

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONG RURAL AND
URBAN TEACHERS OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS- THE CASE OF
ZOMBA**

MASTER OF EDUCATION (POLICY, PLANNING AND LEADERSHIP) THESIS

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fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education
(Policy, Planning and Leadership)

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MAY, 2017

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work, which has not been submitted to any other institution for similar purposes. Where other people's work has been used acknowledgements have been made.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my lovely wife Chifundo, my mother and my late dad.

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction has been a popular topic for researchers because it relates to several significant variables. As the ultimate goal in the education sector is service delivery, it is imperative that teachers perform optimally and maintain acceptable levels of job satisfaction in order to provide better education to the students of Malawi. However, literature is awash with so much controversy on the levels of satisfaction between urban and rural teachers. While others postulate that urban teachers are more satisfied than the rural, other studies have found the inverse. It was therefore, the purpose of this study to compare job satisfaction and its determinants between the urban and rural public secondary school teachers. The study followed the quantitative approach and used the Demographic, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job In General (JIG) questionnaires to collect data from the teachers. Stratified proportional random sampling procedure was used. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data using SPSS16.0. Results show that there is no difference in job satisfaction between teachers in the urban and those in the rural public secondary schools. It has further been found that co-workers and the work itself are the main determinants of job satisfaction for both the rural and the urban teachers. Furthermore the study has found that tenure is another determinant of job satisfaction among the rural teachers while educational qualification determines teachers' job satisfaction in the urban. This study has further found that both co-workers and work itself are more powerful predictors of job satisfaction in the rural than they are in the urban.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

OECD	:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
JDI	:	Job Descriptive Index
JIG	:	Job In General
GAPS	:	Gender and Primary Schooling
USA	:	United States of America
MSCE	:	Malawi School Certificate of Education
LICs	:	Low Income Countries
VSO	:	Voluntary Service Overseas

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the background to the study, which covers in general the aspect of job satisfaction in different areas. The background is followed by the problem statement, purpose of the study and its significance.

1.1 Background Information

Research in the area of job satisfaction has been conducted over the past few decades in other countries (Boshoff, Cilliers & Van Wyk, 2003; Buitendach & De Witte, 2005; Calder, 2000; Derlin & Schneider, 1994; Dolliver, 2003; Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003; KhMetle, 2005; Malherbe & Pearse, 2003). According to Kh Metle (2005), job satisfaction has been a popular topic for researchers in a wide area of fields including industrial psychology, public administration, business and education. The principal reason for popularity of job satisfaction in research is that it relates to significant associations with several variables (Yousef, 2000 cited in Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). For example, it has a positive association with life satisfaction (Judge, Boudreau & Bretz, 1994 cited in Buitendach & De Witte, 2005), organizational commitment (Fletcher & Williams, 1996 cited in Buitendach & De Witte, 2005) and job performance (Babin & Boles, 1996 cited in Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). In a study conducted by Judge and

Watanabe (1994) it was found that for about two thirds of participants, high levels of life satisfaction are associated with high levels of job satisfaction. In other words, satisfaction with one's job "spills over" into other aspects of life. In addition, Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002), hold that job satisfaction relates to people's own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them. Since emotions and feelings are involved in such assessments, employees' levels of job satisfaction may impact significantly on their personal, social and work lives, and as such, also influence their behaviour at work.

It is argued that teacher job satisfaction is a very important educational success and performance and that it ranks alongside professional knowledge and skills, educational resources and strategies (Johnson, 1990). A study by Shann (1998) for example, established a connection between teacher job satisfaction and teacher retention and he found out that job satisfaction is a good predictor¹ of teacher retention. Job satisfaction is very important for teachers to have because their attitudes toward the job impact the learning environment of students. When teachers possess high levels of job satisfaction, they have a greater chance in believing that their role in the school is satisfying over time, care more about the quality of their work, are more productive and committed to the school, and have higher retention rates (Bavendam Research Incorporated, 2000).

On the other hand, lack of job satisfaction has adverse implications to the realization of educational goals, because it is one of the explanations for teacher turnover and attrition (Liu, 2005). Furthermore, low job satisfaction also has implications for job performance

¹ Predictors and determinants were used interchangeably in the study

and organizational effectiveness (Reyes & Shin, 1995). Employees who are dissatisfied may exhibit job avoidance behaviours, such as reducing their level of effort. In some cases, “psychological quits” (March & Simon, 1958, as cited in Hom & Kinicki, 2001) can be a precursor to exit from the organization (Hom & Kinicki, 2001); while in others it may be a substitute for exiting. Thus, teacher dissatisfaction can be a critical problem for schools, other teachers, and students, even when it does not lead dissatisfied teachers to exit immediately. This has also been argued by Locke (1976) who says that job satisfaction greatly affects teachers’ decision to leave or remain in their profession. Job satisfaction among teachers has also been blamed for the high teacher absenteeism experienced by many educational systems in developing countries (VSO, 2002). In Malawi for example it was found that teacher loss is rampant in secondary schools, resulting in depletion of skilled and experienced teachers and consequently compromising student learning outcomes (Nkhokwe, et al (2016). In their study, Nkhokwe et al (2016) found that there are three categories of teachers who tend to voluntarily leave teaching on various grounds. Unqualified teachers who have not received an in-service training to acquire a professional qualification in teaching leave because they are denied access to certain benefits that professionally trained teachers get from the education system. Newly recruited teachers leave because of their inability to cope with the school conditions. Teachers who did not initially choose teaching for their college training leave because they are not committed to the profession. In addition Kadzamira (2006) in a study that investigated factors that motivate and incentivise teachers in Malawi, observed that, compared to other employment categories, “teachers are underpaid and affects their motivation and morale.”

As noted earlier, job satisfaction has been the most frequently investigated variable in organizational behaviour (Spector, 1997). Most studies have established that job satisfaction varies within the country and across the globe. It has been established for example that job satisfaction among teachers in Botswana and Uganda is relatively higher than that of teachers in Zambia and Malawi (Bennell, Hyde and Swainson, 2002 in Bennell, 2004). It has also been found that there are variations in terms of job satisfaction among teachers within Malawi with teachers holding diploma certificates having high motivation as compared to those with degrees (VSO, 2002). Kadzamira (2006) further highlights that there are variations between private and public teachers with private being more satisfied than public teachers. She further points out that primary school teachers are less satisfied as compared to secondary teachers.

Studies have found a number of factors that are responsible for such variations in job satisfaction. Researchers, for example Peretomode (1991) and Whawo (1993), have suggested that the higher the prestige of the job, the greater the job satisfaction. Surprisingly many workers, however, are satisfied in even the least prestigious jobs (Mahmood, 2011). That is, they simply like what they do. Mahmood (2011) argues that job satisfaction can be influenced by a variety of factors, for example, the quality of one's relationship with their supervisor, the quality of the physical environment in which they work, the degree of fulfilment in their work, etc. In any case, job satisfaction is as individual as one's feelings or state of mind (Mahmood, 2011). Furthermore, school location is said to be another critical factor (Kadzamira, 2006). Rural schools are especially disadvantaged when it comes to teacher housing and availability of suitable

housing within the vicinity of the school thus it has been concluded that teachers in rural areas tend to have low job satisfaction as compared to their counterparts in the urban areas. However, if this conclusion is true it still remains unknown by how much job satisfaction levels among urban teachers exceed that of the rural teachers in Malawi. It is also contended that the problems that rock the rural schools have not only affected teachers' satisfaction but also the deployment of teachers in the rural schools as some teachers refuse rural postings (Centre for International Teacher Education, 2016). In view of this the Government of Malawi introduced the deployment policy to make sure there is a fair distribution of teachers in both the urban and rural areas. This policy was twinned with the hardship allowance which is given to teachers in the rural areas in a bid to motivate them to stay in those hard to reach areas. However it remains to be seen whether these initiatives have brought any dividends as intended.

Despite the proliferation of research in the subject of satisfaction a paucity of quantitative studies exists in public secondary schools investigating job satisfaction and its determinants across different geographical areas for example urban and rural. The majority of studies on teacher job satisfaction in Malawi for example Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) have been qualitative with the exception of (Mitambo, 2012). Furthermore, most of these studies focused much on primary schools. Looking at the fact that job satisfaction data are helpful in evaluating the emotional wellness and mental fitness of employees and that organizations can use the information to improve departmental policies and practices where dissatisfaction is expressed, a study targeting secondary schools is therefore necessary and perhaps just long overdue.

1.2 Problem statement

Earlier research studies conclude that the overall levels of teacher job satisfaction and motivation in Malawi are low in both primary and secondary schools. In particular, teachers are highly dissatisfied with their remuneration and other conditions of service (Kadzamira and Chibwana 2000, Kadzamira et al., 2001, Tudor-Craig, 2002, Chimwenje, 2003, Kadzamira, 2006). These studies whose main focus was on primary schools have further indicated that although being generally low there are variations in the levels of job satisfaction among teachers in Malawi, with urban teachers having relatively higher levels than their counterparts in the rural areas. However, if this conclusion is correct the question that still needs an answer is ‘to what extent is job satisfaction higher in the urban than in the rural?’ Furthermore, a study that was conducted by Bennel (2007), in Tanzania, Ghana, Lesotho Sierra Leone and Zambia sharply contradicts the above mentioned studies. This study showed that much higher proportions of urban teachers indicated that their job satisfaction levels have declined in recent years, as a consequence of rapidly increasing costs of living in most towns and cities in Africa. According to Bennel (2007), the main attractions of towns and cities are that it is easier for partners to find work, plentiful opportunities exist for further study, and the general level of amenities is much higher. However, this is offset by the much higher costs of urban living (particularly rent and transport). Thus while Kadzamira (2006) argues that urban teachers enjoy relatively higher satisfaction than the rural teachers, Bennel (2007) postulates that satisfaction among urban teachers has in the recent times declined compared to rural teachers due to high cost of living in the urban. It is evident therefore,

that there is so much controversy on the urban-rural teacher satisfaction which warrants further investigation.

Furthermore, while mainly focusing on primary schools, methodologically, the earlier studies, with the exception of the study by Mitambo (2012) (which focused on job satisfaction of special needs education primary school teachers), employed the qualitative approach hence did not quantify the levels of satisfaction among teachers. More also, being qualitative studies, the results may not be generalized to the secondary school setting. It is therefore, against this background that the researcher wants to quantitatively establish and compare the levels of job satisfaction between urban and rural teachers. Thus the study seeks to find out whether there is a difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural secondary schools. The study also seeks to find out key determinants of job satisfaction in both areas.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to compare job satisfaction levels among urban and rural secondary school teachers. The study further sought to find out factors that influence teacher job satisfaction in urban and rural areas. In this vein, the study attempted to establish whether type of work, present salary, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and co-workers as well as demographic variables can predict job satisfaction in both urban and rural teachers.

1.4 Research questions

In order to achieve the overall purpose, the study answered the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in job satisfaction levels between urban and rural secondary school teachers?
2. What are the predictors of job satisfaction in the urban and rural secondary schools?
3. Is there a difference in the degree of prediction for the urban and rural secondary school predictors?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Since most of the earlier researches on teacher job satisfaction in Malawi were completely qualitative, this study being quantitative will add more knowledge on job satisfaction levels among rural and urban secondary teachers in Malawi by establishing whether there is a difference in job satisfaction levels between the two groups.

Furthermore, this study may help policy makers and decision makers to provide appropriate interventions in order to improve teacher job satisfaction in Malawi. Since this study has found out the specific predictors of job satisfaction in the two geographical areas, it may help policy and decision makers to avoid the ‘one size solution fitting all’ kind of policies.

Job satisfaction is surely a desirable goal of management practices thus measures of employee satisfaction can be taken as one of the criteria or standards by which to judge

the success of management practices and policies. Thus, this study may provide a better assessment tool for the existing policies. Measures of job satisfaction might also be used to predict future absences and turnover amongst teachers and thus can prompt the ministry to be proactive.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

The study focused on job satisfaction among Zomba urban and rural secondary school teachers only and thus the sample was drawn from the aforementioned groups and not otherwise. It therefore implies that results applied to the two groups of teachers and not other teachers.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter overview

This chapter critically reviews the theories of job satisfaction and reviews literature related to the phenomenon of job satisfaction. The chapter draws from a cross-section of studies covering a number of countries. The review endeavours to unfold the phenomenon of job satisfaction and uncover from various studies some factors that could predict job satisfaction.

2.1 Definition of job satisfaction

Literature is awash with a plethora of definitions of job satisfaction, some of which are contradictory in nature (Spector 1997). Some of the versions use the terms job attitudes, work satisfaction, and job morale interchangeably, which may explain the lack of a standardized job satisfaction definition (Worrell, 2004). According to *Webster's Dictionary* (1986), job satisfaction refers to how well a job provides fulfilment of a need or want, or how well it serves as a source or means of enjoyment. Within the literature, Hoppock (1935) offered one of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction when he described the construct as being any number of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job. Smith et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as the feeling an individual has about his or

her job. This is similar to Spector (1997) who refers to job satisfaction as how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Siegal and Lance (1987) stated simply that job satisfaction is an emotional response defining the degree to which people like their job. While Lofquist and Davis (1991), defined 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”. Similarly Schermerhorn (1993) defines job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of an employee’s work. The researcher argues that the job aspects in question include supervision, co-worker relationships, job content, remuneration and extrinsic rewards, promotion, physical conditions of the work environment and organisational structure as espoused by Kendal and Hulin (1969). Therefore, it is in this parameter that this study looks at job satisfaction from the lens of Cherrington’s (1994) research on job satisfaction which identified two aspects to understanding the concept of job satisfaction, namely, the facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction.

2.1.1 Facet Satisfaction

Facet satisfaction refers to the tendency for an employee to be more or less satisfied with various facets or aspects of the job (Johns, 1988). Cherrington (1994) refers to the various aspects or facets of the job as the individual’s attitude about their pay, the work itself - whether it is challenging, stimulating and attractive, and the supervisors - whether they possess the softer managerial skills as well as being competent in their jobs.

2.1.2 Overall Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction focuses on the general internal state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the individual. Positive experiences in terms of friendly colleagues, good remuneration, compassionate supervisors and attractive jobs create a positive internal state. Negative experiences emanating from low pay, less than stimulating jobs and criticism create a negative internal state. Therefore, the feeling of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a holistic feeling that is dependent on the intensity and frequency of positive and negative experiences (Cherrington, 1994).

The definition of job satisfaction has visibly evolved through the decades, but most versions share the belief that job satisfaction is a work-related positive affective reaction.

2.1.3 Job satisfaction and motivation

For us to better understand the concept of job satisfaction it might be vital to delineate it from the concept of motivation which is often used confusingly with satisfaction because the two are related but not synonymous (Peretomode, 1991). Golembiewski (1973) refers to motivation as the degree of readiness of an organization to pursue some designated goal and implies the determination of the nature and locus of the forces inducing the degree of readiness. To Kelly (1974), motivation has to do with the forces that maintain and alter the direction, quality and intensity of behaviour. According to Hoy and Miskel (1987), employee motivation is the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity directed towards the achievement of personal goals. In short, Dessler (2001) defined motivation as the intensity of a

person's desire to engage in some activity. From the above definitions some issues are brought to mind that deal with what starts and energizes human behaviour, how those forces are directed and sustained as well as the outcomes they bring about (performance). It follows therefore, that there is a relationship between motivation and job satisfaction, which is paramount in any organization's existence. Although the concepts of motivation and job satisfaction are often confused with one another, Peretomode (1991) citing Gibson et al., (1989) pointed out that the two terms are related but are not synonymous. They acknowledged that job satisfaction is one part of the motivational process. While motivation is primarily concerned with goal-directed behaviour, job satisfaction refers to the fulfilment acquired by experiencing various job activities and rewards. It is possible that an employee may display low motivation from the organization's perspective yet enjoy every aspect of the job. This state represents high job satisfaction. Peretomode (1991) also argued that a highly motivated employee might also be dissatisfied with every aspect of his or her job. Ifinedo (2003) demonstrated that a motivated worker is easy to spot by his or her agility, dedication, enthusiasm, focus, zeal, and general performance and contribution to organizational objectives and goals.

2.1.4 Motivation Theories

According to Mullins (1996) "motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction." He further contends that although the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction is unclear, it can be illustrated by means of the motivational theories. Thus satisfaction can as well be understood from the lens of the motivation theories. The study of motivation has created two major theoretical bodies of knowledge namely

Content theories and Process theories (Calder, 2000). Content theories focus on the factors within a person that energize, direct, sustain and stop behaviour. They look at the specific needs that motivate people. Cronje, Du Toit, Marais and Motlatta (2003) further posit that content theories highlight the factors within people that guide behaviour, whereas process theories focus largely on why individuals opt for certain behavioural choices to satisfy their desires and how they assess their satisfaction after they have attained their objectives. Process theories provide a description and analysis of how behaviour is energized, directed, sustained and stopped. Nel et al., (2004) posit that content theories concentrate on the needs and factors that motivate behaviour, while process theories are focused on the source of behaviour and the factors that affect the strength and direction of the behaviour.

The following content theories will be addressed: Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two factor theory and Mc Clelland's achievement motivation theory. On the other hand process theories that will be addressed include the Valence Instrumental Expectancy theory, Equity theory and Goal Setting theory. These theories endeavour to provide a supporting context for job satisfaction.

2.1.5 Content theories

2.1.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of needs theory

Maslow's theory states that people have a pyramidal hierarchy of needs that they will satisfy from bottom to top. Maslow (1954) postulated a hierarchy of needs that progress from the lowest, subsistence-level needs to the highest level of awareness and

actualization. The needs are divided into two categories: **deficiency needs** (physiological and safety) and **growth needs** (belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization). If the deficiency needs aren't satisfied, the person will feel the deficit and this will stifle his or her development. Once each level has been met, an individual will be motivated and will strive to progress to satisfy the next higher level of need. Important to this theory is that, Maslow felt that unfulfilled needs lower on the ladder would inhibit the person from climbing to the next step.



Figure 1: Maslow's pyramid of needs

Source: Martin D & Joomis K (2007)

This theory, applied to the teaching profession, implies that managers have the responsibility to make sure their people's deficiency needs are met. This means, in broad terms, a safe environment and proper wages for the employees. It further means creating

a proper climate in which teachers can develop their fullest potential. Failure to do so, would theoretically increase their frustration and could result in poorer performance, lower job satisfaction, and increased withdrawal from the organization. Thus this theory implies that when teachers' deficiency needs are not met in both the rural and urban their job satisfaction is likely to drop.

Despite its extensive usage Maslow's needs theory has received wide criticism arguing it lacks empirical evidence to substantiate it (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1988 cited in Arnolds & Boshoff, 2001). Similarly, Robbins et al., (2003) posit that little support has been found for the prediction that need structures are organised along the scope suggested by Maslow.

2.1.5.2 Herzberg theory

Herzberg's two factors is a set of motivators that drives people to achieve (Heller and Hindle, 1998). Herzberg's theory consists of two dimensions known as "hygiene" factors and "motivator" factors. The hygiene factors also known as extrinsic factors include supervision, interpersonal relations, benefits, job security, salary and working conditions. According to Herzberg (1957) hygiene issues cannot motivate employees but can minimise dissatisfaction and serve as a point of departure for motivation. On the other hand, satisfying motivator needs which are related to job tasks, job content and intrinsic aspects of the job can lead to job satisfaction, but their absence cannot lead to job dissatisfaction (Robbins, 1993). Investigations conducted by Herzberg in terms of the intrinsic (motivators) factors and extrinsic factors (hygiene) suggest that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction Robbins et al., (2003). The results of the studies

reflected that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction.

A criticism of Herzberg's theory is that it oversimplifies work motivation. There are job factors that lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Thus a given factor can cause job satisfaction for one person and job dissatisfaction for another person, and vice versa (Gaziel, 1986).

However, according to Schermerhorn (1993), Herzberg's two-factor theory is an important frame of reference for managers who want to understand job satisfaction and its related job performance issues. Schermerhorn suggests that managers should attempt to always eliminate poor hygiene sources of job dissatisfaction in the workplace and ensure building satisfier factors into job content to maximise opportunities for job satisfaction. Schermerhorn further asserts that Herzberg's two-factor theory is a useful reminder that there are two important aspects of all jobs: what people do in terms of job tasks (job content), and the work setting in which they do it (job context).

2.1.5.3 McClelland's need for achievement theory

Robbins et al., (2003) posit that McClelland's theory focuses on the needs for achievement, power and affiliation. The idea is that needs are acquired throughout life. That is needs are not innate but are learned or developed as a result of one's life experiences (McClelland, 1985).

According to Greenberg (1999), the need for achievement is where individuals strive for goals that are challenging, but attainable, with the hope of feedback on achievement. Greenberg (1999) further states that this need is concerned with an individual's longing to strive for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success.

The need for power refers to individuals' desire to be influential, effective and to make an impact. There is a strong need to lead and for their ideas to prevail. There is also motivation and need towards increasing personal status and prestige.

In terms of McClelland's need for affiliation, Stuart-Kotze (n.d.) states that the need for affiliation is similar to Maslow's need to belong. Stuart-Kotze contends that the need for affiliation manifests itself in the desire to have harmonious relationships with other people and the need to feel accepted by other people. The affiliation driver produces motivation and the need to be liked and held in popular regard. It is said that such people are team players and tend to conform to the norms of their work group. They prefer work that provides significant personal interaction. They perform well in customer service and client interaction situations.

2.1.6 Process Theories

2.1.6.1 Vroom's expectancy theory

This theory addresses the expectations of individuals and hypothesizes that they are motivated by performance and the expected outcomes of their own behaviours (Vroom, 1964). The expectancy theory says that individuals have different sets of goals and can be

motivated if they have certain expectations. This theory is about choice, it explains the processes that an individual undergoes to make choices. Unlike Maslow and Herzberg the expectancy theory of motivation, does not concentrate on needs, but rather focuses on outcomes. Whereas Maslow and Herzberg look at the relationship between internal needs and the resulting effort expended to fulfil them, Vroom separates effort, which arises from motivation, performance, and outcomes.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory is based upon three variables or beliefs that he calls Valence, Expectancy and Instrumentality. Valence refers to the emotional orientations which people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards). For the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it. Vroom's theory suggests that the individual will consider the outcomes associated with various levels of performance, from an entire spectrum of performance possibilities, and elect to pursue the level that generates the greatest reward for him or her.

Expectancy on the other hand refers to the strength of a person's belief about whether or not a particular job performance is attainable. Instrumentality is an individual's estimate of the probability that a given level of achieved task performance will lead to various work outcomes. As with expectancy, instrumentality ranges from 0 to 1. For example, if an employee sees that a good performance rating will always result in a salary increase, the instrumentality has a value of 1. If there is no perceived relationship between a good performance rating and a salary increase, then the instrumentality is 0.

Vroom's theory however has been criticised that it did not succeed to convert motivation to perform an act into the actual performance of that act (Bottomley, 1987). Although the theory has its criticism, most of the research evidence is supportive of the theory (Dessler, 1988).

2.1.6.2 Equity theory

Equity theory states that people seek to maintain a balance between their inputs and the outcomes they receive, also in relation to the outputs of others. This theory suggests that individuals have a strong want to maintain a balance between what they perceive their inputs or contributions to be in relation to expected rewards (Dessler, 1988). Robbins (1993), states that satisfaction is determined by an individual's input-outcome balance. On the same the author further states that satisfaction comes in when perceived equity exists, and dissatisfaction results when perceived inequity exists. Individuals regard a state of equity to exist when their job inputs in relation to their job outputs are equivalent to that of relevant others. It is in this regard that a situation of fairness is said to exist (Robbins, 1993). (Robbins, 1993) further states that employees might assess their relation to friends, neighbours, co-workers, colleagues in other organisations or previous jobs they themselves have occupied. Employees compare their job inputs (such as their contribution, experience, education and competence) to their job outputs (salary levels, salary increases and recognition) in relation to that of others.

2.1.6.3 Goal setting theory

Locke (1968 cited in Robbins et al., 2003) proposed that aiming towards attaining a goal is a significant source of work motivation. The goal setting theory emanates from the notion that the behaviour of employees can be changed by influencing their goals and targets (Heery and Noon, 2001). Nel et al., (2004) add that employees are motivated if they are aware of what needs to be done in achieving a specific goal, irrespective of the difficulties they might encounter in doing so. Employees granted the opportunity to be involved in the preparation of their own goals would be more committed in achieving such goals. Heery and Noon (2001) note four general principles to elicit high performance and increase motivation in terms of the goal setting theory:

- goals should be challenging but attainable;
- goals should be specific rather than vague;
- Employees should be involved in the process, setting their own goals; and goals should be measurable and clearly understood by employees.”

The theory implies that there is high likelihood of having satisfaction if teachers are able to achieve goals that are challenging, specific and owned by them.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

Based on the definitions of satisfaction, motivation and the theoretical underpinnings of motivation discussed above, this study was guided by a conceptual framework which is derived from the Job Descriptive Index and the Job In General scales. The JDI measures satisfaction perceptions for five (5) job facets, namely: pay, promotions, supervision, co-workers and the work itself (Spector, 2000). Thus each of these job facets is used to

capture job satisfaction level of an employee. Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) the developers of the JDI believed that the facets are the most important realms of the job as such they are the key determinants of the overall job satisfaction. The figure below summarizes the conceptual framework.

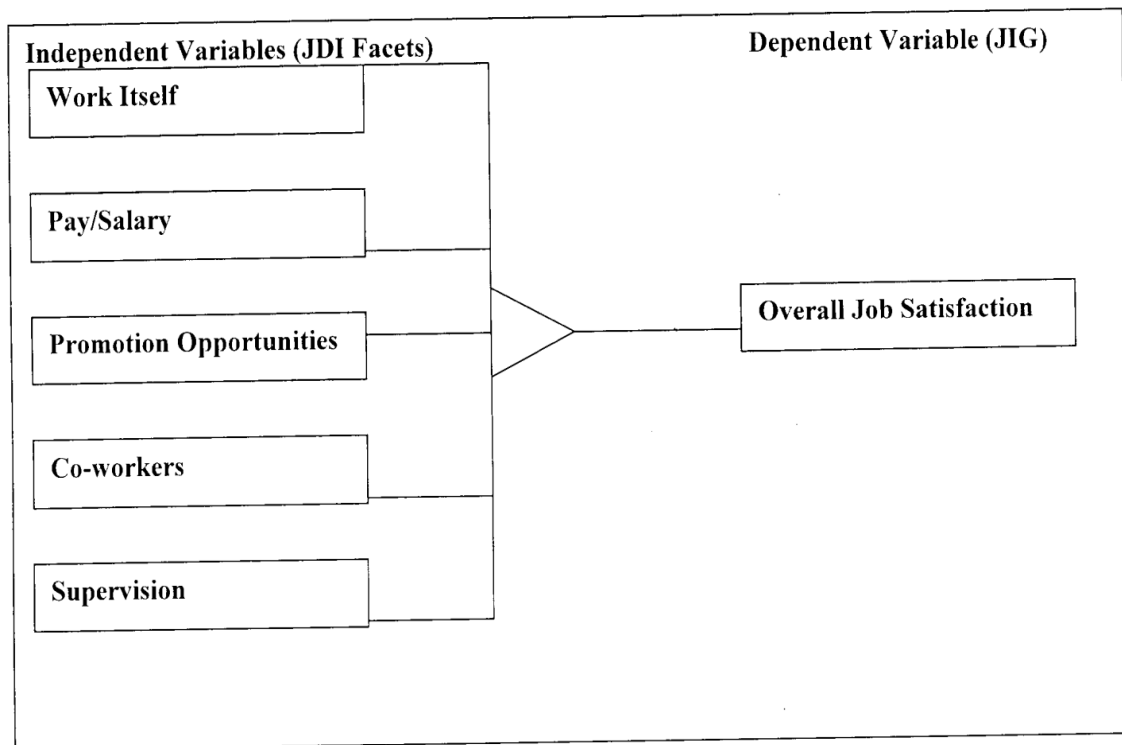


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

Source: Mitambo (2012)

According to Kendal and Hulin (1969), the key job facets from which this conceptual framework was developed are work itself, pay/salary, promotion opportunities, coworkers and supervision and these can determine job satisfaction. However literature indicates that there are other variables whose relationship with job satisfaction has also been investigated. These variables are discussed below.

2.3 Determinants of Job satisfaction

A review of the literature shows that numerous variables have been investigated in their relationship to job satisfaction. These variables include demographic data (e.g. age, sex, educational level, years of service and marital status) and organizational factors of the job (e.g. recognition, advancement, and responsibility), and extrinsic variables (e.g. salary, supervision, promotion opportunities, work itself and co-workers).

2.3.1 Demographic factors

2.3.1.1 Age

Research has often focused on age as a factor influencing job satisfaction but mixed evidence exists regarding the relationship between age and job satisfaction (Robbins et al., 2003). Available literature is somewhat inconclusive, with some studies showing no significant impact (Miller, 1985; Brown, 1998), some showing a gradual linear increase of satisfaction as age increases (Hulin, 1963; Hohenshil & Brown, 1984; Sutter, 1994), and some suggesting that satisfaction is curvilinear and changes throughout the lifespan of the employee (Hertzberg et al., 1957).

Spector (1997) postulates that generally speaking, job satisfaction tends to increase gradually with age (Spector, 1997). Hertzberg et.al, (1957) attributes this trend to the fact that job expectations tend to become more realistic as employees age and mature. This view is shared by Greenberg and Baron (1995) who argues that older employees are generally happier with their jobs than younger employees, while people who are more experienced in their jobs are more highly satisfied than those who are less experienced.

This view is supported by Drafke and Kossen (2002). The researchers state that job satisfaction typically increases with age as older workers have more work experience and generally have a more realistic view of work and life in comparison to their younger counterparts. They are of the opinion that younger workers have less experience to draw on and have an idealistic view of what work should be like. Furthermore, Mottaz (1987) in Oshagbemi (2003) postulates that younger workers are generally more dissatisfied than older employees because they demand more than their jobs can provide. The author further argues that older workers place less emphasis on autonomy or promotion, thus they demand less from their jobs, making them more satisfied than their younger counterparts. In the same vein Latham (1998) compared the age and seniority of teachers and their relation with job satisfaction and he found that senior teachers have a higher job satisfaction level than juniors and older teachers have a higher job satisfaction level than younger ones. Similar trends have been observed in Tanzania, where younger, better-qualified teachers are generally less satisfied with their jobs than the older generation of teachers, who still feel 'privileged' to be a teacher (Bennell, 2007).

Other researchers however have observed that this pattern may change to show a relative decline in satisfaction after age 55 (Jewel, 1990), but this may be linked to the decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that may accompany the aging process. Robbins et al., (2003) report that although most studies indicate a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction, other studies reflect a decrease in satisfaction as employees move towards middle age, at least up to the age of 60. Satisfaction increases again from around 40 and on. The authors refer to this phenomenon as the U-shaped relationship.

Still, many studies fail to show this late-career job satisfaction drop-off, and Quinn, Staines, and McCullough (1974) reported that older workers remain satisfied because of promotions and acquiring more desirable positions within organizations. Others justify the findings by noting that people change jobs 6-7 times in a lifetime, and as people get older, they become more aware of their needs and make better choices. This incongruence of literature is likely due to situational job variances, and Zeitz (1990) supported this logic by demonstrating significant differences between satisfaction levels of federal employees based on their positions as elite professionals, non-elite professionals, and non-professionals.

There is a dearth of knowledge however on the local scene with regard to age as one of the determinants of job satisfaction among secondary school teachers. Such a silence may have implications in the way young and old teachers are treated. Thus this study will unearth this vital information for the benefit of the teachers as well as the policy makers.

2.3.1.2 Sex

Sex has also received a great deal of attention in job satisfaction studies, but again the research is inconclusive. In 1997, Thompson and McNamara reviewed all job satisfaction studies published in the Educational Administration Quarterly in USA over the past six years and showed no significant difference between male and female satisfaction levels. Other studies that have shown no significant difference between sex and job satisfaction levels include Barbash (1976), D'Arcy, Syrotuik, & Siddique (1984), and Iiacqua et al. (1995). Smith, Smitz, and Hoy, (1998) arrived at similar insignificant findings until they

compared the sex of the employee to the sex of the employer. They found that women were more significantly more satisfied than men in small companies with female supervision, while males were significantly more satisfied in larger companies with male supervisors.

Studies suggesting that sex does affect job satisfaction are available, and data can be found to suggest that either men are more satisfied (Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Black & Holden, 1998, Weaver, 1977) or that women are generally more satisfied (Kramen-Kahn & Hansen, 1998, Chapman & Lower, 1982). The inconsistencies, according to Gruneberg (1979), are closely linked to differences among expectations, respect, promotional prospects, salary, social interactions, and coping strategies of males and females and the jobs they often hold. Others suggest that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women because of unequal treatments in the workplace, and that under equal work conditions; women are more satisfied with their jobs than men.

A study conducted by Murray and Atkinson (1981) investigating sex differences in determinants of job satisfaction, reflected that females attach more importance to social factors such as co-workers, while males place greater value on pay, advancement and other extrinsic aspects. In support, Tang and Talpade (1999) maintain that there is a significant difference between males and females in terms of job dimensions impacting on job satisfaction. Their study found that men tend to have higher satisfaction with remuneration in relation to females, while females tended to have higher satisfaction with co-workers than males. Contrary to the above Robins et al., (2003) argue that no evidence

exists suggesting that sex impacts on an employee's job satisfaction. However he is of the opinion that sex differences can have an effect on the relationship between job dimensions and job satisfaction, but that it does not have a direct impact on job satisfaction. Although some studies on job satisfaction have been conducted on the local scene (Kadzamira, 2006, VSO, 2002) it is still not clear on who is more satisfied between male and female teachers.

2.3.1.3 Educational level

Studies conducted to examine the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction just like the other demographic variables discussed above, have produced mixed results. An investigation by Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) in the Lebanese banking sector found that no statistically significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and education ($p = 0.094$). Although the relationship was not significant, their research found that a relationship between job satisfaction and education existed. In this regard respondents in possession of a school certificate reported the lowest level of overall job satisfaction, while employees with a college certificate reported the highest level of overall job satisfaction.

However, a similar study conducted by (Kh Metle, 2003) amongst Kuwaiti women employed in a public government sector environment, showed that a strong relationship existed between the level of education and overall job satisfaction. In this study, employees in possession of an intermediate level qualification reported higher levels of satisfaction in relation to those employees who have higher levels of education. Kh Metle

(2003) suggests that job satisfaction decreases in relation to an increase in the level of education as the expectations of employees are often not met by employers. These findings resonate with the findings of Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) who found that Diploma teachers showed high job satisfaction than degree teachers because degree teachers are usually dissatisfied with salary and opportunities for promotion.

2.3.1.4 Marital status

Just like the other variables discussed above research on the effect of marital status on job satisfaction has yielded inconclusive results (Robbins et al., 2003). For example the results of a study conducted by Kuo and Chen (2004) investigating the level of job satisfaction amongst IT personnel working in Taiwan, found marital status to be highly related to general, intrinsic and overall satisfaction. They reported that the results of the study indicated that married employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to that of single employees. Furthermore, research conducted by Cimete, Gencalp and Keskin (2003) which involved 501 nurses employed at two university hospitals in Istanbul, established that the job satisfaction mean score of divorcees and widows was higher than that of single and married groups. The difference between the mean scores was significant. Research conducted by Jamal and Baba (1992) also found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and marital status.

Other research evidence however, indicates that there is no significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction (Williamson, 1996). However, studies on teacher job satisfaction in Malawi like Kadzamira (2006), VSO (2002) are silent on the

effect of marital status on teacher job satisfaction. Such conflicting findings have made Brush, Moch and Podyan (1986) suggest that more studies to examine the relationship between marital status and job satisfaction should be carried out. This is why this study wishes to address such silences and conflicting findings that literature is offering.

2.3.1.5 Tenure

Tenure refers to the number of years an employee has spent working (Oshagbemi, 2003). According to Bedeian, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) cited in Robbins et al., (2003), tenure and job satisfaction are positively related. It is said that the longer job tenure, the more likely workers are satisfied with their jobs (Gellis, 2001). The reason is that workers with longer job tenure have more work experience and control over their jobs, and are more likely to receive organizational support than newcomers (Gellis, 2001). This view is shared by Clarke, Oswald and Warr (1996) who contend that employees with longer service may experience higher satisfaction levels because the job matches their personal needs. In this regard, Mottaz (1987) cited in Sarker, Crossman, & Chinmeteepituck (2003) adds that employees with long service tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace resulting in greater job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (2000) attribute the increase in job satisfaction over the length of time to factors such as job stability and opportunities for promotion.

Other studies however suggest that job tenure has a negative effect on job satisfaction and a positive effect on stress (Aronson, 2005). The negative relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction may be due to a long period of working overload under pressure in

care giving setting. In agreement, Savery (1996) cited in Sarker et al., (2003) states that longer tenure in a job may lead to boredom and lower levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Clarke et al., (1996) maintain that longer tenure does not necessarily lead to increased levels of job satisfaction. The researchers cite low job mobility and external labour market conditions as possible factors contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction.

Another yet interesting study found that the relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction is U-shaped (Ronen, 1978 cited in Oshagbemi (2003)). Ronen maintains that employee satisfaction declines within the first year of employment and remains low for several years, after which it increases. Furthermore, he maintains that employee expectations are high at the time of appointment, but when these expectations are not met, the resultant effect leads to a drop in job satisfaction. As the employee becomes more mature and experienced, the initial expectations decline to a more realistic level thereby making such expectations more attainable, coinciding with increased job satisfaction.

2.3.1.6 Urban vs. Rural Work Site

Another important variable which forms part of the crux of this study is location of the work place (urban and rural work sites). Just like the other variables researches conducted to find the effect of location and job satisfaction have produced conflicting results.

For example Colin and David (1998) found that teachers posted in rural area schools were more satisfied with their jobs as compared to teachers posted in urban areas but the

results contradicted the findings of Srivastava (1986) and Jalaja Kumari and Rao (2007) who found that urban teachers perceived higher job satisfaction than rural area teachers. However, Porwal (1980), Padmanabhaiah (1986) and Rao and Sridhar (2003) revealed no urban-rural difference in the job satisfaction of teachers.

A study by Solly and Hohenshil (1986) found that US School psychologists in rural areas have generally higher satisfaction with their job than those working in more urban settings. Similarly a study conducted by Bennel (2007) in Tanzania, Ghana, Lesotho Sierra Leone and Zambia indicated that much higher proportions of urban teachers indicated that their job satisfaction levels have declined in recent years, as a consequence of rapidly increasing costs of living in most towns and cities in Africa. This suggests that with high cost of living in towns teachers are less satisfied as compared their counterparts in the rural areas. But this argument contradicts sharply with Kadzamira (2006) who postulates that despite the general low job satisfaction among teachers in Malawi, urban teachers are relatively more satisfied than their counterparts in the rural areas. This is because of the acute poor accommodation and the non-availability of key services such as running water, electricity and entertainment (Kadzamira 2006). It appears that teachers are generally less satisfied with their profession when they have to teach classes with a high number of students and when they are posted to isolated rural areas but this is inconclusive owing to the fact that different studies have found different results on this aspect.

2.3.2 Organizational factors

Literature has indicated that there are a number of organisational factors that have an effect on teacher job satisfaction. Some of the most mentioned factors include promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision, work itself and remuneration/pay. These are the very same factors that form the Job Descriptive Index measurement scale which this study wishes to employ to measure job satisfaction.

2.3.2.1 Promotion opportunities

A number of researchers are of the opinion that job satisfaction is strongly related to opportunities for promotion (Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Peterson et al., 2003; Sclafane, 1999). This view is supported in a study conducted by Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) with municipal government workers where satisfaction with promotional opportunities was found to be positively and significantly related to job satisfaction. Similarly one of the problems identified by Kadzamira (2006) as a recipe for dissatisfaction among teachers in Malawi is the absence of any meaningful career paths for most teachers. In the Gender and Primary Schooling (GAPS) survey, it was noted that opportunities for advancement are more limited for teachers compared with similar professions within the civil service and, as a result, many teachers leave the profession to join other government departments where promotion prospects are better or engage in private business in order to supplement their income (Kadzamira and Chibwana 2000).

2.3.2.2 Co-workers

A number of authors maintain that having friendly and supportive colleagues contribute to increased job satisfaction (Johns, 1996; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Luthans, 1989). A study conducted by Madison (2000) on more than 21000 women occupying the most demanding jobs indicated that those participants who lacked support from co-workers were more likely to suffer from job dissatisfaction. In a similar study conducted amongst 1250 Food Brand employees found that positive relationships with co-workers enhance job satisfaction (Berta, 2005). However, studies conducted by Kadzamira (2006) and Tudor-Craig (2002) are silent on the effect of co-workers on teachers job satisfaction. Instead they have identified remuneration, working conditions, promotion opportunities, conditions of service and job status as the determinants of job satisfaction among teachers in Malawi. It is therefore, imperative that this study should fill this gap.

2.3.2.3 Supervision

Research demonstrates that a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and supervision (Koustelios, 2001; Peterson, Puia & Suess, 2003; Smucker, Whisenant, & Pederson, 2003). Supervision forms a pivotal role relating to job satisfaction in terms of the ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work related tasks (Robbins et al., 2003). Similarly, Kadzamira (2006) observed that inadequate and ineffective supervision is also a major factor contributing to low teachers job satisfaction in Malawi. She further argues that school leaders and management have not helped teachers to be positive about their schools and work. Where leadership is positive, teachers have higher morale (Kadzamira 2006). This agrees with Ramsey

(1997), who argues that supervisors contribute to high or low morale in the workplace. Wech (2002) supports this view by adding that supervisory behaviour strongly affects the development of trust in relationships with employees. The author further postulates that trust may, in turn, have a significant relationship with job satisfaction. This shows that supervision is of paramount importance to the realization of teacher job satisfaction. But how satisfied are the urban and rural secondary school teachers in Malawi with this facet, remains unknown.

2.3.2.4 Work itself

Robbins et al., (2003) refer to the work itself as “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results.” According to Robbins (1993), employees prefer jobs that present them with opportunities to execute their competencies on a variety of tasks and that are mentally stimulating.

Locke (1995) postulates that employee job satisfaction is dependent on satisfaction with the job components, such as the work itself. Tasks that are mentally and physically stimulating are more satisfying than tasks that are unchallenging because they lead to boredom and frustration (Lacey, 1994; Robbins et al., 2003). Contrary to the above, Johns (1996) is of the opinion that some employees prefer jobs that are unchallenging and less demanding. However if workers indeed get satisfied with demanding and challenging tasks we should logically expect teachers in Malawi who usually handle large classes to be more satisfied with this facet because such a task is obviously mentally and physically

challenging and demanding. To the contrary, teaching large classes has been cited in literature as the more reason teachers get stressed up leading to dissatisfaction (VSO 2002, Kadzamira 2006).

2.3.2.5 Remuneration/pay

Up to now researchers have not reached a consensus on the relationship between pay/remuneration on employee job satisfaction. According to Bassett (1994), a lack of empirical evidence exists to indicate that pay alone improves worker satisfaction or reduces dissatisfaction. The author is of the opinion that highly paid employees may still be dissatisfied if they do not like the nature of their job and feel they cannot enter a more satisfying job. In contrast to the above, a study conducted by Oshagbemi (2000) amongst United Kingdom academics, a statistically significant relationship between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction was established. This seems to agree with the findings of Kadzamira (2006) who identified remuneration as one of the determinants of teacher job satisfaction in Malawi. She further posits that in her study there was a broad consensus among all stakeholder respondents that teachers are underpaid and this is the main factor affecting their motivation and morale. This is in agreement with Bennell (2004) who argues that although occupational psychologists posit that pay on its own does not increase motivation, pecuniary motives are dominant among teachers in developing countries where pay and other material benefits are too low for individual and household survival needs to be met. He further argues that only when these basic needs have been met is it possible for 'higher-order' needs, which are the basis of true job satisfaction, to be realised.

2.4 The Consequences of Job Satisfaction

A number of authors have highlighted that job satisfaction impacts on employee productivity, turnover, absenteeism, physical and psychological health (Johns, 1996; Luthans, 1989; Mullins, 1996).

2.4.1 Productivity

Research findings indicate that the relationship between satisfaction and productivity is positive, but very low and inconsistent (Johns, 1996). According to Luthans (1989), although a relationship between job satisfaction and productivity exists, the relationship between these variables is not strong. The author maintains that the most satisfied employee will not necessarily be the most productive employee. At an individual level the evidence is often inconsistent in terms of the relationship between satisfaction and productivity, but at an organisational level a strong relationship exists between satisfaction and productivity (Robbins et al., 2003). However, Moleni and Ndalama (2004) seem to suggest that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity among teachers. Their study found out that because of low motivation, teachers were often described as 'lazy' or 'tired' and unwilling to put in the work required of them. However, this study was conducted among primary school teachers. The Presidential Commission of Inquiry, which was set up to investigate the reasons behind the poor examination performance of students at MSCE, found that indiscipline among teachers is rising and this often manifests itself in increasing absenteeism and in the growing number of teachers who are reported for unprofessional behaviour such as

drunkenness and failure to observe social distance (Presidential Commission of Inquiry 2000).

2.4.2 Physical and psychological health

Spector (1997) states that individuals who dislike their jobs could experience negative health effects that are either psychological or physical. On the other hand, Luthans (2002) mentions that employees with high levels of job satisfaction tend to experience better mental and physical health. It is further argued that teacher job satisfaction is supposed to contribute to the quality of teacher work-life, making their professional experience an element of psychological health (Menlo and Poppleton 1990), personal fulfilment and growth. This might be perceived as an objective in itself (Garrett 1999).

2.4.3 Absenteeism

Nel et al., (2004) maintain that “absenteeism is regarded as withdrawal behaviour when it is used as a way to escape an undesirable working environment.” Research indicates that job satisfaction levels are related to absenteeism (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 1989). According to Luthans (1989), various studies conducted on the relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism indicates an inverse relationship between the two variables. Thus, when satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low. The converse indicates that when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. Similarly Bennel et.al (2007) posit that high rates of teacher absenteeism have been consistently reported in recent surveys in Africa, Asia and South America and he argues that these can be directly attributed to low levels of teacher job satisfaction. Teacher absenteeism is said to be a serious problem in

Malawi and this has been attributed to low motivation and satisfaction among teachers (Kadzamira 2006). While pointing out that it is difficult to measure teacher absenteeism that can be directly attributed to poor motivation and satisfaction Bennel (2004) maintains that poor motivation and lack of accountability is widely reported to result in high levels of teacher absenteeism in many LICs.

Contrary to these findings, a study undertaken by Johns (1996) found the association between job satisfaction and absenteeism to be moderate while Bennel (2004) argues that evidence base is very weak.

2.4.4 Turnover

A number of studies strongly support the view that turnover is inversely related to job satisfaction (Griffon, Hand, Meglino & Mobley (1979) and Price (1977) cited in Robbins et al., 2003). It is contended that a high employee turnover rate is often prevalent in an environment where employees are highly dissatisfied (French 2003). Greenberg and Baron (1995) contend that employees lacking job satisfaction often tend to withdraw from situations and environments as a means of dealing with their dissatisfaction. A major form of employee withdrawal is voluntary turnover. By not reporting for duty, or by resigning to seek new job prospects, individuals might be expressing their dissatisfaction with their jobs or attempting to escape from the unpleasant aspects they may be experiencing. This seems to resonate with the findings of Kadzamira (2006) that most secondary school teachers are more likely to resign than primary school because they are usually dissatisfied with their pay and they have better opportunities outside

teaching. Phillips, Stone and Phillips (2001) concur that employee turnover is the most critical withdrawal variable.

2.5 Trends in Teacher Job Satisfaction

2.5.1 Teacher Job Satisfaction in the Developed Countries

The literature on teacher motivation and satisfaction in developed countries has many common or similar themes with the very much more limited literature on this subject in low-income developing countries (Bennell, 2007). In particular, it is widely contended that the status of teachers in most OECD countries has declined appreciably during the last fifty years, teacher autonomy and creativity has been curtailed by more control and regulation, and that teachers are being asked to do more with less. Other studies in the developed countries have found that imposed and centralized system accountability, lack of professional autonomy, relentlessly imposed changes, constant media criticism, reduced resources, and moderate pay all relate to low teacher satisfaction in many developed countries around the world (e.g., Dinham and Scott, 1998b, 2000a; Scott et al., 2001; van den Berg, 2002; Vandenberghe and Huberman, 1999). While these authors mention poor pay as a cause for low satisfaction Bennel et al., (2007) posit that research in OECD countries has consistently found that ‘working with children’ is the main determinant of teacher job satisfaction other than pecuniary gains. This suggests that there is much conflicting literature on pay and satisfaction in the developed countries as there is in the developing countries.

Similarly, a comprehensive literature review by Spear et al., (2000) highlights the wide range of factors that influence teacher job satisfaction and motivation in the United Kingdom. In their review the main factor found to contribute to job satisfaction of teachers is working with children whereas job dissatisfaction was primarily attributed to work overload, poor pay, and perceptions of how teachers are viewed by society. Similarly the US Department of Education, National Centre for Education Statistics, (1997) identified “more administrative support and leadership, good student behaviour, a positive school atmosphere, and teacher autonomy” as the working conditions that were associated with higher teacher satisfaction. Spear et al., (2000) conclude that, in order to experience high job satisfaction, teachers need an intellectual challenge, a high level of professional autonomy, to feel that they are benefiting society, to enjoy good relations with their colleagues, and to spend a sufficient proportion of their time working with children. According to them, in the developed countries, enhanced pay, improved status, a less demanding workload and fewer administrative responsibilities do not necessarily bring about higher levels of job satisfaction. This contradicts sharply with the claim made by Bennel (2004) that pecuniary motives are high in the developing countries as such poor pay is a cause for low satisfaction among teachers.

The International Teacher (2000) project has shown very clearly that teachers are motivated more by intrinsic than by extrinsic motivation. This series of studies found that teachers obtain their greatest satisfaction through a sense of achievement in reaching and affecting students, experiencing recognition, and feeling responsible, as well as a sense of personal power and motivation. Results have been remarkably consistent in the four

Anglophone countries (Australia, England, New Zealand and the USA) in which this project has been implemented. Teachers were found to be motivated by a desire to work with and for people, and to “make a difference” (Dinham and Scott, 2000a, 2000b, 2002), by assisting children and young people to reach their potential, experience success, and grow into responsible adults.

Another important finding of the review is that studies have consistently identified the same variations in the job satisfaction levels of teachers depending on certain individual and school characteristics. In particular, with regard to sex differences, female teachers tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction than their male colleagues, but male teachers are generally more satisfied over their level of influence over school policies and practices. Furthermore teachers in the rural areas report higher levels of job satisfaction than those in urban areas in the developed countries.

2.5.2 Teacher Job Satisfaction in the Developing Countries- Sub Saharan Africa

Literature is quite awash with evidence that in the Sub-Saharan Africa high proportions of teachers working in public school systems are not satisfied with their job (Gaynor 1998, VSO 2002). However, Bennel (2004) is quick to point out that despite this general trend in teacher job satisfaction in the Sub-Saharan Africa there are other countries whose teachers enjoy relatively higher job satisfaction. In this vein it has been established that teachers in Botswana and Uganda enjoy higher job satisfaction than teachers in Malawi where there appears to be more cause for concern especially at primary schools (Bennel, Hyde and Swanson, 2002 in Bennel, 2004).

A myriad of factors have been blamed for the low job satisfaction among teachers in the Sub-Saharan Africa. According to Bennel (2004) salary is one of the factors that is responsible for the low job satisfaction levels among teachers in the developing countries, Sub Saharan Africa in particular. He argues that although received wisdom among occupational psychologists is that ‘pay on its own does not increase motivation’, pecuniary motives are likely to be dominant among teachers in those LICs where pay and other material benefits are too low for individual and household survival needs to be met. Only when these basic needs have been met is it possible for ‘higher-order’ needs, which are the basis of true job satisfaction, to be realised. This view has also been contended by VSO (2002) which demonstrated that the poor absolute value of the teachers’ salaries was significant factor influencing their motivation. In the VSO research, teachers’ concern about their salaries was particularly acute in Zambia and Malawi, where teachers’ salaries do not constitute a living wage. In Papua New Guinea teachers found that their salaries were not enough to meet the high cost of living in remote rural areas, where transport costs are high. This also applies in Lesotho where the cost of living in the rural areas is also said to be high (Urwick, 2005). However, when this scenario of low salary and satisfaction in the developing countries is juxtaposed with the developed countries a marked difference is noticed with the fact that teachers in the developed countries do not regard pay as a satisfier.

Teacher’ dissatisfaction in the developing countries is not ignited by the absolute value of salary only but also that salaries are usually paid late or and the payment system is inefficient or unreliable which impose hardship on the teachers (VSO 2002). Penrose

(1998) established that 53 percent of state teachers claimed that their salaries were never paid in time while teachers in Ghana experience frequent salary delays of between two to nine months (Hedges 2002). Furthermore the unfavourable comparisons they make between their own remuneration packages and those of other professions also provokes dissatisfaction. Teachers in Zambia, Malawi and Papua Guinea reported feeling inferior to other professionals, leading to demoralization and teacher attrition out of the profession (VSO 2002).

VSO (2002) also established that management styles of head teachers in schools of Zambia, Malawi and Papua New Guinea tend to be authoritarian with limited participation, delegation and communication with respect to major school management functions. Such poor management of teachers is reported to be responsible for the low job satisfaction in the developing countries (Bennell, 2007).

Studies have also indicated that teachers' dissatisfaction in the Sub-Saharan Africa is exacerbated by poor work and living conditions (VSO, 2002; Bennell, 2007). The work and living environments for many teachers are poor, which tends to lower self-esteem and is generally de-motivating. Housing is a major issue for nearly all teachers. The 'struggling teacher' is an all too common sight (Bennel 2004). It was also reported by many teachers in Zambia, Malawi and Papua New Guinea that poor housing was a daily source of irritation and ill-filling which affect both their motivation and satisfaction with the work (VSO, 2002). Bennel (2004) further posits that schools in many countries lack basic amenities such as pipe-borne water and electricity, staff rooms and toilets. The most

common appearing factor responsible for the claimed low satisfaction among teachers in the Sub-Saharan Africa is the lack of promotion opportunities (Bennell, 2007; VSO, 2002). A study conducted by VSO (2002) in Malawi, Zambia, Papua New Guinea established that teachers felt that their promotion opportunities were constrained both by bureaucratic systems managing promotions and by exorbitant cost of improving their promotions and that they were not even sure whether they will be promoted or not. Another major challenge highlighted by Nyange (2013) is that teachers are not adequately consulted regarding policy changes and that their rights are usually violated. This often leads to frustration and dissatisfaction, and in turn affects the commitment and productivity of teachers. Nyange (2013) further reports that Voi District Secondary School teachers in Kenya under the Union KUPPET boycotted classes and demonstrated in the streets after their hardship allowances which they had been receiving since 1997 were scrapped off without prior consultations and five teachers had changed their jobs and left the profession in the beginning of the year 2013.

The urban-rural divide has been another stinging factor among teachers in the Sub-Saharan Africa. Most studies have indicated that teachers refuse rural postings (Bennell, 2004; Urwick, 2005; VSO, 2002). Invariably, the key issue is the unattractiveness of rural schools, especially in remote locations (Bennel, 2002). Working in rural schools is widely regarded as being considerably more difficult and thus more de-motivating than in urban schools due mainly to poor living and working conditions (Kadzamira, 2006). However, the findings from the country studies show that this is not necessarily the case. This is because teachers who work at schools in their home areas tend to have higher

levels of job satisfaction than their colleagues who are ‘strangers’ in the locality (Bennell, 2007). Furthermore, results of a study by Bennel (2007) showed that much higher proportions of urban teachers indicated that their job satisfaction levels have declined in recent years, which is a consequence of rapidly increasing costs of living in most towns and cities in Africa. Increasing hours of work, larger class sizes, more subjects, and constantly changing curricula are cited as major de-motivators in many countries. What is expected from teachers (the ‘social contract’) is not pitched at a realistic level in many countries given material rewards, workloads, and work and living environments (Bennell, 2007).

According to VSO (2002), education in developing countries is said to be at a critical juncture: a potential crisis in the teaching profession threatens the ability of national governments to reach internationally agreed targets to expand and improve education. VSO (2002) further posits that in many developing countries the teaching force is demoralised and fractured. This problem is said to be worse in rural areas where teachers are frequently paid little and late, their educational and training needs are neglected, and they are mired in bureaucracies that support neither their effective performance nor their career progression in their jobs. Teachers previously benefiting from considerable public respect and reasonable financial reward, feel their status is in decline (Bennel, 2004). As a result the teaching profession in developing countries is characterized by high attrition rates, constant turn over, lack of confidence and varying levels of professional commitment (VSO 2002).

It can be concluded that teachers in the developing countries are faced with a myriad of problems which consequently corrode their satisfaction. This explains why sizeable proportions of teachers have low job satisfaction in the developing countries as compared to the developed countries. Furthermore from the literature it can be contended that unlike in the developed countries most teachers in the developing countries are dissatisfied with pay.

2.5.3 Teacher Job Satisfaction in Malawi

It needs to be pointed out that few studies on teacher job satisfaction have so far been conducted in Malawi. However, the few studies just as those carried out in the sub-Saharan countries have concluded that job satisfaction among teachers in both primary and secondary schools is low. These studies have also suggested key determinants like salary, living and working conditions as being responsible for the low job satisfaction among teachers in Malawi.

A study conducted by VSO (2002) concluded that pitiable remuneration for teachers accounts for the low job satisfaction. This is because the money that teachers receive does not constitute a living wage and is inadequate to support the living cost of their families (Kadzamira 2006). This problem is compounded by the poor administration of salaries which results in delays of salaries (VSO 2002). The frequency of such problems has made teachers develop resentments towards their own work which eventually lowers the level of job satisfaction (VSO 2002). Furthermore, the current levels of job satisfaction have been attributed to the poor conditions of service (Kadzamira 2006). One

important dimension of condition of service is promotion. Kadzamira (2006) posits that teachers in the country are heavily demoralized by the career ladder in the teaching service because it does not provide a meaningful career path to allow them to be promoted to higher grades.

Just as in the other Sub-Saharan countries poor working conditions such as classes and teacher housing are also said to contribute to low teacher job satisfaction in Malawi. Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) observed that teachers in the country work in schools with dilapidated structures, no sanitation facilities and inadequate teaching and learning materials. Although it has been established that teacher job satisfaction is generally low, it is important to note that earlier studies have found that levels of satisfaction vary across different categories of teachers. For example, Kadzamira (2006) argues that satisfaction tends to be high among teachers in private schools than in the public schools. On the other hand qualified teachers tend to be more satisfied than the unqualified because of low salaries, lack of promotion opportunities, limited opportunities for further studies as well as occupational status for the unqualified. It has further been established by Kadzamira (2006) that there is a variation in teacher job satisfaction between Degree and Diploma teachers with the former having relatively lower satisfaction apparently because of the perceived lower salaries and poor incentives.

It has also been established that there is a relatively higher job satisfaction among teachers in secondary schools than primary schools and urban schools than rural schools (Kadzamira 2006). According to Kadzamira (2006), rural schools are especially

disadvantaged when it comes to teacher housing and availability of suitable housing within the vicinity of the school. These earlier studies should be highly appreciated for the impressive examination of the concept of job satisfaction among teachers in the country. The studies have established that teachers' job satisfaction in Malawi is generally low due to a number of factors such as remuneration, conditions of service, working condition and teacher workload.

These studies have also established that job satisfaction varies across different categories of teachers in the country. The rural urban variation which is also the interest of this study has been established. However, these variations have been found qualitatively as such it is not known whether the difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural is statistically significant. Furthermore, since these studies have been conducted qualitatively they have not used the recommended valid and reliable instruments for measuring job satisfaction such as Job Descriptive Index and Job In General scales. Thus in the absence of such instruments it remains doubtful that the results that the studies found are accurate

The studies have further claimed that remuneration, conditions of service, working conditions and teacher workload are the key determinants of teacher job satisfaction. However, without some statistical analyses like regression analysis it is difficult to establish key determinants of job satisfaction. Thus this study wishes to close that gap by employing necessary instruments and statistical analyses to establish job satisfaction among urban and rural secondary school teachers. Through such analyses the study will

manage to find out whether there is real difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural and whether they share the same determinants of job satisfaction.

2.6 Emerging Issues from Literature

It is evident from literature reviewed that there is intense controversy as to what really determines job satisfaction. While other studies have found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and demographic variables such as sex, age, marital status, educational level, tenure and location of work site other studies have found no relationship between the said variables. Similarly other studies have found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational factors such as salary/pay, coworkers, work itself, promotion and supervision while other studies found no relationship.

It has also been revealed in literature that in developed countries just like in developing ones, job satisfaction has declined appreciably (Bennell, 2007). However the difference lies on the reasons for the decline in the two divides. In developed countries it is contended that lack of professional autonomy due to more control and regulation, imposed changes among others are responsible for the decline. In developing countries on the other hand little pay, poor supervision, lack of promotion opportunities and debilitating working environment are said to be responsible for the teachers' low job satisfaction. VSO (2002) posits that teachers previously benefiting from considerable public respect and reasonable financial reward feel their status is in decline as a result the

teaching profession in developing countries is characterized by high attrition rates, constant turn over, lack of confidence and varying levels of professional commitment.

The urban-rural divide has been another stinging factor across literature with some studies indicating that rural teachers are lowly satisfied as compared to urban teachers and as a consequence most teachers refuse rural postings (Bennell, 2004; Urwick, 2005; VSO, 2002). However, while other findings indicate no urban-rural difference others indicate that the rural teachers are more satisfied than the urban teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the research design and methodology that were employed in this study to measure the overall level of job satisfaction and establish the key determinants of job satisfaction among urban and rural teachers. In order to vividly comprehend the design and methodology of the study, the chapter starts by examining the philosophical orientation or paradigm underpinning the study, then posits the research approach. Thereafter, the chapter discusses the design of the study and within the research design, explores the methodology which includes; sampling, data collection methods and data analysis techniques. Finally, the chapter addresses ethical considerations of the study.

3.1 Research Philosophy/Paradigm: Positivism

Krauss, (2005) define the research paradigm as a basic belief system or world view that orientates thinking and guides the investigation. This acts as a set of lenses for the researcher to view the fieldwork within a particular set of established assumptions; that is merging the abstract usefulness of the paradigm with practical application of conducting rigorous research studies (Burke, 2007). Bryman (2008) defines a paradigm as a cluster of beliefs and dictates that influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted. The research paradigm that this research

embraced was the positivist orientation. According to Bryman (2008), Positivism is a dominant ontological and epistemological paradigm within the social sciences premised on the argument that the world exists externally to the researcher and can be measured by observation. The major ontological stance is that social reality exists independent of people and can be discovered through empirical investigation (Gall and Borg, 2003; Kim, 2003). Positivism as a paradigm is premised on the belief that there is an objective reality out there waiting to be discovered and that this reality exists independently of whether or not the man or woman on the street has knowledge of it and whether or not the social researcher has yet discovered its existence. Thus, knowledge is held to be the product of straight forward experimentation and observation interpreted through rational deduction because it is only conclusions of deductive logic and beliefs derived from direct observation that can be known with certainty (Hunt, 2001; Burke, 2007). Thus, within the aspect of positivism job satisfaction was objectively investigated and measured. In this view both the collection and analysis of data were value-free and the subjects were viewed through a “one way mirror” as the researcher remains distant and independent from the study subjects (Creswell, 2003). Therefore, emanating from the idea of objectivism, the study intended to establish knowledge about job satisfaction among urban and rural secondary teachers. This was done through gathering measurable data to dissipate speculations, subjects’ beliefs and generate knowledge that is based entirely on observable facts, hence the adoption of positivism.

3.2 Research Approach: Quantitative

The study followed the quantitative approach, which is based on the idea that social phenomena can be quantified, measured and expressed numerically. Generally, researchers assert that quantitative research is a positivistic approach due to the compatibility with the values entranced by the natural science as it serves the positive science ideal by providing rigorous, reliable and verifiable large aggregate of data and statistical testing of empirical hypotheses (Berg, 2001; Evely, Fazey, Pinard and Lambin, 2008). For the quantitative researcher, reality is conceptualized as variables which are measured, and the primary objective is to find out how the variables are distributed and especially how they are related to each other and why (Punch, 2003). In conformity to this methodology therefore numerical data were collected from both urban and rural secondary teachers in order to measure job satisfaction and determine the relationship that exists between job satisfaction and different variables such as promotion opportunities, pay, work itself, supervision, co-workers and demographic variables (age, marital status, level of education, tenure and sex)

3.3 Research Design

Kothari (2004) defines a research design as “the conceptual structure within which the research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data”. Furthermore the design of the study has a great bearing on the reliability of the results as such forms the firm foundation of the entire edifice of the research work (Gay and Airasian 2003). It should be mentioned that there are several quantitative research designs but there are not necessarily mutually exclusive thus hybrid

and mixed designs are possible. It was in this regard therefore that the study followed a hybrid design which the researcher termed a comparative correlational design. The study employed this hybrid design because of three reasons. The first is that the study compared two groups of teachers, urban and rural secondary school teachers. The second reason is that the study measured the degree of relationship between job satisfaction and other variables (promotion opportunities, pay, work, itself, supervision, co-workers and demographic variables such as age, marital status, level of education, tenure and sex). Lastly it intended to find out whether job satisfaction (criterion) can be predicted by the aforementioned variables (predictors). The aim was to find whether predictors of job satisfaction differ by location of school hence the adoption of the comparative correlation design.

3.4 Sampling

Kothari (2004) defines sampling as the act, process or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. The study employed a stratified proportional sampling procedure. According to O'Leary (2004) in proportionate random sampling method, the researcher stratifies the population according to known characteristics and subsequently, randomly draws the sample in a similar proportion from each stratum of the population according to its proportion. That is, the population is divided into several sub-populations depending upon some known characteristics, this sub population is called strata and they are homogeneous. In the same vein, the population was first divided into different homogeneous groups or strata which were based on location, sex,

educational qualification. Furthermore, the sample size for urban and rural was calculated using the sample size calculator at 0.5 confidence level. Table 1 gives the sample size in each stratum.

Table 1: Population and Sample size

POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE				
	Urban		Rural	
Total population of Teachers	366		392	
Total Sample size	188		193	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Sample size	107	81	160	34
Sample size for those with Degrees	65	36	39	13
Sample size for those Diplomas	38	41	47	10
Sample size for those with MSCE	4	4	74	10

As indicated in the Table, population was first divided into two major strata namely urban and rural teachers. The number as well as the names of teachers from both the urban and rural were collected from the South East Education Division office, so it was easy to know the sample population. As indicated in the table they were 366 teachers and 392 teachers in the urban and rural respectively. Using a sample size calculator at 0.5 confidence level it was found that the sample sizes for the urban and rural were 188 teachers and 193 teachers respectively. The sample sizes for both locations were further disaggregated proportionately by sex and academic qualification as indicated in the table. Since the researcher had all the names of teachers in the district, random number generator was used to find the respondents.

3.5 Data Collection

Data were collected using a structured Questionnaire where definite, concrete and pre-determined questions were presented with exactly the same wording and order to all respondents. The questionnaire had fixed alternative answers limited to the set questions and very few propositions or alternatives were allowed to ensure objectivity, which is consistent with the approach and design of the study (Kothari, 2004). Specifically the study used the Job Descriptive Index JDI and Job In General (JIG) survey instruments and the Demographic questionnaire.

3.5.1 Demographic Questionnaire

The researcher employed a demographic questionnaire in order to gather data on the relevant demographic characteristics of public Zomba urban and rural secondary school teachers. The questionnaire gathered data on age, sex, marital status, years of service and qualification.

3.5.2 Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was developed by Smith, Kendal and Hulin in 1969. Since its development JDI has been the most widely used measure of job satisfaction in use today (Cranny et al., 1992). It is actually considered the ‘most carefully developed and validated instrument’ for measuring job satisfaction (Spector, 2000). With a total of 72 items, the JDI focuses on five facets – work on the present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision on present job, and co-workers on present job. The Job Descriptive Index is designed to measure employees' satisfaction with different

aspects of the job. The JDI is a “facet” measure of job satisfaction, meaning that participants are asked to think about specific facets of their job and rate their satisfaction with those specific facets. The facets of the JDI are derived from the definition of job satisfaction by Smith, Kendal and Hulin (1969). This study therefore employed this instrument to get teachers’ satisfaction on the said job facets (work on the present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision on present job, and co-workers on present job)

3.5.2.1 Description of the Five Facets of the JDI:

The first facet of the JDI is ‘Present job’ which measures the employee’s satisfaction with the work itself (tasks related to the job).

‘Present Pay’ is the second facet of the JDI. This facet measures the employee’s attitude toward pay and is based on the perceived difference between expected pay and actual pay.

The third facet is ‘Opportunities for promotion’ which measures the employee’s satisfaction with the company’s promotion policy and the administration.

Supervision is the fourth facet and it assesses the employees’ satisfaction with their supervisor. This type of satisfaction is based on how considerate and competent the supervisor is perceived to be by the employee.

The fifth facet is ‘Co-workers’. This facet assesses the level of employee satisfaction with fellow co-workers. Work related interaction and mutual liking among co-workers determine satisfaction on this particular scale (Balzer et al., 1997).

3.5.3 Job In General (JIG)

The JIG scale is used as a stand-alone measure of overall job satisfaction. For researchers and practitioners interested in a single score representing overall job satisfaction, one option is to use measures like the JDI and simply calculate the mean (or sum) of scores on various facets. However, this approach could suffer from errors of omission (i.e., omitting facets important to the employee) and errors of commission (i.e., including facets unimportant to the employee) (Judge et al., 2009). A preferable approach is to directly measure employees’ perceptions of the job as a whole hence the Job In General (JIG) scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989).

3.6 Job Descriptive Index and Job In General Scale Format

The format of the Job Descriptive Index is presented in an adjective/short phrase checklist form. A total of 72 items on this scale were used in the study; 18 items for present job satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and co-worker satisfaction, and 9 items for pay satisfaction and promotion satisfaction. Items on the Job Descriptive Index had five words or less and of low reading difficulty. The Job In General scale had 18 items. For both JDI and JIG, respondents indicated their agreement or disagreement with the application of an item descriptor to their jobs by marking ‘Y’ if they agree with the descriptor, “N” if they do not and “?” if they cannot decide.

3.7 Scoring Procedures of JDI and JIG

The total number of items for both JDI and JIG was 90 and teachers marked N, ? or Y based on whether they think the item applies to their current job. During scoring, a score of “3” was assigned to positive items with a “Y” response and negative items with an “N” response. A score of “1” was assigned to the items with a “?”. On the other hand a “0” score was assigned to positive items with an “N” response and negative items with a “Y” response. This scoring procedure is recommended by Balzer et al., (2000). Below is a table of a summarized scoring procedure

Table 2: Scoring procedure of JDI and JIG

Item	Responses and scores		
	Y	?	N
Positive item	3	1	0
Negative item	0	1	3

The score range of an individual item is 0-3 where the bottom represents dissatisfaction and the top of the scale represents satisfaction. Thus, each facet’s highest possible score is 54 and the lowest possible is 0. The facets with 9 items were doubled as recommended by Balzer et al., (2000) to make them comparable to the 18 item scales.

3.7.1 Interpretation of the Job Descriptive Index and Job In General

Balzer (1997) recommends that when interpreting the results of the JDI, mean scores of 32 and above indicate being satisfied and mean scores of 22 and below indicate dissatisfaction. Mean scores between 22 and 32 represent neutral satisfaction.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Job Descriptive Index and Job In General

According to Heiman (1999) validity refers to the extent to which the instrument accurately measures what is intended to measure while reliability is the extent to which a measurement is consistent, can be reproduced and avoids error. Foxcroft and Roodt (2002) define reliability of a measure as the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures.” Several studies have been conducted to establish the validity and reliability of the JDI and JIG and most of them have produced good results. This section first discusses the reliability and then validity of the JDI.

According to Foxcroft & Roodt (2002), the Cronbach alpha coefficient indicates the consistency of responses to items in a measure. Reliability assessments using Cronbach alpha coefficient has exceeded .80 for the JDI (Smith et al., 1969). Smucker et al., (2003), posits that seventy eight surveys conducted among female sports journalists assessing their level of job satisfaction using the JDI yielded the following results for the reliability Cronbach alphas: .88 for the facet of pay satisfaction, .78 for promotion satisfaction, .90 for supervision satisfaction, .77 for co-worker satisfaction, .91 for work satisfaction, and .92 for overall satisfaction. The results obtained reflect the consistency of responses to items in the measure. On the other hand the test retest reliability was approximated at .65 (Balzer et al., 2000).

A study conducted by Futrell (1979) among salesmen employed in the United States, also provided proof for the reliability of the JDI. Results from the study yielded alpha coefficients ranging from .67 to .96, demonstrating internal reliability for each scale.

Furthermore, a survey conducted amongst 207 full-time employees from a variety of organizations, provided more evidence for the reliability of the JDI. Results of the survey indicated internal consistency for the indices for the JDI ranging from .83 to .90 (Nagy, 2002).

On validity the JDI was administered in over 400 studies and has documented proof of convergent and discriminant validity Nagy (2002). Smith et al., (1969) cited in Smucker et al., (2003) conducted a validation study on the JDI through factor and cluster analysis. The results obtained from the study reflected that the JDI possessed high levels of discriminant and convergent validity.

Further evidence is provided by Futrell (1979) for the convergent and discriminant validity of the JDI. According to Futrell (1979), “a measure is said to have discriminant validity if it is independent rather than an accident of the measurement procedure”. Results from Futrell’s study indicated convergent correlations of between .36 and .75.

In the study that was conducted by Balzer et al., (1997) the JDI scale was normed using a stratified random sampling procedure. Norms were developed based on a sample of 1,737 workers from a variety of occupations. This scale included both discriminant and convergent validity. Evidence of discriminant validity required the Job Descriptive Index to distinguish satisfaction with pay from satisfaction with work and distinguish these from satisfaction with other aspects of the job. Evidence of convergent validity required the Job Descriptive Index and other similar measures using different methods that

assessed satisfaction were significantly similar. Validity was assessed using a modification of the Campbell-Fiske model for establishing convergent and discriminant validity. Items loading on relevant factors were higher than loadings on irrelevant factors, which indicated that the components of this scale focused on discriminable aspects of jobs. With regard to convergent validity, the JDI was identified by the loading of different measures intended to cover the same aspects on the appropriate components. This indicates that the instrument is both valid and reliable hence its adoption in this study.

3.9 Data Analysis

The data collected in this study were entered and analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS 16.0) on which calculations of both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted.

3.9.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are defined by Heiman, (1999) as mathematical procedures for summarizing and describing important characteristics of a sample data. In this study descriptive statistics were used to summarize the demographic data through frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations.

Furthermore, descriptive statistics were carried out to determine the overall level of job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with different job facets. Judgments on teachers' satisfaction depended on the mean scores on each facet and Job In General (JIG).

3.9.2 Inferential Statistics

Heiman, (1999) defines inferential statistics as the mathematical procedures for deciding whether a sample relationship represents a relationship that actually exists in the population. It is used to determine whether an expected pattern designated by the theory and hypotheses is actually found in the observation (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachimias, 1996). In this study the following inferential statistics were employed.

3.9.3 Test of Statistical Difference t-test

Test of significance is used to measure whether a value (e.g. a sample mean) differs significantly from some other value (e.g. a population mean) (Bryman, 2005). If the difference is too large to have occurred by chance then the difference is said to be statistically significant (Bryman, 2005). In this study the t-test was used for testing the significance of difference between two sample means namely urban teacher job satisfaction mean scores and rural teacher job satisfaction mean scores.

3.9.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

While the t-test is limited to two groups, ANOVA is usually used to test for differences when the groups are more than two. The F ratio is used to determine if the groups are statistically different. According to Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1982), “in ANOVA, the hypothesis is that the mean performance in the population is the same for all groups (equality of population means).” Thus this statistical method was used in this study to establish whether statistically significant differences exist in job satisfaction based on demographic variables.

3.9.5 Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson Product correlation coefficient was used to find out whether there was a significant relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and job facets as well as demographic variables of the teachers.

3.9.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression is an extension of bivariate regression to two or more predictors. In multiple regression there is one dependent variable and two or more independent variables. While simple (bivariate) regression has the form $y=a+bx$, multiple regression has the form $y=a+b_1x_1+b_2x_2+\dots\dots\dots$ where 'y' is the predicted variable and 'bs' are the regression coefficients for the respective predictor variables and 'a' is the regression constant (Heiman, 1999). In this study, multiple regression was used to determine factors that can predict job satisfaction among urban and rural secondary school teachers. Thus job satisfaction was the predicted (criterion) variable i.e. 'y' while other variables like demographic factor indices and the JDI five facet indices were the regression coefficients i.e. predictors represented by 'b' in the formula.

The adoption of this inferential statistic was based on the fact that it takes into account the inter-correlations among all variables involved including correlations among the predictor scores (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2000).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The data collected from the respondents was handled with utmost confidentiality, to uphold the respondents' privacy. It was in the realm of privacy and confidentiality that the researcher did not require the participants to indicate their names on the questionnaire. Relevant information about the researcher and the study in general were also presented to the respondents. This was of great importance because respondents were then fully aware of the purpose of the study, which eliminated uncertainties and suspicions.

Permission to conduct the study was granted by the Department of Educational Foundation- Chancellor College, South East Education Division Office, and the Head teachers' offices. Lastly, the researcher has presented the findings and interpretation honestly and objectively.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF THE STUDY

4.0. Chapter Overview

An overview of the results obtained in the study are presented and discussed in this chapter. It starts with the presentation demographic information as the preliminary results obtained in both urban and rural secondary schools. Furthermore, it presents the descriptive and inferential analyses in order to depict the overall levels of job satisfaction and its predictors in both the urban and rural secondary schools.

4.1 Characteristics of the Sample

This section presents the demographic characteristics of the sample population in both the urban and rural secondary schools. It also presents the overall teacher job satisfaction and teachers' satisfaction on each and every aspect of the job through the descriptive statistics.

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of both Urban and Rural Secondary School

Teachers

Figure 3 presents demographic information of the urban and rural secondary school teachers. The demographic variables that were included in the study were sex, marital status, age, tenure, grade and qualification.

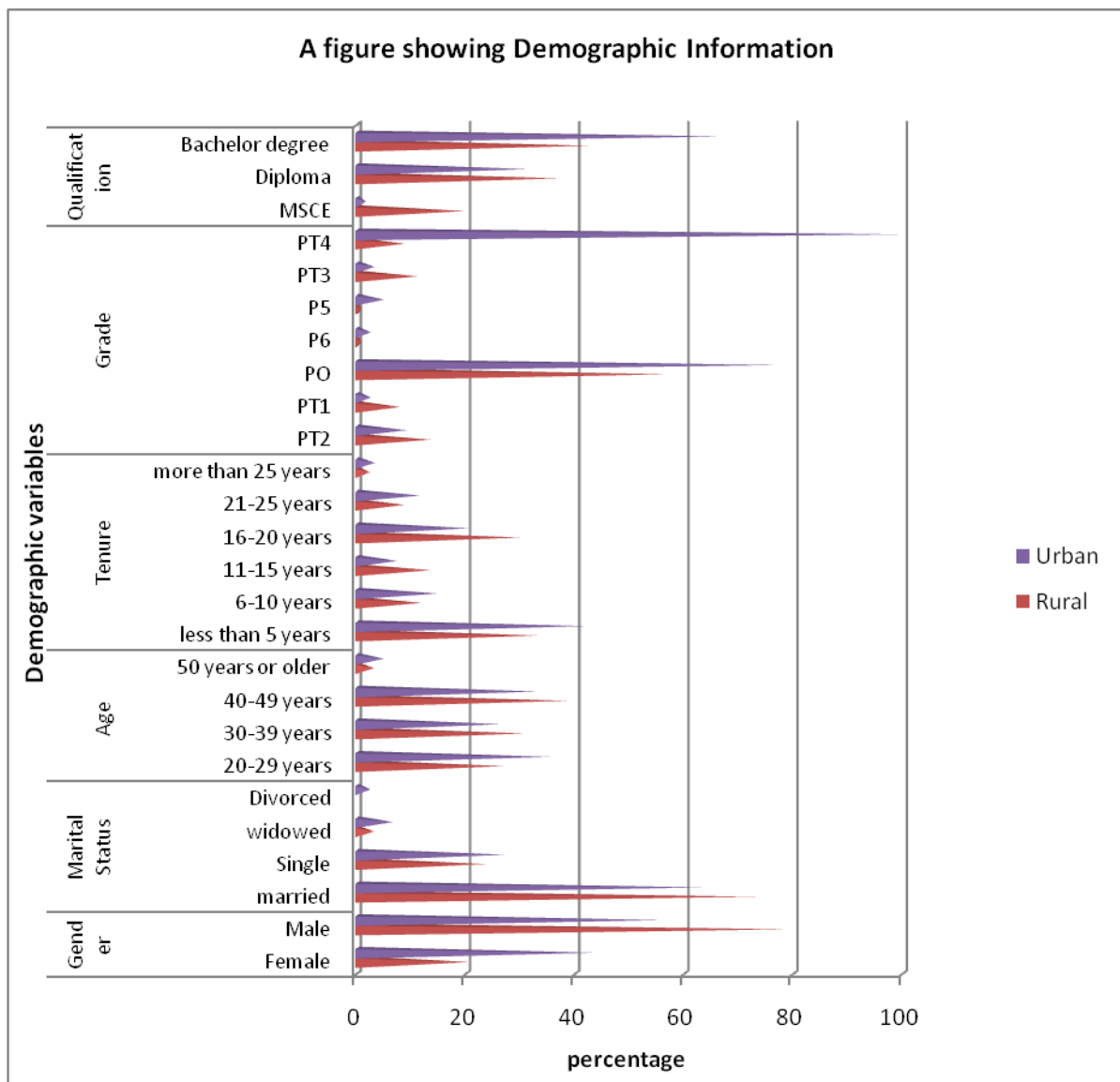


Figure 3: Demographic Information for the urban and rural teachers

4.1.1.1 Sex

Figure 3 above presents the sex distribution of the sample for both urban and rural secondary school teachers. As it is indicated in the figure, the sample was dominated by males in both Urban and Rural secondary schools. In the urban, males contributed 56% (n = 68) of the total sample in the urban whilst in the rural, males contributed 79% (n = 100) of the total sample in the Rural. Whilst males had a high representation in both urban and rural samples the sex gap in the rural is quite noticeable as compared to urban. The high male representation in the rural sample can be attributed to the fact that most female teachers decline to go to rural schools hence the female teacher population is relatively lower in the Rural than in the Urban.

4.1.1.2 Marital Status

Figure 3 above illustrates that of the 126 respondents in the rural secondary schools 73% (n=92) are married, 24% (n= 30) are single and 3% (n = 4) are widowed. The figure also shows that of the 121 respondents in the urban secondary schools, 64% (n = 77) are married, 27% (n=33) are single, 7% (n=8) are widowed and 2% (n=3) are divorced.

4.1.1.3 Age

Figure 3 also shows that the majority of teachers in the urban were within the age range of 20-29 years representing 36% (n=32) followed by those in the age range of 40-49 years representing 33% (n=40) whilst those in the age range of 30-39 years represented 26% (n=32) and those who were 50 years old and above represented 5% (n= 6). In the Rural however, the sample was highly represented by those in the age range of 40-49

years (39%, n=49), followed by those in the age range of 30-39 years (31%, n=39) and then those between 20-29 years (27%, n= 34) anchored by those who are 50 years old and above (3%, n=4).

4.1.1.4 Qualification

Figure 3 shows that the majority of teachers in both urban and rural were Bachelors Degree holders representing 67% (n = 81) and 43% (n =54) respectively. However, there were more Bachelors' degree holders in the urban than in the rural. There were also relatively more diploma teachers in the Rural (37%, n= 47) than in the urban (31%, n= 38), as shown in the figure. Furthermore, Rural schools had more representation of MSCE teachers (20%, n= 25) than urban schools (2%, n= 2).

4.1.1.5 Tenure

It can be viewed in the figure that the majority of the respondents in both urban and rural schools had served for 5 years or less (Rural: n = 42 or 33% and Urban: n = 52 or 42%). This was followed by those who had served for 16- 20 years in both urban (21%, n= 25) and Rural (30%, n= 38). Furthermore, 15%, n=18 in the urban and 12%, n= 15 in the Rural had served between 6- 10 years while 13%, n= 17 in the Rural and 7%, n= 9 had served between 11-15 years. The figure also shows that 12%, n =14 and 9%, n=11 had served between 21 and 25 years in the urban and rural respectively whilst 2%, n=3 and 3%, n= 4 had served for more than 25 years in the Rural and Urban respectively.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics in the form of arithmetic means and standard deviations for respondents were computed for the various dimensions of job satisfaction assessed by the JDI and JIG for both the rural and urban secondary schools. The descriptive statistics helped to get the overall teacher job satisfaction and teachers' satisfaction on each facet assessed by the JDI in both urban and rural.

Table 3: Job satisfaction levels for Urban and Rural Secondary school Teachers

Facet/JIG	N		Mini		Max		Mean		Std D	
Location	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U
Present Job	126	121	2	3	54	52	31.02	31.66	10.58	12.2
Present Pay	126	121	3	0	54	30	9.37	7.77	9.13	7.0
Supervision	126	121	0	6	54	54	30.26	34.34	13.6	13.4
Promotion	126	121	3	0	54	48	8.18	7.95	8.53	8.5
Co-Workers	126	121	0	3	46	54	39.80	42.37	12.42	13.0
JIG	126	121	0	2	51	54	29.74	30.35	14.57	14.4

Table 3 shows the arithmetic means and standard deviations for the overall job satisfaction (JIG) and different job facets under the Job descriptive Index (JDI) in the rural and urban. According to Balzar (1997), a mean score of 32 and above indicates being satisfied and mean scores of 22 and below indicate being unsatisfied while mean scores between 22 and 32 represent neutral satisfaction. The Table shows that the overall job satisfaction (JIG) mean score in the Rural is 29.74 (standard deviation = 14.56) which

means that teachers in the rural secondary schools are neither satisfied nor unsatisfied with their job rather their satisfaction is neutral. This is similar to the aspects of supervision (Mean=30.26 and standard deviation=13.6) and work at present job (Mean=31.02 and standard deviation=10.58). It was however found, as indicated in the Table, that teachers in the rural schools are satisfied with the aspect of Co-workers with a mean score of 40 (standard deviation=12). Furthermore the study found that teachers were heavily unsatisfied with promotion opportunities (Mean= 8 and standard deviation= 8.53) and Pay (Mean=9 and standard deviation=9.13) as shown in the figure.

Just like the rural secondary school teachers, the figure indicates that the overall teacher job satisfaction (JIG) in the urban is also neutral with a slightly higher mean of 30.347 and standard deviation=14.351. This is similar to the type of work variable (Mean=31.661 and standard deviation=12.18). Furthermore, just like the rural teachers, urban teachers were also satisfied with their Co-workers (Mean= 42.37 standard deviation= 13). However, unlike teachers in the rural, urban teachers were satisfied with the facet of supervision with a mean score of 34.34 and a standard deviation of 13.4. Similar to the rural teachers the figure also indicates that urban teachers are greatly unsatisfied with their pay (Mean=7.77 and standard deviation= 7.0) and promotion opportunities (Mean= 7.95 and standard deviation= 8.5) with slightly lower mean scores than the rural.

4.3 Inferential Statistics

In order to answer the research questions for the study inferential statistics were employed.

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in job satisfaction levels between urban and rural secondary school teachers?

In order to answer this research question a T-test for independent means and ANOVA were employed.

4.3.1 T-test for Independent Means- Urban and Rural

In order to find out whether the difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural is statistically significant a t-test of independent means was computed.

The test yielded the following results

Table 4: Group Statistics

Location	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Urban	121	30.347	14.351
Rural	126	29.738	14.566

Table 5: Independent sample T-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for equality means		
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	0.052	0.821	0.331	245	0.741
Equal variances not assumed			0.331	244.838	0.741

The Group statistics in Table 4 shows that the mean scores for job satisfaction in the urban and rural are 30.347 and 29.738 respectively. There is a very slight difference in the two mean scores. In order to find out whether this difference is statistically significant or not, the researcher used the independent sample T-test table. In the first place, looking at the significance level (Sig.) of Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, $p = 0.821$ and $\alpha = .05$, the researcher concluded that the population variances were not different and that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. Accordingly, the researcher used the results of the independent samples t-test given in the second row labelled 'Equal variances assumed' to determine whether the mean job satisfaction differs between urban and rural secondary school teachers.

Since the results show that $t(245) = 0.331$, $p = 0.741 > 0.05$ we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural secondary school teachers. It is therefore concluded that there is no difference in teacher job satisfaction between urban and rural secondary schools in Zomba. Statistically $H_0: \mu_U = \mu_R$ or $H_0: \mu_U - \mu_R = 0$.

4.3.2 One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

This statistic was computed in order to find out if there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between the means of the demographic variables.

Alternative Hypothesis (H₁)

There will be significant differences in the job satisfaction of both urban and rural teachers based on their demographic characteristics (namely sex, educational level, tenure, age, marital status, teachers' grade).

4.3.2.1 One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Rural

Table 6: Sex and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Sex	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	sig.
Female	26	29.96	15.013	Bwn Grps	1.636	1	1.636	0.008	0.93
Male	100	29.68	14.525	WthnGrps	26520.7	124	213.877		
Total	126	29.74	14.566	Total	26522.4	125			

Table 6 above shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because the significance level is 0.930 which is above alpha 0.05. It can therefore be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction between male and female teachers in the rural secondary schools.

Table 7: Marital status and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Marital status	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	sig.
Married	92	30.8	14.895	Bwn Grps	1251.56	2	625.782	3.05	0.051
Single	30	25	12.885	Wthin Grps	25270.8	123	205.454		
Widowed	4	40.8	9.430	Total	26522.4	125			
Total	126	29.7	14.566						

Table 7 presents ANOVA for job satisfaction and marital status. The results in the Table indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means. This is because $p = 0.051 > 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction between married, single and widowed teachers in the rural secondary schools.

Table 8: Educational Qualification and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Qualification	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	sig.
MSCE	25	34.76	14.443	Bwn Grps	837.361	2	418.68	2.005	0.14
Diploma	47	29.26	14.95	Wthin Grps	25685	123	208.821		
Bachelor	54	27.83	14.006	Total	26522.4	125			
Total	126	29.74	14.566						

Table 8 presents ANOVA for job satisfaction and educational qualification of the teachers in the rural. The results also indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.14 > 0.05$. Therefore, it can be

concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction between those who have MSCE, Diploma and Bachelors degree in the rural secondary schools.

Table 9: Tenure and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Tenure	N	Mean	Std.D		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	sig.
<5 yrs	42	24.83	13.21	BwnGrps	2417.13	5	483.425	2.407	0.041
6-10 yrs	15	33.8	13.33	WthinGrps	24105.2	120	200.877		
11-15 years	17	29.53	16.44	Total	26522.4	125			
16-20 yrs	38	30.74	14.52						
21-25 yrs	11	35.45	15.14						
>25 yrs	3	45.67	5.03						
Total	126	29.74	14.57						

Table 9 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and tenure. The results show that there is a statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.041 < 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the rural secondary schools based on tenure. However, after running the turkey post hoc test it was found that there was no difference in any of the groups which necessitated the calculation of effect size. Thus Omega squared which indicates the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the levels of the independent variable was calculated. This is analogous to coefficient of determination r squared. This was calculated using the formula $W^2 = \frac{SS_B - (K-1)MS_W}{SS_T + MS_W}$. After calculating, it was found that the effect size was 13% which probably was so small that a difference between the groups could not be detected.

Table 10: Teacher's grade and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Grade	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	sig
PT2	17	31.6	14	Bwn Grps	1987.92	6	331.319	1.607	0.151
PT1	10	26.5	14.2	Withn Grps	24534.4	119	206.172		
PO	72	27.5	14.5	Total	26522.4	125			
P6	1	45	.						
P5	1	54	.						
PT3	14	35.9	13.4						
PT4	11	32.9	15.1						
Total	126	29.7	14.6						

Table 10 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and teachers' grade. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.151 > 0.05$. Therefore it can be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the rural schools based on their grades.

Table 11: Age of the teacher and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Age	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
20-29 yrs	34	23.8	14.01	Bwn Grps	1884.2	3	628.066	3.11	0.03
30-39 yrs	39	30.3	14.21	Wthin Grps	24638.2	122	201.952		
40-49 yrs	49	32.7	14.46	Total	26522.4	125			
50 yrs or older	4	37.5	12.37						
Total	126	29.7	14.57						

Table 11 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and age of the teacher. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.03 < 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the rural schools based on their age. In order to find which age groups differ in job satisfaction post hoc tests were also run. Thus, a Turkey post-hoc test revealed that a mean difference of ± 8.911 in job satisfaction between those aged 20-29 and 40-49 was statistically significant $p = 0.029 < 0.05$. However, the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other age groups namely 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 50 years or older.

4.3.2.2 One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the Urban

Table 12: Sex and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Sex	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Female	53	32.906	13.467	Bwn Grps	617.364	1	617.364	3.049	0.083
Male	68	28.353	14.795	Wthn Grps	24096.1	119	202.488		
Total	121	30.347	14.351	Total	24713.4	120			

Table 12 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and teachers' sex. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.083 > 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on their sex.

Table 13: Marital status and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Marital status	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	sig
married	77	29.961	14.815	Bwn Grps	1531.94	3	510.65	2.58	0.057
Single	33	28.424	13.3	Wthn Grps	23181.5	117	198.13		
widowed	8	43.375	6.413	Total	24713.4	120			
divorced	3	26.667	16.623						
Total	121	30.347	14.351						

Table 13 presents an ANOVA analysis of job satisfaction and teachers' marital status. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.057 > 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on their marital status.

Table 14: Teachers' Age and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Age	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
20-29 yrs	43	26.44	14.203	Bwn Grps	3297.71	3	1099.24	6.005	0.001
30-39 yrs	32	26.06	15.14	Wthin Grps	21415.7	117	183.04		
40-49 yrs	40	37.3	10.518	Total	24713.4	120			
50 yrs or older	6	34.83	17.452						
Total	121	30.35	14.351						

Table 14 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and age of the teacher. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the group means because $p = 0.001 < 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on their age. In

order to find which age groups differ in job satisfaction post hoc tests were also run. A Turkey post-hoc test revealed that a mean difference of ± 10.858 in job satisfaction between those aged 20-29 and 40-49 was statistically significant $p=0.002<0.05$. This therefore, means that those aged between 40 and 49 are more satisfied with their job than those between 20 and 29. The results also revealed that a mean difference of ± 11.237 in job satisfaction between those aged 20-29 and 30-39 was statistically significant $p=0.004<0.05$. Similarly, those aged 30-39 are more satisfied than those between 20 and 29. However, the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other age groups.

Table 15: Educational Qualification and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Qualification	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
MSCE	2	44	9.9	Bwn Grps	2728.79	2	1364.39	7.323	0.001
Diploma	38	36.61	12.71	Wthin Grps	21984.6	118	186.311		
Bachelor degree	81	27.07	14.1	Total	24713.4	120			
Total	121	30.35	14.35						

Table 15 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and educational qualification of the teachers in the urban. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the group means because $p= 0.001<0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on their educational qualification. In order to find which educational qualifications differ in job satisfaction post hoc tests (multiple comparison tests) were computed. Thus a Turkey

post-hoc test revealed that a mean difference of ± 9.531 in job satisfaction between those with a diploma and those with a Bachelors degree was statistically significant $p=0.002<0.05$. This therefore, means that those with diplomas are more satisfied with their job than those with a Bachelors degree in the urban. However, the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other qualifications.

Table 16: Tenure and Job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Tenure	N	Mean	Std. D		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
< 5 yrs	51	27.24	13.614	Bwn Grps	2697.2	5	539.44	2.818	0.019
6-10 yrs	18	25.06	17.933	Wthin Grps	22016.2	115	191.445		
11-15yrs	9	32.33	7.778	Total	24713.4	120			
16-20yrs	25	34.52	13.681						
21-25yrs	14	39.71	9.236						
> 25yrs	4	30.5	19.975						
Total	121	30.35	14.351						

Table 16 shows an ANOVA of job satisfaction and tenure. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the group means because $p= 0.019<0.05$. There is therefore, a difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on the number of years the teachers have served in government (tenure). Post-hoc tests (multiple comparison tests) were computed in order to find which years differ in job satisfaction. Thus, a Turkey post-hoc test showed that a mean difference of ± 12.497 in job satisfaction between those who have served for less than 5 years and those who have served between 21-25 years was statistically significant $p=0.039<0.05$. This therefore,

means that those who have served for less than five years are less satisfied than those who have served between 21-25 years in the urban. The results also revealed that a mean difference of ± 14.659 between those who have served for 6-10 years and 21-25 years was statistically significant $p=0.041<0.05$ implying that those who have served between 6-10 years are less satisfied than those who have served between 21-25 years. However, the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other years.

Table 17: Teachers' grade and job satisfaction

Descriptives				ANOVA					
Grade	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
PT2	11	37.45	10.03	Bwn Grps	1581.760	5	316.35196	1.573	0.173
PT1	3	34.67	11.72	Wthn Grps	23131.662	115	201.14488		
PO	94	28.77	14.26	Total	24713.421	120			
P8	3	23.67	22.72						
P7	6	38.00	18.24						
PT3	4	38.25	9.00						
Total	121	30.35	14.35						

Table 17 presents an ANOVA of job satisfaction and teachers' grade. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means because $p=0.173>0.05$. Therefore it can be concluded that there is no difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on their grades.

Research question 2

What are the predictors of job satisfaction in the urban and rural secondary schools?

Before the research question was addressed, Pearson Product Moment correlation was computed to find out if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and job context variables as well as demographic factors. Those variables that indicated a significant relationship with job satisfaction were included in the regression model to find which ones could predict teachers' job satisfaction. Thus, this section begins with the presentation of correlations between job satisfaction and job context and demographic variables as preliminary results. It then proceeds to answer the research question through the presentation of multiple regression results.

4.3.3 Correlation between Job satisfaction and Job Context Variables in the Urban and Rural Secondary Schools

This statistical analysis was computed in order to find out if there was a relationship between job context variables and job satisfaction in both the rural and urban schools.

Table 18 Pearson Correlation for Job satisfaction (JIG) and Job context (JDI) variables

JDI Variables	Pearson Correlation (r)		Sig. (2-tailed)	
	U	R	U	R
Co-Workers	0.358**	0.502**	0.000	0.000
Promotion Opportunities	0.329**	0.224*	0.000	0.012
Supervision on Present Job	0.400**	0.405**	0.000	0.000
Present Pay	0.207*	0.046	0.023	0.608
Work at Present Job	0.559**	0.635**	0.000	0.000

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 18 above shows the correlation analysis between job satisfaction and job context variables in both the urban and rural secondary schools. In the urban secondary schools, the Table shows that there were significant relationships between job satisfaction and all job context variables.

The results show that the variable of co-workers had a positive correlation with job satisfaction in both the urban and rural schools but it was stronger in the rural schools, $r=0.358$, $p<0.01$, and $r= 0.502$, $p<0.01$ respectively. There was also a positive relationship between promotion opportunities and job satisfaction in both the urban and rural schools, however, in the rural the relationship was too weak to make a firm conclusion $r=0.224$, $p<0.05$. Furthermore, both the urban and rural schools indicated a positive correlation between supervision and job satisfaction $r=0.400$, $p<0.01$ and $r=0.405$, $p<0.01$ respectively.

While results in the rural showed no significant relationship between pay and job satisfaction, in the urban, pay showed a significant but weak relationship with job satisfaction $r = 0.207$, $p < 0.05$

Compared to the other variables, work at present job had a relatively strong positive correlation with job satisfaction in both the urban and rural schools. However, the rural schools showed a stronger positive correlation, $r = 0.635$, $p < 0.01$.

In summary, all job context variables except pay variable showed positive correlation with job satisfaction in the rural schools while in the urban all the variables indicated positive correlation.

4.3.4 Correlation between Job satisfaction and Demographic variables in the Urban and Rural Secondary Schools

This statistical analysis was computed in order to find out if there was a relationship between teachers' demographic characteristics and job satisfaction in the urban and rural schools.

Table 19: Pearson Correlation for Job satisfaction (JIG) and Demographic variables

Demographic Variables	Pearson Correlation (r)		Sig. (2-tailed)	
	U	R	U	R
Teachers' Grade	0.029	0.167	0.75	0.062
Tenure	0.280**	0.239**	0.002	0.007
Edu Qualification	-0.332**	-0.165	0.000	0.065
Age of Teacher	0.308**	0.259**	0.001	0.003
Marital Status	0.089	-0.055	0.333	0.538
Sex of Teacher	-0.158	-0.008	0.083	0.93

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 19 indicates the relationship between the respondents' demographic characteristics and their overall job satisfaction levels.

The Table shows that in the rural there was a significant positive relationship between respondents' age and their satisfaction $r=.259$, $p<0.01$. It also shows that there was a significant positive relationship between respondents' tenure and their satisfaction, $r=0.239$, $p<0.01$. Although the two variables showed a significant relationship with job satisfaction the correlation was too weak to make a firm conclusion. The results also showed that there was no significant relationship between teachers' grade, educational qualification, marital status, sex of teacher and job satisfaction in the rural. On the other hand, the results show that there were significant relationships between job satisfaction and three demographic variables in the urban. The results indicate that there was a positive but weak relationship between tenure and job satisfaction $r= 0.280$, $p<0.01$. Just like in the rural, there was also a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and age of a teacher in the urban $r= 0.308$, $p<0.01$. However, while the results in the rural indicate no relationship between educational qualification and job satisfaction, in the

urban, results show that there was a significant negative relationship between educational qualification and job satisfaction $r = -0.332$, $p < 0.01$. However, the results show that teachers' grade, marital status and sex have no significant relationships with teacher job satisfaction.

In summary, the results showed that age and tenure had significant relationship with job satisfaction in both the rural and urban schools. However, unlike in the rural, education qualification was found to have a negative correlation with job satisfaction in the urban schools.

4.3.7 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis: Regressing Job context variables against job satisfaction (as dependent variable) in the Urban and Rural Schools

Multiple regression analysis was run to find out key job context predictors of teacher job satisfaction in both the urban and rural schools. The regression model included only those variables that correlated significantly with job satisfaction in the preliminary Pearson Product Moment analysis. The model yielded the following output.

Table 20: Model Summary

Location	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sign. F Change
Urban	0.624	0.389	0.363	11.454	0.000
Rural	0.743	0.552	0.537	9.91	0.000

a. Predictors: Work at Present Job, Promotion Opportunities, Co-Workers, Supervision +pay in urban
b. Dependent Variable: Job In General (Job satisfaction)

Table 21: Multiple Regression model: regressing Job context variables against job satisfaction – Urban and Rural

JDI variables	Beta		T		Sig.	
	U	R	U	R	U	R
Work at Present Job	0.444	0.519	5.113	7.693	0.000*	0.000*
Present Pay	0.031		0.399		0.691	
Supervision on Present Job	0.047	0.047	0.515	0.661	0.607	0.51
Promotion Opportunities	0.117	0.101	1.412	1.616	0.161	0.109
Co-Workers	0.217	0.360	2.74	5.556	0.007*	0.000*
a. Dependent Variable: Job In General (Job satisfaction)						

Table 20 shows that R^2 is 0.552 in the rural and 0.389 in the urban meaning that approximately 55% and 39% of the variability of job satisfaction in the rural and urban secondary schools is accounted for by the variables in the model which are Work at Present Job, Promotion Opportunities, Co-Workers, Supervision including present Pay in the urban. Furthermore, the F-test of both models yielded a p-value of .0005 indicating that both models are statistically significant. To determine multicollinearity, variance inflation factor (VIF) was computed and it was found that it was way below 5 in both models (urban and rural) indicating that there was no multicollinearity between the variables.

According to Table 21 above, Co-workers and type of work at present job are significant predictors of job satisfaction in both the rural and urban schools, alpha at 0.05. Furthermore, these two variables have relatively larger Beta values. This means that they strongly predict the criterion variable. In the rural, co-worker variable has a beta value of 0.360 indicating that a change of one standard deviation in the predictor variable (Co-

workers) will result in a change of 0.360 standard deviations in the criterion variable which is job satisfaction. Furthermore type of work at present job seems to be a stronger predictor in the rural because its beta value is 0.519 which means that a change of one standard deviation in this predictor variable will result in a change of 0.519 standard deviations in criterion variable (job satisfaction). In the urban however co-workers and work at present job have beta values of 0.217 and 0.444 respectively lower than that of the rural.

In summary this study has found that teachers in both the rural and urban secondary schools derive much of their satisfaction from co-workers and the type of work they do.

4.3.8 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis: Regressing Demographic variables against job satisfaction (as dependent variable) – Rural Schools

Multiple regression analysis was also run to find out key demographic predictors of teacher job satisfaction in the rural. In the model two demographic variables namely age and tenure which were found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction were analysed. The model yielded the following output.

Table 22: Model Summary

R	R ²	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sign. F Change
0.261	0.068	0.053	14.177	0.013

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age , Tenure

b. Dependent Variable: Job In General (Job satisfaction)

Table 23: Multiple Regression model: regressing Demographic variables against job satisfaction – Rural

Demographic variables	Beta	t	Sig.
Age	0.203	1.184	0.239
Tenure	0.065	0.38	0.705
a. Dependent Variable: Job In General			

Table 22 shows that the R^2 for the rural schools is 0.068 meaning that approximately 7% of the variability of job satisfaction in the rural secondary schools is accounted for by the variables in the model which are tenure and age. However, despite that the whole model is statistically significant $p= 0.013 < 0.05$ and that VIFs are below 5, none of the two demographic variables as indicated in Table 23 can predict job satisfaction. This was probably because the two variables had too weak relationship with job satisfaction in the preliminary Pearson Product Moment analysis (Table 19). Furthermore, the two variables may be related in the way that workers gain more experience with the increase in age (Gellis, 2001). In view of this, one variable had to be dropped. Considering the importance of tenure to teachers' satisfaction as argued by Crossman, & Chinmeteepituck (2003) a simple linear regression was run to find out if it could predict job satisfaction. The model yielded the following output.

Table 24: Simple Linear Regression model: regressing Tenure against job satisfaction in the Rural

Demographic variable	Beta	T	Sig.
Tenure	0.239	2.746	0.007
a. Dependent Variable: Job In General (Job satisfaction)			

As indicated in Table 24 tenure was found to be a significant predictor in the rural at 0.007, alpha at 0.05.

In summary, three factors namely work itself, co-workers and tenure were found to be significant predictors of teacher job satisfaction in the rural.

4.3.10 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis: Regressing Demographic variables against job satisfaction (as dependent variable) – Urban

Multiple regression analysis was also run to find out key demographic predictors of teacher job satisfaction in the urban. Qualification, tenure and age were the variables that correlated significantly with job satisfaction in the preliminary results. However, age was excluded from the regression model following its possible relationship with tenure as evidenced in Table 23. The model yielded the following output.

Table 25: Model Summary

R	R ²	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sig. F Change
0.358	0.128	0.113	13.514	0.000
a. Predictors: Qualification, Tenure				

Table 26: Multiple Regression model: regressing Demographic variables against job satisfaction – Urban

Demographic variables	Beta	T	Sig.
Ed. Qualification	-0.256	-2.586	0.011
Tenure	0.154	1.558	0.122
a. Dependent Variable: Job In General (Job satisfaction)			

The results in Table 25 show that about 13% of the variability of job satisfaction in the urban secondary schools is accounted for by the demographic variables in the model because $R^2=0.128$. Furthermore, the Table shows that the whole model is statistically significant $p= 0.0005$. The VIFs were also way below 5 indicating that there was no multicollinearity.

The results in Table 26 show that qualification was the only predictor of job satisfaction in the urban (alpha at 0.05). However, the beta value has a negative sign which means that an increase by one standard deviation in the education qualification (predictor variable) leads to the decrease in job satisfaction (criterion variable) by 0.256 standard deviations. Thus, as teachers get higher education qualification their satisfaction decreases in the urban. This finding resonates with Kadzamira (2006), who found that in Malawi Diploma teachers are more satisfied than degree holders. On the other hand, unlike in the rural, tenure was not found to be a predictor of job satisfaction in the urban.

In summary, this study has found that teacher job satisfaction in the urban can be predicted by co-workers, work itself and educational qualification.

Research Question 3

Is there a difference between the regression coefficients for the predictors for urban and rural secondary schools?

This research question was aimed at finding out which predictors were more powerful in which setting. Thus, this involved comparing the beta values of those predictors that were found significant in both urban and rural. Two predictor variables that were found significant in both urban and rural schools were co-workers and work at present job. The Table below shows the beta values for these variables.

Table 27: Comparison of Regression coefficients

	Rural	Urban
Predictors	Beta	Beta
Co-Workers	0.360	0.217
Work at Present Job	0.519	0.444

As shown in Table 27, both variables (co-workers and work at present job) were found to be more powerful predictors of job satisfaction in the rural than in the urban because they had larger beta values. In the rural, co-workers had a beta value of 0.360 while in the urban it had a beta value of 0.217. Similarly, Work at present job as shown in the Table had a larger beta value in the rural than that in the urban.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Chapter Overview

The purpose of this study was to compare teacher job satisfaction levels between urban and rural secondary schools as well as to find key determinants of job satisfaction in the aforementioned areas. The previous chapter has reported the results of the study. This chapter aims at giving an interpretation of the findings and their implications.

5.1 Descriptive statistics on Teachers Satisfaction with the dimensions of the Job

The results of the study show that teachers in both urban and rural schools are satisfied with the aspect of co-workers with mean scores of 42.37, $s=13$ and 40, $s=12$ respectively. This shows that teachers enjoy the relationship that exists amongst them. According to Manion (2005), this is one of the intrinsic motivators in which people are able to build a sense of connection with others in the workplace. Thus, satisfaction in this aspect signifies that teachers are able to develop that sense of connection and hence live in harmony. Abdullah (2002) postulates that this aspect falls under level three of the Maslow's hierarchy of needs and it refers to the social needs that entail the need for affiliation focusing on the relationship with co-workers or subordinates.

It is at this level that Levine (1994) concludes that social support of employees is necessary to enhance performance. Unlike teachers in the rural who indicated neutral satisfaction with supervision (Mean=30.26, s=13.6), urban teachers were satisfied with this facet with a mean score of 34.34, s=13.4. Perhaps this is because urban schools are within reach of the Education Division authorities and hence are frequently supervised unlike in the rural where the roads are bad. According to Kadzamira (2006), inadequate and ineffective supervision is also a major factor contributing to teacher demotivation especially in primary schools and CDSSs which are mostly in the rural. In her study she found that one of the reasons why private school teachers report higher job satisfaction is close supervision by authorities. Although Herzberg (2003) postulates that this aspect is one of the hygiene factors, he recognizes that satisfaction in this aspect forms a point of departure for job satisfaction and hence important.

The study also found that teachers in both the rural and urban schools showed neutral satisfaction with the aspect of type of work at present job (Mean=31.02, s=10.58) and (Mean=31.661, s=12.18) respectively. This finding implies that teachers are neither satisfied nor unsatisfied with the tasks they do as teachers. Herzberg (2003) argues that work itself forms the crux of satisfaction and therefore, it is a motivator and not a hygiene factor. Thus, according to Herzberg (2003), if workers find their work interesting or that they make a difference in people's lives, they are likely to be satisfied with their job. This finding therefore, signifies that there is something lacking in the system to make the work of teachers more interesting and therefore satisfying. Possibly it hinges on the lack of adequate teaching and learning materials in schools as postulated by Kadzamira (2006).

Furthermore, the study found that teachers in both rural and urban were heavily unsatisfied with promotion opportunities (Mean= 8, s= 8.53) and (Mean= 7.95, s= 8.5) respectively. Kadzamira (2006) observed that the career path for teachers is too narrow and restrictive with very few opportunities for advancement. This may be the reason why teachers are heavily unsatisfied with this aspect. This is a very worrying situation considering the consequences that ensue due to teachers' dissatisfaction with this variable. For instance, Kadzamira (2006) observes that graduate secondary teachers leave for better paying jobs in the private sector or join other government departments where promotion prospects are perceived to be better. This finding further resonates with the findings of Nyamubi (2017) which show that teachers in secondary schools express dissatisfaction with their salary levels, fringe benefits, and allowances. Therefore, they feel the need to top up their salaries with nonteaching activities such as private tutoring, small-scale businesses, gardening, and animal keeping. As a result, teachers are much less committed to their primary jobs.

Another aspect of the job that teachers showed heavy discontentment in both urban and rural schools is Pay whose mean scores were 9, s=9.13 in the rural and 7.77, s= 7 in the urban. This is despite the introduction of rural allowance policy in the rural schools. Therefore, this finding further raises serious questions on the effectiveness of this policy. This finding reflects what Kadzamira (2006) found that teachers are underpaid and that this is the main factor affecting their motivation and morale. This is in agreement with Bennell (2004) who posits that in developing countries remuneration is so low for

teachers. Although their findings were for primary school teachers, there seem to be striking similarities with what this study has found in secondary schools.

5.2 Teachers' Overall Job Satisfaction

According to the findings of the study, teachers in both urban and rural secondary schools are neither satisfied nor unsatisfied with their job. The results have indicated that teachers' satisfaction is neutral. This finding therefore, is not in agreement with earlier research studies which concluded that the overall levels of teacher job satisfaction and motivation in Malawi are low in both primary and secondary schools (Kadzamira and Chibwana 2000, Kadzamira et al., 2001, Tudor-Craig 2002, Chimwenje 2003, Kadzamira, 2006). While this study agrees with the findings of these earlier studies on teachers' dissatisfaction with remuneration and promotion opportunities, this study has found that teachers' overall satisfaction is neither low nor high. It is neutral.

The study has further found that there is no statistically significant difference in the levels of job satisfaction between urban and rural teachers ($t(245) = 0.331, p = 0.741 > 0.05$). This means that the levels of teachers' satisfaction in the urban and rural are the same. This finding departs from the finding of Kadzamira (2006) that teachers in the urban areas in Malawi have high job satisfaction as compared to the rural teachers. It however, resonates with Porwal (1980), Padmanabhaiah (1986) and Rao and Sridhar (2003) who revealed no urban-rural difference in the job satisfaction of teachers.

5.3 Differences in job satisfaction based on demographic characteristics - Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The question of whether there are differences in job satisfaction based on sex, marital status, educational qualification, grade, tenure and age was also addressed in this study.

5.3.1 Sex and job satisfaction

The results have shown that there is no statistically significant difference between males and females in both urban and rural secondary schools in terms of their overall job satisfaction. This resonates with the finding of Thompson and McNamara (1997).

5.3.2 Marital Status and job satisfaction

The findings of this study have revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between those who are married, single or widowed in terms of their job satisfaction in both rural and urban. This is contrary to a study conducted by Kuo and Chen (2004) in Taiwan, who found marital status to be highly related to general, intrinsic and overall satisfaction. They reported that the results of the study indicated that married employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction in comparison to that of single employees. However, this finding resonates with other research evidence that indicates that there is no significant relationship between marital status and job satisfaction (Williamson, 1996).

5.3.3 Educational qualification and job satisfaction

The study has revealed that there is no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between those with MSCE, Diploma or Bachelors degree in the rural secondary schools. This is contrary to the urban findings which suggest there is a statistically significant difference between the groups. Particularly it has been found that those with diplomas are more satisfied with their job than those with a Bachelor's degree in the urban. These findings are in agreement with the findings of Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) who found that Diploma teachers showed high job satisfaction than degree teachers because degree teachers are usually dissatisfied with salary and opportunities for promotion. This finding seems to resonate with the equity theory. Using this theory, Robbins (1993) states that satisfaction occurs when perceived equity exists, and dissatisfaction results when perceived inequity exists. Thus, individuals compare their situation to friends, neighbours, co-workers, colleagues in other organisations or previous jobs they themselves have occupied. In this regard, urban degree teachers probably compare themselves with their colleagues in other organizations thereby bringing a state of dissatisfaction because of the perceived inequity. This is unlike in the rural where teachers may not have a reference point because many organizations that employ graduates are based in the urban.

5.3.4 Tenure and job satisfaction

The study revealed that while there was a statistically significant difference between the group means $p = 0.041 < 0.05$ in the rural the effect size of 13% was so small that a difference between the groups could not be found after running the post hoc test. Suffice

to indicate that despite that there seems to be no difference in job satisfaction between the groups in the rural schools the study has found that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and tenure, thus as the number of years in the service increases so does the overall job satisfaction level.

The study on the other hand found that there is a difference in job satisfaction among teachers in the urban schools based on the number of years the teachers have served in government (tenure). When Post-hoc tests (multiple comparison tests) were computed in order to find which years differ in job satisfaction it was revealed that those who have served for less than 5 years are less satisfied than those who have served between 21-25 years in the urban. The results also revealed that those who have served for 6-10 years are less satisfied than those who have served between 21-25 years. However the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other years. This implies that the more the number of years one serves as a teacher the higher the satisfaction in the urban. These findings resonate with Gellis, 2001 who found that the longer job tenure, the more likely workers are satisfied with their jobs because workers with longer job tenure have more work experience and control over their jobs, and are more likely to receive organizational support than newcomers. This view is shared by Clarke, Oswald and Warr (1996) who contend that employees with longer service may experience higher satisfaction levels because the job matches their personal needs.

5.3.5 Age and Job Satisfaction

The study has revealed that there is a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between those aged 40-49 and those aged between 20-29 in both urban and rural. Specifically those aged 40-49 are more satisfied than those aged 20-29. While the test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the other age groups namely 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 50 years or older in the rural, the results in the urban indicate there was a statistically significant difference between those aged 20-29 and those aged 30-39 with the latter being more satisfied than the former. Although the results indicate no difference in the other age groups in the rural, looking at the mean scores of job satisfaction in each of the age groups in both urban and rural it shows there is an increase in job satisfaction with the increase in age. This finding is supported by Drafke and Kossen (2002) who found that job satisfaction typically increases with age as older workers have more work experience and generally have a more realistic view of work and life in comparison to their younger counterparts. They are of the opinion that younger workers have less experience to draw on and have an idealistic view of what work should be like. Furthermore, Mottaz (1987) in Oshagbemi (2003) postulates that younger workers are generally more dissatisfied than older employees because they demand more than their jobs can provide. Similar trends have been observed in Tanzania, where younger, better-qualified teachers are generally less satisfied with their jobs than the older generation of teachers, who still feel 'privileged' to be a teacher (Bennell, 2007).

5.4 Correlates of job satisfaction

Before the regression analysis was run, the Pearson product Moment Correlation was run to find which job context and demographic variables correlate with job satisfaction

5.4.1 Job Context Variables

The results indicated that type of work has a strong positive correlation with job satisfaction in both urban and rural. This implies that overall teacher job satisfaction relates highly with satisfaction with the tasks teachers do. This aspect has been found to be the most important variable in influencing job satisfaction across different types of jobs for instance Manion, (2005) observed that type of work in which employees feel they make a difference in people's lives is a typical motivator for people to enter and stay in a particular job. This type of work is viewed as that in which the meaningful tasks outweigh the meaningless. It can therefore be concluded based on this finding that the more teachers are satisfied with this aspect the more their overall job satisfaction increases.

The study also revealed that teachers' satisfaction with their fellow workers correlates positively with their overall job satisfaction in both the rural and urban. Thus as teachers' satisfaction with their fellow workers increases so does their overall job satisfaction. Hence, healthy relationships among workers are so vital in enhancing teachers' satisfaction. This is in line with McClelland's theory which also stresses the need for people to have harmonious relationships with other people and the need to feel accepted

by other people. The affiliation driver produces motivation and the need to be liked and held in popular regard (Stuart-Kotze, n.d.)

It has also been found that satisfaction with supervision correlates positively with teachers' overall satisfaction in both urban and rural. This means that as teachers' satisfaction on supervision increases, their overall satisfaction increases as well. According to Robbins et al., (2003), supervision forms a pivotal role relating to job satisfaction in terms of the ability of the supervisor to provide emotional and technical support and guidance with work related tasks.

Furthermore, in both the urban and rural the study has found that there is a relationship between teachers' satisfaction with the promotion opportunities and their overall satisfaction. In this vein it has been revealed that as satisfaction in promotion increases, overall job satisfaction also increases. Although the correlation is weaker as compared to the already discussed variables, this finding may be of great vitality in trying to address issues pertaining to promotion in the Ministry.

The study has further found that while in the rural there is no relationship between job satisfaction and pay, in the urban the relationship is there though weak. Thus, in the urban it has been found that as teachers' satisfaction with pay increases so does their job satisfaction. It may be argued that the high cost of living (particularly rent and transport) in towns as put forward by Bennel (2007) makes pay to be of paramount importance and therefore linked to teachers' satisfaction.

5.4.2 Demographic factors

On demographic factors the study has revealed that there is a relationship between age and job satisfaction in both the urban and the rural. In this case, job satisfaction increases with the increase in age. This finding resonates with the ANOVA finding in which older teachers are statistically significantly satisfied with their job than the younger teachers.

Furthermore, the study has found that there is a relationship between tenure and job satisfaction in both the urban and rural. The results indicate that as the number of years of service increases so does job satisfaction. Similarly this is depicted in the ANOVA finding.

The study also found that while there is a relationship between job satisfaction and educational qualification in the urban, there is no relationship in the rural. As indicated in the ANOVA results, it has been found that as teachers acquire more education their job satisfaction decreases.

It has also been found that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and sex, marital status, teachers' grade.

5.5 Key determinants of Job satisfaction

From the job context variables above that correlated with job satisfaction, a multiple regression analysis was run to come up with key determinants of teacher job satisfaction. The results of the multiple regression analysis regressing job context variables against job

satisfaction (as dependent variable) indicate that job context variables can significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction in both urban and rural schools. The study has revealed that co-workers and work at present job are the predictors of job satisfaction for both urban and rural secondary school teachers. On the other hand, the study has found that salary, supervision and promotion are not the key determinants of job satisfaction in both the urban and rural. However, as discussed above these job context variables with the exception of pay in the rural have been found to be related to teacher job satisfaction. Suffice it to state that the mean scores for the aspect of salary are so low indicating that teachers are not satisfied with this aspect. However, this is not a key determinant of their overall satisfaction.

These findings seem to agree with Herzberg's *two-factor* theory which suggests that satisfaction involves two dimensions known as "hygiene" factors and "motivator" factors. While motivator factors bring satisfaction hygiene factors do not. Hygiene factors include supervision, interpersonal relations, benefits, job security, salary and working conditions. Herzberg states that hygiene issues cannot motivate employees but can minimise dissatisfaction and serve as a point of departure for motivation. On the other hand, satisfying motivator needs which are related to job tasks, job content and intrinsic aspects of the job can lead to job satisfaction, but the absence thereof cannot lead to job dissatisfaction (Robbins, 1993). Thus, as propounded by Herzberg, this study has found that salary, supervision and promotion opportunities are not the key determinants of teacher job satisfaction despite the fact that teachers' satisfaction on these facets is so low. However, in contrast to this theory the study has revealed that co-workers is one of

the key determinants of teacher job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with the argument put forward by Yew and Manap (2012) that Herzberg failed to recognize the existence of substantial individual differences because what he calls hygiene factors are actually satisfiers to other workers. In this vein Manion (2005) argues that healthy relationships in which employees are able to develop a sense of connection with others in the work place are an important intrinsic factor towards job satisfaction. Furthermore this finding agrees with McClelland's theory which focuses on the need for achievement, power and affiliation (Robbins et al., 2003).

From the demographic variables that were found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, a regression analysis was also run to find which variables could predict job satisfaction. In the urban, the study revealed that educational qualification is also a key determinant of job satisfaction. In this case the more one increases their education the less satisfied they become. This is somewhat similar to a study conducted by (Kh Metle, 2003) amongst Kuwaiti women employed in a public government sector environment, who showed that a strong relationship existed between the level of education and overall job satisfaction. In this study, employees in possession of an intermediate level qualification reported higher levels of satisfaction in relation to those employees who have higher levels of education. Kh Metle (2003) suggests that job satisfaction decreases in relation to an increase in the level of education as the expectations of employees are often not met by employers. These findings concur with the findings of Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) who found that Diploma teachers showed high job satisfaction

than degree teachers because degree teachers are usually dissatisfied with salary and opportunities for promotion.

As to why educational qualification is a predictor in the urban and not in the rural, it can be argued as discussed already that degree teachers in the urban see their fellow degree holders employed in different organizations in which they receive better remuneration than them. Thus teachers fall into the comparison trap which eventually breeds dissatisfaction in them. This is unlike in the rural where in most cases the most highly remunerated are the degree teachers and therefore rarely perceive inequity.

In the rural the study has revealed that tenure is the key determinant of job satisfaction. This is to say that teachers are more likely to be satisfied with their job as the number of teaching years increases.

The study further found that both co-workers and type of work at present job are more powerful predictors of job satisfaction in the rural than in the urban. The possible reason why co-workers is a powerful predictor of job satisfaction in the rural could be because of the strong bonds that exist in the rural areas. Rural residents are neighbour or community focused and build strong social networks which cements cohesion among them (Bollman and Rothwell, 2005). However, further investigation may be needed to established why work at present job is a powerful predictor in the rural than it is in the urban.

5.6 Conclusion

The findings of this study have revealed that teachers' overall job satisfaction is neutral in both the urban and rural. Teachers are therefore neither satisfied nor unsatisfied with their job. This is in contrast to some studies which found that teachers' job satisfaction is low especially in the rural areas. With respect to satisfaction with specific job facets however, this study findings have revealed that teachers in both urban and rural are satisfied with their fellow workers. Furthermore, teachers in both urban and rural are neutrally satisfied with the aspect of type of work. The study has also revealed that while teachers in the rural are neutrally satisfied with the aspect of supervision, teachers in the urban are satisfied with this aspect.

Furthermore the findings have revealed that teachers in both urban and rural are heavily unsatisfied with their pay and promotion opportunities. These findings confirm what other studies like that of Kadzamira (2006) and VSO (2002) found, that teachers in Malawi are lowly paid and have expressed their discontentment over the same and that promotion opportunities are a problem in the Ministry of Education especially for teachers. Lack of promotion opportunities have been blamed for the exodus of many secondary school teachers from the profession into the private sector or other Government departments.

On whether job satisfaction differs based on the demographic variables like sex, marital status, age, tenure, qualification and grade, the study revealed that there are indeed differences in satisfaction based on some of the demographic variables. In this vein it was

found that older teachers tend to be more satisfied with their job than the younger teachers. The mean scores for the age groups clearly indicate an increase in satisfaction with the increase in age. This has also been confirmed after running the Pearson r which indicated a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction.

Related to this, is the aspect of tenure which has revealed a similar trend to the variable of age. Thus the study revealed that teachers in both urban and rural who have served for long tend to be more satisfied than those who have served for a few years. The mean scores show an increase in satisfaction with the increase in tenure except for those who have served for more than 25 years in the urban where satisfaction seems to decrease. However, the result of Pearson r shows that there is a positive relationship between tenure and satisfaction.

While the findings of the study indicate there is no difference in satisfaction based on the education qualification among teachers in the rural, there is a difference in the urban. In this case those with bachelor's degrees in urban are less satisfied than those with Diplomas a finding that agrees with Kadzamira's findings.

The study has found that there exists no difference in job satisfaction based on sex and marital status, in both the urban and rural.

Furthermore, the study has revealed that the key determinants of job satisfaction are co-workers and the type of work in both the urban and rural. Educational qualification on the

other hand has been found to be another determinant of job satisfaction in the urban in which there is a decrease in satisfaction with the increase in education. Tenure has also been found to be key determinant of job satisfaction in the rural.

Although pay, promotion opportunities, and supervision have not been found to be determinants of satisfaction, they have however shown a positive correlation with satisfaction in both the urban and rural with the exception of pay in the rural which has shown no correlation.

After comparing the beta values of the two determinants for both urban and rural, the study has revealed that co-workers is a more powerful determinant in the urban while type of work is a powerful determinant in the rural.

5.7 Implications of the Study

Based on the major findings of the study and from the forgone discussions the following are the implications of the study.

Satisfaction of teachers in both urban and rural is neutral and there is no difference in satisfaction levels between the urban and rural teachers.

- The finding that satisfaction of teachers in both urban and rural is neutral and that there is no difference in satisfaction levels between urban and rural teachers implies that teachers have not reached that point of satisfaction yet and therefore more interventions are needed to boost teachers' satisfaction . Furthermore, the

finding implies that despite the numerous challenges that several studies have reported in the rural, satisfaction of teachers remain as competitive as that of the urban teachers and therefore the rural-urban divide does not have much effect on teachers' satisfaction.

The key determinants of job satisfaction are co-workers and type of work for both urban and rural and educational qualification for the urban while tenure has been found to be a predictor in the rural.

- This implies that in schools where there are sanity and cordial relationships among teachers, teachers are more likely to express satisfaction with their job. It is therefore, imperative that schools should promote the culture of oneness amongst teachers.
- The finding that type of work is another determinant of job satisfaction implies that when teachers like what they do and they engage in tasks that are mentally and physically stimulating, they are more likely to be satisfied with their job. Therefore, availability of teaching and learning resources is very important to making sure that teachers are satisfied with the type of work they do.
- Another key determinant of job satisfaction in the urban is educational qualification. This finding implies that there is a feeling of negative inequity among degree teachers in the urban. These teachers feel less satisfied with their job as compared to diploma teachers. There is need therefore, that the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should work towards motivating these

teachers. This may come in form of other incentives like provision of enough housing for teachers apart from the rural allowance.

- The study has found that tenure is another key determinant of job satisfaction among rural teachers. The longer the period teachers work the more satisfied they become. This implies that there is good chunk of young teachers in the rural who are less satisfied with their job and yet expected to deliver high level performance. There is need therefore, that there has to be time to time engagement between older teachers and younger teachers so that younger teachers can learn from the older ones.

Co-workers and type of work have been found to be more powerful predictors of job satisfaction in the rural than in the urban

- The implication with this finding is that there is stronger cohesion amongst rural teachers than urban teachers. The fact that communal life is associated with rural communities while individualistic life is associated with urban communities implies that the way of life in the communities has an effect on the way of life at work place. This shows that schools are a microcosm of the society.
- The finding that type of work is a more powerful predictor than it is in the urban implies that rural teachers value so much the tasks they do as teachers such that when they engage in tasks that are mentally and physically stimulating they get satisfied.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Demographic/Biographical Questionnaire

This questionnaire will solicit information about the teachers without indicating their names

Teachers will be required to circle their responses

Sex

1	Female
2	Male

Marital status

1	Married
2	Single
3	Widowed
4	Divorced

Age

1	19 years or younger
2	20-29 Years
3	30-39 Years
4	40-49 Years
5	50 Years or older

Education qualification

1	MSCE
2	Diploma
3	Bachelor Degree
4	Master Degree

Years of service in Government as a teacher

1	Less than 5 years
2	6-10 years
3	11-15 years
4	16- 20 years
5	21-25 years
6	More than 25 years

Teachers' present grade

1	PT1
2	PO
3	P8
4	P7
5	P6
6	P5
7	Other specify

Appendix B: Job Descriptive Index

Teachers will be required to indicate their feelings to the five facets of their present job with no right or wrong answer.

A. TYPE OF WORK AT PRESENT JOB

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your work
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your work
- **?** if you cannot decide

1.Fascinating	Y	?	N
2.Routine	Y	?	N
3.Satisfying	Y	?	N
4.Boring	Y	?	N
5.Good	Y	?	N
6.Gives sense of accomplishment	Y	?	N
7.Respected	Y	?	N
8.Exciting	Y	?	N
9.Rewarding	Y	?	N
10.Useful	Y	?	N
11.Challenging	Y	?	N
12.Simple	Y	?	N
13.Repetitive	Y	?	N
14.Creative	Y	?	N
15.Dull	Y	?	N
16.Uninteresting	Y	?	N
17.Can see results	Y	?	N
18.Uses my abilities	Y	?	N

B. PRESENT PAY

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your pay
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your pay
- **?** if you cannot decide

1. Income adequate for normal expenses	Y	?	N
2. Fair	Y	?	N
3. Barely live on income	Y	?	N
4. Bad	Y	?	N
5. Comfortable	Y	?	N
6. Less than I deserve	Y	?	N
7. Well paid	Y	?	N
8. Enough to live on	Y	?	N
9. Underpaid	Y	?	N

C. SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your supervisors
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your supervisors
- **?** if you cannot decide

1. Supportive	Y	?	N
2. Hard to please	Y	?	N
3. Impolite	Y	?	N
4. Praises good work	Y	?	N
5. Tactful	Y	?	N
6. Influential	Y	?	N
7. Up-to-date	Y	?	N
8. Unkind	Y	?	N
9. Has favourites	Y	?	N
10. Tells me where I stand	Y	?	N
11. Annoying	Y	?	N
12. Stubborn	Y	?	N
13. Knows job well	Y	?	N
14. Bad	Y	?	N
15. Intelligent	Y	?	N
16. Poor planner	Y	?	N
17. Around when needed	Y	?	N
18. Lazy	Y	?	N

D. PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your promotion
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your promotion
- **?** if you cannot decide

1. Good opportunities for promotion	Y	?	N
2. Opportunities somewhat limited	Y	?	N
3. Promotion on ability	Y	?	N
4. Dead-end job	Y	?	N
5. Good chance for promotion	Y	?	N
6. Very limited	Y	?	N
7. Infrequent promotions	Y	?	N
8. Regular promotions	Y	?	N
9. Fairly good chance for promotion	Y	?	N

E. CO- WORKERS

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your co-workers
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your co-workers
- **?** if you cannot decide

1. Stimulating	Y	?	N
2. Likeable	Y	?	N
3. Boring	Y	?	N
4. Slow	Y	?	N
5. Helpful	Y	?	N
6. Stupid	Y	?	N
7. Responsible	Y	?	N
8. Intelligent	Y	?	N
9. Easy to make enemies	Y	?	N
10. Rude	Y	?	N
11. Smart	Y	?	N
12. Lazy	Y	?	N
13. Unpleasant	Y	?	N
14. Supportive	Y	?	N
15. Active	Y	?	N
16. Narrow interests	Y	?	N
17. Frustrating	Y	?	N
18. Stubborn	Y	?	N

Appendix C: Job in General (JIG)

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time?

- **Y** for **Yes** if the word describes your job
- **N** for **No** if the word does not describe your job
- **?** if you cannot decide

1. Pleasant	Y	?	N
2. Bad	Y	?	N
3. Great	Y	?	N
4. Waste of time	Y	?	N
5. Good	Y	?	N
6. Undesirable	Y	?	N
7. Worthwhile	Y	?	N
8. Worse than most	Y	?	N
9. Acceptable	Y	?	N
10. Superior	Y	?	N
11. Better than most	Y	?	N
12. Disagreeable	Y	?	N
13. Makes me content	Y	?	N
14. Inadequate	Y	?	N
15. Excellent	Y	?	N
16. Rotten	Y	?	N
17. Enjoyable	Y	?	N
18. Poor	Y	?	N

Appendix D: Letter from Head of Department

UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI



CHANCELLOR COLLEGE

Principal: Christopher Kamlongera,
B.A., Dip TEO., M.A., Ph.D

P. O. Box 280, Zomba, MALAWI
Tel: (265) 01 524 222
Telex: 44742 CHANCOL MI
Fax: (265) 01 524 046

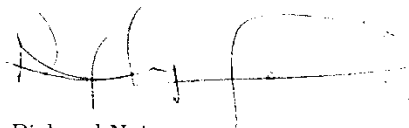
Our Ref.: EDF 6/19
Your Ref.:

18 February, 2013

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Mr Gervasio B Nyaka is our postgraduate student in the Department of Educational Foundation. He is studying Master in Education Policy, Planning and Leadership.

He would like to conduct a research in the South East Education Division. Please assist him accordingly.


Dr Richard Nyirongo
HEAD, EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION

Appendix E: Letter from DEM to all Heads

Telephone: (265) 01 526 432

Fax: (265) 01 526 432

Ref.No SEED/HRM/04/15.

Communications should be addressed to:

The Manager, South-East Education Division



In reply please quote No.....

SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION

PRIVATE BAG 48

ZOMBA

12th March, 2013.

TO: ALL HEAD TEACHERS OF ZOMBA URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND CDSS.

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH:

The bearer of this document is **Mr Gervasio B.Nyaka** a student studying Master in Education Policy, Planning and Leadership with Chancellor College.

He would like to conduct a comparative study on Job Satisfaction among secondary school teachers in the South East Education Division. Your Institution happens to be one of the Secondary Schools selected for the research which may last for a period of two weeks.

Please assist him with the necessary information.

Assistance accorded to him will be highly appreciated.

MSD ALUFANDIKA

EDUCATION DIVISION MANAGER