

A theoretical analysis of educator motivation and morale

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For various reasons educator morale and motivation have been the focus of considerable attention. Several factors have been attributed as underlying causes of low morale and poor motivation among staff in the teaching profession. If educator performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances educators' sense of professionalism and increases their morale and motivation. A distinction is made between the motivation and the morale of individuals. This article briefly outlines the factors identified in studies that influence the morale and motivation of educators. Attention is also paid to models of motivation which have been developed to understand the motivation of staff. These models provide the foundation on which a general model for motivation can be developed that serves as a means to understand the motivation process.

INTRODUCTION

Educator morale has been the focus of considerable attention all over the world. In South Africa Professor Kader Asmal, the Minister of Education, stated that educator morale in all communities in South Africa is low (Department of Education 1999:3). Several factors have

been attributed as underlying causes of low morale in the teaching profession. However, it must be remembered that the causes of low morale among educators are complex and may vary in different institutions (Department of Education 1999:3; Atkinson 2000:46).

Evan's study (2000:176) of educators' morale, motivation and job satisfaction in the United Kingdom indicates that diversity among educators depended on the quality and range of circumstances and issues. The individual's need fulfilment underpinned this diversity (Low & Marican 1993:14; Owens 1995:52; cf Hung & Liu 1999:14; Evans 2000:176). It is therefore important to recognise that educators are motivated and their morale affected by different factors, depending on age, their length of service, their qualifications and experience, the resources available in the school, their aspirations with respect to career development and the priorities they attach to achievement and social factors (Culver, Wolfle & Cross 1990:342; Low & Marican 1993:15; cf Rowley 1996:14).

The demands made on educators have grown over the years and South Africa is no exception to this phenomenon (cf Yong 1999:7). Media attention increasingly focuses on educational issues in South Africa. Poor learner performance, the poor conditions in many schools and the inferior quality of education in general raise concern regarding the attitudes of educators towards their jobs. The South African education system has also experienced radical transformation since 1994. Educators have been confronted by many changes: integration of schools with regard to language and cultural groups; rationalisation of the education system regarding staff reduction and redeployment of educators; implementation of outcomes-based education; and the institution of a lengthened school day for educators (Wevers 2000:5). These changes are likely to affect the attitude and performance of educators.

Furthermore, the performance of educators has a significant impact on student learning (Rowley 1996:11; Yong 1999:1). Educators manage this learning experience and they are the main interface with learners (Rowley 1996:11). Consequently, their motivation and morale are

crucial in determining the quality of this interface. Enthusiastic and motivated educators are totally committed to teaching which is regarded as one of the most important factors affecting school effectiveness (Yong 1999:1). Furthermore, a study conducted by Atkinson (2000) clearly indicates the relationship between educator motivation and learner motivation. There is evidence that educators play a crucial role in sustaining, enhancing or even decreasing learner motivation (Atkinson 2000:46).

If educator performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances educators' sense of professionalism and increases their motivation and morale. By identifying the factors that enhance the motivation and morale of educators, educational managers can implement and execute effective strategies to ensure that educators, in the midst of the changes, will perform their duties in an effective, enthusiastic and motivated manner. Educational managers, however, need to recognise that different motivators are appropriate for different staff members and good management consists of recognising and working with individual differences (Rowley 1996:11).

This article explores the factors that influence the motivation and morale of educators. Attention is also paid to content and cognitive motivation theories that have been developed to understand these factors and how they affect the motivation and morale of educators.

Since there is a difference between the concepts *motivation* and *morale*, it is necessary to pay attention to these concepts.

1 INTERPRETATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

An awareness of the concept of *needs* is important for understanding the behaviour of people in the work situation (Drafke & Kossen 1998:273). An experienced need gives an individual a feeling of deprivation, that something is insufficient in his or her life, at least for the moment. A greater understanding of needs of staff members will also facilitate attempts of managers to motivate them. Needs are also

known as *motives*, because they can move or motivate people to act (Drafke & Kossen 1998:273). Most definitions on motivation include three components (Reeve 1996:2; Alkin & Cardy 1998:57; Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn 1997:87):

- (1) *energising* human behaviour
- (2) *directing* behaviour by creating a goal orientation for the individual
- (3) *maintaining and supporting* behaviour.

In the light of the above components, motivation therefore includes the complex forces, incentives, needs, tensions and other mechanisms which energise, canalise and sustain human behaviour to carry out a particular action (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994:64; Drafke & Kossen 1998:273; Wevers 2000:10). Davis and Wilson (2000:349) expand on this definition by explicitly including an intrinsic aspect of motivation which refers to the internal, subjective judgements that occur within individuals when they complete job-related tasks. The cognitive model of Thomas and Velthouse is also relevant here (Davis & Wilson 2000:350). It involves four factors: impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice (Davis & Wilson 2000:350). *Impact* refers to the degree to which a person's behaviour is perceived as producing the intended effects in the task environment. *Competence* is the degree to which people believe they can perform a task skilfully if they try. *Meaningfulness* includes the values of the task goal as judged by the individual's own standards. When individuals experience low degrees of meaningfulness, they feel apathetic and detached. Higher degrees of meaningfulness make individuals feel more committed, involved and able to concentrate on their tasks. *Choice* refers to the intentional selection of actions that will lead to desired outcomes. More choice produces greater flexibility, initiative, creativity, resilience whereas little choice leads to feelings of tension, more negative emotions and diminished self-esteem.

Keeping the above in mind it is important, however, to realise that

motivation is not something that can be administered like a pill (Stott & Walker 1994:49). It is unlikely that any person can directly motivate another person sufficiently to have any real effect. Motivation has to come from within a person.

Morale, however, is an elusive concept which is difficult to define, but can exert a strong influence over the atmosphere in an organisation. Unsatisfied needs have the potential to affect the morale of employees adversely. Evans's (2000:178) definition explains the relationship between needs and morale. According to her, morale is 'a state of mind encompassing all the feelings determined by the individual's anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which she or he perceives as significantly affecting his or her total (work) situation'. For the purpose of this article the definition of morale refers to employees' attitude towards either their organisations in general or towards job specific factors such as salaries, job security and supervision (Drafke & Kossen 1998:295). The mentioned factors in the definition can be considered as needs.

The definitions of *motivation* and *morale* indicate the important part played by the individual in both these concepts. The concept *morale* is, however, an extension of the concept *motivation* which also includes attitudes and feelings towards the organisation in general and does only indicate individual needs or factors in particular.

The attitudes and behaviour of staff members often reflect staff's motivation or morale (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994:64; George & Jones 1996:275; Drafke & Kossen 1998:275). The following are signs of high morale or motivation: excellent performance and results being consistently achieved; co-operation in handling problems; the willingness to accept responsibility, and the willingness to accommodate change (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994:64). Staff members who are demoralised or demotivated often display apathy and indifference to the work, a poor record of time keeping and high absenteeism, a lack of co-operation in handling problems and exaggeration of the effect of or difficulties encountered when facing problems (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994:64).

The next section briefly outlines the findings of relevant studies on staff morale and motivation. It pays particular attention to the factors that influence educator motivation and morale.

2 A REVIEW OF FINDINGS OF STUDIES ON EDUCATOR MOTIVATION AND MORALE

Research done on the motivation and morale of educators reveals that educators are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Barnabé & Burns 1994:125; Eimers 1997:125). Intrinsic motivation, the job content factor, manifests itself when the work itself becomes the driving force behind a person's actions (Eimers 1997:125; Fresco, Kfir & Nasser 1997:429; Davis & Wilson 2000:350). Extrinsic motivation, the job context factor, occurs when the driving force for a person's actions lies in factors outside the work itself (Eimers 1997:125; Fresco *et al.* 1997:429). The findings in these studies indicate that the intrinsic factors exercise a greater substantial influence on educator motivation because it arises from the job itself (Wevers 2000:11). The following intrinsic factors were identified in studies:

- *Interaction with learners.* The most satisfaction and motivation are derived from educators' daily interaction with learners (Kniveton 1991:366; Wevers 2000:99; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:166; Shachar 1997:805; Wright & Custer 1998:61; Campbell 1999:24).
- *Accomplishment.* Educators experience great satisfaction when they are able to help learners to achieve positive results (Wevers 2000:101; cf Theall & Franklin 1999:100; cf Atkinson 2000:45).
- *Recognition and praise.* Educators long for recognition and praise for their achievements which serve as a positive reinforcement for effectiveness (Wevers 2000:103; cf Eimers 1997:130; cf Pinto & Pulido 1997:425; cf Evans 1998:29).
- *Task significance.* Educators experience satisfaction when they have a positive effect on the work and lives of others (Wevers 2000:112; cf Theall & Franklin 1999:104; cf Barnabé & Burns 1994:172).
- *Autonomy.* The degree of autonomy allowed educators has an

impact on their motivation. They want the freedom to develop and implement their own methods in the classroom without fearing school authorities (Wevers 2000:114; cf Rowley 1996:14; cf Eimers 1997:132; cf Barnabé & Burns 1994:182).

Although intrinsic factors have a greater direct impact on the morale and motivation of teachers, the influence of extrinsic factors on educators' attitudes should not be underestimated. The following extrinsic factors have been identified:

- *Salaries.* Most educators feel that the salaries they receive are inferior to the amount of work they do (cf Roger 1992:9; Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163; Rowley 1996:14; Shachar 1997:809; Wevers 2000:132; Pinto & Pulido 1997:424).
- *Promotion.* Most educators in Wever's (2000:116) study indicate that promotion to a higher post level was one of their goals.
- *Relationship with colleagues:* Educators put a high premium on positive staff relationships (cf Roger 1992:9; cf Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163; Shachar 1997:806; Wevers 2000:121; Davis & Wilson 2000:352).
- *Job security.* Educators who are facing the possibility of retrenchment or unwanted redeployment, or educators who are confronted with major changes in the curriculum, will experience insecurity and will not be as effective and motivated as educators in a secure working environment (Wevers 2000:124; Low & Marican 1993:14; Department of Education 1999:3). The vulnerability of learners and educators in schools to crimes, such as trespassing, vandalism, carrying and using weapons, drug-dealing, rape and other forms of physical violence, is another powerful reason for the low levels of motivation (Department of Education 1999:3).
- *Fair treatment.* Educators want to be treated fairly. Any discriminatory actions against them are perceived negatively, reducing their effectiveness and motivation (Wevers 2000:126; Low & Marican 1993:14; Campbell 1999:27).
- *Respect.* Many educators hold the view that they do not get the professional respect they deserve (Wevers 2000:137).
- *Lack of services and resources.* The lack of support services makes

educators feel unsure, vulnerable and frustrated (Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163; cf Shachar 1997:810; Wevers 2000:159; Wright & Custer 1998:67). Educators may also experience more subtle forms of demoralisation if they are not professionally equipped or resourced to cope with the new demands being made of them (Department of Education 1999:3).

- *Unreasonable working hours.* Educators may feel that their working hours are unrealistic and unpractical. They also complain about extra hours without receiving any extra compensation or even appreciation for their efforts (Kniveton 1991:369; Wevers 2000:148; Campbell 1999:24; cf Kloep & Tarifa 1994:163).
- *Disciplinary problems.* Educators feel that disciplinary problems comprise one of the most powerful causes of demotivation at classroom level (Wevers 2000:158; Evans 1998:29). Indiscipline of principals, educators and learners has also been cited as a source of demoralisation among committed educators (Department of Education 1999:3).
- *Lack of parent commitment.* The lack of parent commitment is a great concern to educators (Wevers 2000:155). It puts more pressure on the already overloaded educators who have to do their job and in many cases take over the responsibilities of the parents.

To understand the phenomena *motivation* and *morale*, it is important to focus on certain models that have been developed. Despite their longevity, these models still offer a useful framework for the consideration of motivation and morale. These models provide valuable insights and knowledge of factors influencing educators' attitudes and enable managers to stimulate professional growth and performance of staff members.

3 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Theories of motivation were devised in an attempt to explain the behaviour and attitudes of employees (Drafke & Kossen 1998:273). These theories can be divided into two categories: content theories and cognitive or process theories (Barnabé & Burns 1994:171; Rowley 1996:12; Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:87; Wevers 2000:22; Mc Kenna 2000:92,101). Content theories attempt to identify factors within

individuals and their environments that energise and sustain behaviour. Cognitive or process theories attempt to explain how environment factors are moderated by personality factors and psychological states to energise and sustain behaviour and how they stop behaviour (Barnabé & Burns 1994:171; Mc Kenna 2000:101). Content theories, *inter alia*, include Maslow's theory on hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory. Examples of process theories include the operant learning theory, Adam's equity theory and Vroom's expectancy theory.

3.1 Content theories

3.1.1 Maslow's need hierarchy theory

Maslow distinguishes a number of needs ranging from lower order to higher order needs (Maslow 1954:35–47). The principle behind the hierarchy is that needs at each level have to be satisfied to some extent before needs on the next higher level can be satisfied. The lower four needs are called deficiency needs because they motivate people to meet them and until they are met, people find it difficult to respond to higher-order or so-called growth needs (Owens 1995:48; Everard & Morris 1996:21; Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:86; McKenna 2000:93).

Maslow distinguishes a number of needs ranging from lower order to higher order needs (Maslow 1954:35–47):

- (1) *Physiological needs*. The lowest order of human needs consists of the basic physiological necessities such as water, food and shelter. These can be acquired if money and employment are there.
- (2) *Security and safety needs*. If the needs on the previous level are satisfied, a new needs level automatically emerges representing a higher step in the needs hierarchy. This level represents stability (including financial security) and freedom from physical threats and dangers. People want to be assured that their survival is not in jeopardy. Their work should give them this kind of security. Many teachers have entered the education system because the service can provide a secure and stable job.

- (3) *Belonging needs*. This includes affective relationships and the need to belong to a group, family et cetera. Feedback from group members which confirms one's sense of belonging is necessary.
- (4) *Status and self-esteem needs*. These needs refer to the need to feel valued and respected by the self and significant others. Educators who do not feel that their status and self-esteem needs are being met through the job can become discouraged. They want to be recognised for their accomplishments. The need for such recognition is partly met by medals, promotions, et cetera. Satisfaction of these needs leads to self-confidence and a sense of gratification.
- (5) *Self-actualisation needs* refers to the needs to fulfil one's potential and to develop one's capacity.

The categories in Maslow's hierarchy of needs are depicted in Figure 1. The concept of Maslow's needs hierarchy underlies studies on motivation. According to the study done by Sergiovanni and Starrat (1979), self-esteem needs are an important motivator of high concern to school managers and educators.

According to Maslow's theory, a need is a potential motivator until it has been satisfied. The satisfaction of the need makes it ineffective as a motivator and the next higher order need becomes the motivator.

3.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor (motivation–maintenance) model

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory distinguishes two sets of work factors (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959:113). One set relates to the *actual execution of the work* and these factors are called *motivators* or *satisfiers*. The other set of factors relates to the *work environment* and are known as *hygiene factors* or *dissatisfiers*. Herzberg's two-factor theory posits that employees are not motivated by extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions and job security, but by intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition and responsibility (Eimers 1997:126; Jones 1997:77). If appropriate hygiene factors are provided, employees will not be dissatisfied with their work, but neither will they be motivated to perform at their full potential (Gómez-Mejía *et al.* 1998:57; McKenna 2000:97).

FIGURE 1

Maslow's basic hierarchy of needs (Drafte & Kossen 1998:277)

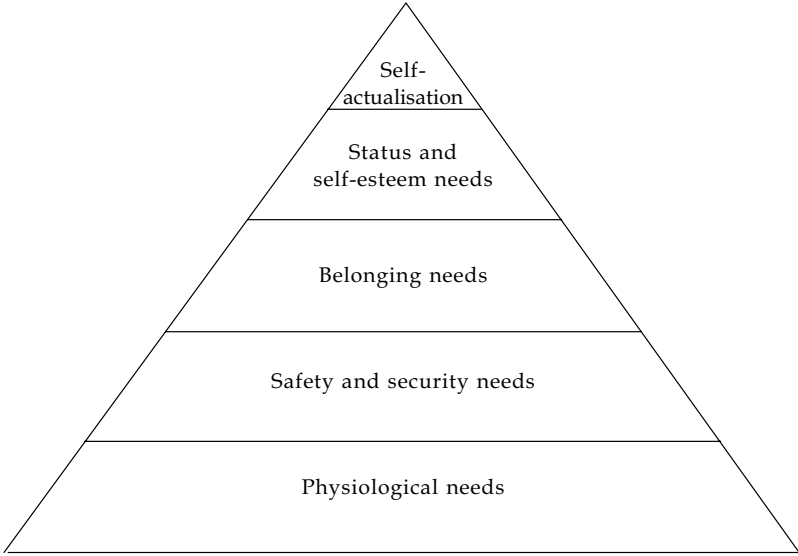


FIGURE 2

The effects of non-fulfilment (left side) and fulfilment (right side) of Herzberg's two factor theory (Drafte & Kossen 1998:282; Gordon 1999:93)

HYGIENE FACTORS		MOTIVATORS	
Job	No Job	No Job	Job
Dissatisfaction	Dissatisfaction	Satisfaction	Satisfaction

<p>Factors include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary • Status • Security • Working conditions • Policies and administrative practices • Interpersonel relationships 	<p>Factors include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaningful work • Challenging work • Recogniton of accomplishments • Feeling of achievement • Increased responsibility • Opportunities for growth and advancement
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Motivators produce real motivation, and when they are inadequate, there is no motivation (see Figure 2) (Gómez-Mejía *et al.* 1998:57; Drafke & Kossen 1998:282). Although hygiene factors are not motivating, they are a prerequisite for motivation (Owens 1995:56; Eimers 1997:126). Kaufman (1982) distinguished between educators as motivation seekers and hygiene seekers, and found that motivation seekers showed greater commitment to teaching than hygiene seekers (Low & Marican 1993:12).

Owens (1995:54) draws the following conclusions from this theory for education practice:

- The things which make people happy at work are not simply the opposites of things which make them unhappy. The two sets of things are different in kind. One cannot simply satisfy people by removing the causes of dissatisfaction, for example by giving staff a higher housing subsidy. Therefore, the opposite of “dissatisfaction” according to this theory is not “satisfaction” as one might expect, but rather “no dissatisfaction”. For example, salary, working conditions, type of appraisal, climate of the school and attitudes of management can be sources of dissatisfaction. However, to improve the salary and working conditions, and develop a more humane, concerned management, one can expect to reduce dissatisfaction, but one cannot expect to motivate staff members by such means.
- The theory suggests that it is not possible to motivate people through maintenance factors. Reducing the class size, developing a more amiable atmosphere and improving the working conditions may do two things (Owens 1995:56):
 - (1) reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of teachers
 - (2) create conditions in which they may be motivated.

It does not mean that maintenance factors are not important: minimum levels need to be maintained to avoid so much dissatisfaction that motivators will not have their expected effect. For example, threats to job security can generate so much dissatisfaction that teachers cannot respond to professional growth, recognition or achievement (Owens 1995:56).

- Education managers should be concerned with ensuring both that the causes of dissatisfaction are removed and that opportunities for satisfaction are increased.

3.2 Process theories

3.2.1 Operant learning theory

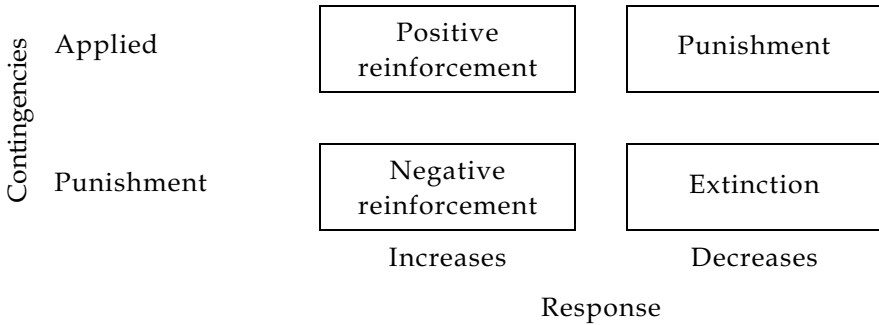
Process theories include the operant learning theory that proposes that a person engages in a specific behaviour because that behaviour has been enforced by a specific outcome (Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:85; Drafke & Kossen 1998:286). Positive reinforcement, such as receiving a financial bonus for performance, is one way to increase the desired behaviour of people (Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:85; Drafke & Kossen 1998:286). In extinction, the second form of reinforcement, a response is weakened because it is no longer paired with some positive reinforcer (Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:86; Drafke & Kossen 1998:286). For example, in attempting to attain a higher pass rate in Grade 12, the educator may recommend learners to take a subject on a lower academic level and thereby sacrifice the academic standard of learners. Negative reinforcement and punishment are two other forms of reinforcement. In negative reinforcement, the likelihood that a person will engage in a particular behaviour is increased because the behaviour is followed by the removal of something the person dislikes (Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:86; Drafke & Kossen 1998:286). For example, the educator will teach extra maths lessons to avoid involvement in sports coaching. In punishment the likelihood of a given behaviour is decreased because it is followed by something that the person dislikes. Figure 3 depicts the four distinctions of the operant learning theory.

3.2.2 Equity theory

Adam's equity theory focuses on the concept of *fairness* (Anderson & Kyprianou 1994:64; Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:94; Drafke & Kossen 1998:288). The equity theory has evolved from the social comparison theory (Gordon 1999:94).

FIGURE 3

*Effects of methods of reinforcement on behaviour response
(Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:86)*



Illustrated in Figure 4, the equity theory examines the tendency for staff members to compare the fairness of what the work requires them to do (input) with what they receive in exchange with their efforts (outputs) (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:94; Drafke & Kossen 1998:288). It also suggests that staff members compare their own job situation with that of another person (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:94; Drafke & Kossen 1998:288; Gordon 1999:94). If they do not experience equity, people will take actions designed to bring them a state of equity between what they put into their work and what they receive in return. According to the equity theory, perceptions and not facts influence motivation (Gordon 1999:94).

3.2.3 Expectancy theory

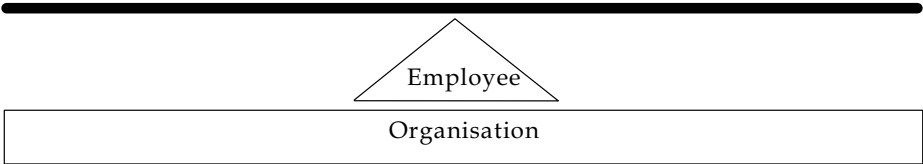
The *expectancy theory* developed by Victor Vroom and later extended by Porter and Lawler attempts to explain the determinants of workplace attitudes and behaviours (Mosley, Meggins & Pietri 1993:240; Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:95; Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:79; Drafke & Kossen 1998:287). The three major concepts underlying the theory are those of valence, instrumentality and expectancy (Ruhl-Smith & Smith 1993:537; Schermerhorn *et al.* 1997:95; Wagner & Hollenbeck 1998:79).

According to this theory, motivation is determined by individuals' beliefs in their own efforts, the resulting job performance, and finally

FIGURE 4

The equity theory (Drafke & Kossen 1998:288)

INPUT:		OUTPUT:
Skill		Salary and benefits
Effort		Recognition
Performance		Job satisfaction
Education		Opportunities
Others	<equity comparison>	Others

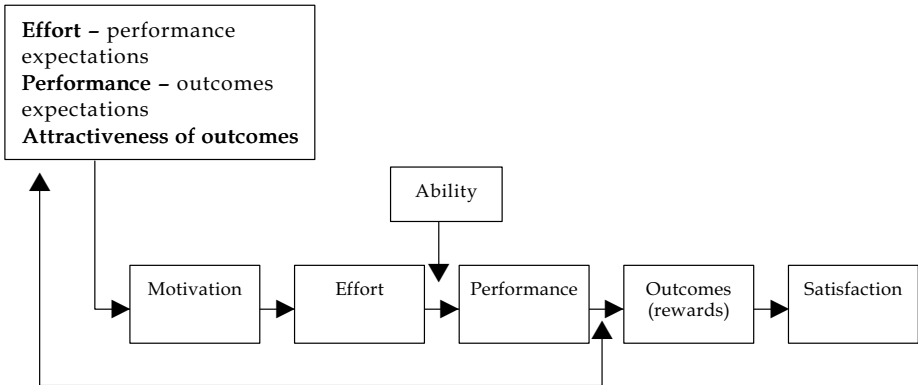


the outcomes or rewards and incentives offered for the job performance (Cascio 1995:418; George & Jones 1996:171). The performance-outcomes process occurs again and again where actual events provide further information to support a person's belief, and beliefs affect future motivation. There are three determinants of motivation in this theory illustrated in Figure 5:

- (1) *The expectancy that effort will result in performance.* Staff will be motivated to work only to the extent that they expect high levels of effort to be reflected in high levels of performance.
- (2) *The expectancy that performance will result in reward.* Staff will be motivated by the belief that their performance will lead to outcomes (rewards) for them. Failure to believe that performance will be rewarded, will negatively affect motivation.
- (3) *The valence of outcome (reward).* Valence refers to the personal value staff place on the outcomes that they believe they will receive for their performance. Outcomes (positive or negative) may result either from the environment (eg superiors, colleagues or the reward system of the organisation) or from performance of a task itself (eg feelings of accomplishments, personal worth or achievement). High valence of outcomes leads to high motivation.

FIGURE 5

The expectancy theory of motivation (Cascio 1995:417)



Theorists agree that the three factors of motivation in the expectancy theory collectively determine the overall level of motivation. If one of these factors is zero, motivation will be zero (George & Jones 1996:175). The implication is that all three factors must be high for an individual to be highly motivated.

The concept of expectancy suggests some guidelines to managers. Managers can positively influence the motivation of staff members in the following ways (cf Callahan & Fleenor 1988:75):

- Identify the type and amount of behaviour that will be used to judge good performance. For example, the principal may determine that an increase of 10 per cent average in the maths scores of matriculants in a poorly performing school will be judged as 'good performance'.
- Managers need to determine whether staff members have the appropriate skills and knowledge to do their work effectively.

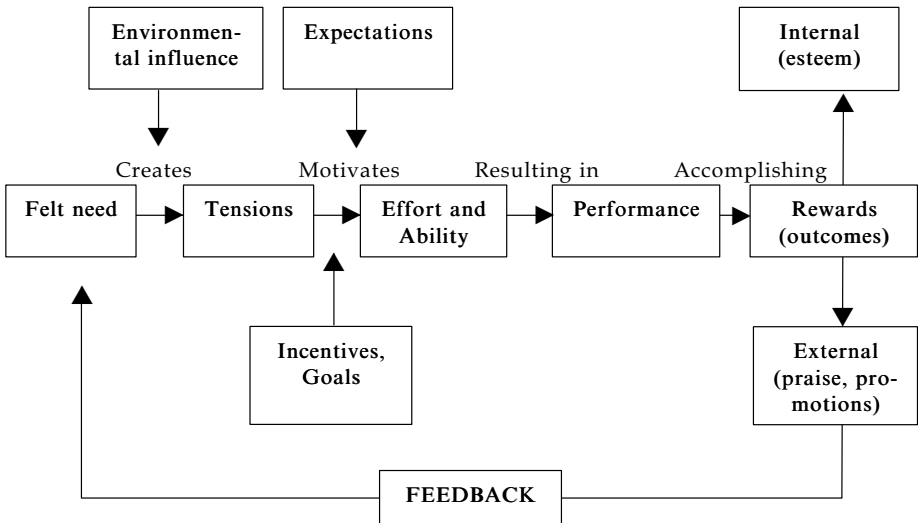
The above-mentioned theories provide the foundation on which a general model for motivation can be developed. This model serves as a means to understand the motivation process.

4 A GENERAL MODEL FOR MOTIVATION

The motivation process can be regarded as *an incentive which causes action* (Drafke & Kossen 1998:275). On the left side of the model (Figure 6) a felt need creates tensions. A *tension* is created by a shortage or lack experienced by people. Tensions motivate an individual to endeavour to reduce or even eliminate these tensions. An individual's past and present environmental experiences influences the direction these efforts will take. Expectations also influence effort (Drafke & Kossen 1998:275). If a person believes that the desired outcomes are unlikely or impossible to realise, he or she may not even bother to make an effort.

FIGURE 6

A motivational model (Baron 1983:124; Drafke & Kossen 1998:275)



Fortunately, education managers can influence staff expectations in various ways, such as offering rewards and establishing goals jointly. The ability of a person then blends with the person's effort in a certain level of performance. Unfortunately performance alone does not enable individuals to satisfy their needs, especially if they lack the appropriate skills or when their prior training is inadequate. Rewards or

outcomes result from the motivated activity (Drafke & Kossen 1998:275). Outcomes may come from the external environment in the form of praise, promotions or financial awards. Outcomes can also come from the internal environment, such as a feeling of self-esteem or achievement resulting from accomplishing a goal. If this is negative, it tends to result in staff dissatisfaction.

Measuring the motivation morale of educators is difficult because attitudes are abstract and individuals often have difficulty expressing them precisely. This information can, however, be extremely valuable for educational planners and managers as well as the general public because it informs them of work items that result in educator morale and motivation.

5 CONCLUSION

In this article the importance of needs and motivation and their relationship to morale were described. An understanding of human needs is very important to managers who have the responsibility of establishing an environment that not only motivates staff but also helps to maintain their morale in a positive way. This article has sought to identify some factors which impact the motivation and morale of staff members by focusing on research findings on morale and motivation as well as certain models of motivation. The article, however, suggests that addressing individuals' needs is complex, but it is essential to improving the quality of organisations. Managers should therefore continually be on the lookout for warning signs of a lack of motivation or poor morale to prevent the deterioration of a healthy organisation.

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