. programme in Education (Educational Leadership and Management) at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. He is here to conduct a research study for his thesis in some of our schools in Fako and Ndian Divisions.</p>																					
<p>This research student has scheduled to work with you intermittently in the months of March, April and May, 2013, in order to cover all the phases of his programme as stipulated in his plan of work and time line.</p>																					
<p>We hereby give him access permission to conduct this academic activity in your school(s). Consequently, you are requested to give him the collaboration necessary for him to achieve his goals.</p>																					
<p>For the Regional Delegate and by Order</p> <p>The Sub Director General Affairs</p> <p><i>Jacob Akwete Nyadjroh</i> PI EG</p>																					