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MOTIVATION AS A PRIMARY MANAGERIAL TASK IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL IN SOWETO

by

ANDRÉ JAN VAN ZYL

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SAMEVATTING

Motivering is die sleutel-bestuurstaak in elke organisasie. Daar kan egter weinig motivering wees waar mense nie beweeg word tot konstruktiewe handeling deur uitdagende struikelblokke ten einde betekenisvolle doelwitte te bereik nie.

Nie alleen is die sekondêre skool die formele organisasie waarvan die prinsipaal die hoof is nie, maar, belangriker nog, is dit die institusionele inrigting wat as langtermyn-doelwit het die onderrig, opvoeding en vorming van elke jeugdige lid van die gemeenskap in sy sorg. Die standaard van die menslike optredes in 'n organisasie soos die sekondêre skool word grootliks bepaal deur die klimaat wat hierdie optredes ten gronde lê. Deur die klimate van hulle eie skole te bestudeer, sal hoofde leer om die subtiele en kousale verhoudings tussen hulle eie gedrag as hoofde en die gemotiveerde gedrag van hulle onderwysers na waarde te skat. Die ideale situasie is 'n oop skoolklimaat wat 'n wedersydse gevoel van vertroue tussen prinsipaal, personeel en leerlinge tot gevolg het, en waar alle betrokkenes gewoonlik hoog, gemotiveerd is en 'n gesonde moraal heers. Die hoofdoel van hierdie skripsie was juuis om aan te toon dat doeltreffende motivering nie die totstandkoming van 'n gesonde skoolklimaat en 'n positiewe moraal by die personeel kan voorafgaan nie.

Soweto se verskillende probleme beïnvloed die moraal en motivering van die onderwyser, soos ook die vlak van die leerlinge se toewyding tot hulle studies. Die stelling word hier egter gemaak dat die karakteristieke gebrek aan motivering by Soweto se sekondêre skool-onderwysers hoofsaaklik die gevolg is van leerlinge se blatante
ongedissiplineerdheid sowel as hulle algemene agtelosigheid en onverskilligheid teenoor hulle eie vordering op skool en hulle akademiese vordering. Indien die Departement van Onderwys en Opleiding se beleid bygevoeg word by hierdie reeds hoog onbevredigende situasie, sal die prinsipaal, wat andersins baie lewensvatbare motiveringstrategieë mag hê, homself in 'n doodloopstraat bevind. Ten einde enige mate van sukses in hierdie situasie te bereik, word buitengewone leierskap-bekwaamhede vereis.

Die implikasie is onder andere dat 'n sin vir perspektief opnuut ontwikkel word - dat daar weer 'n rede gevind word om opvoeding daar te stel as iets belangriks vir die individu. Motivering moet dus 'n belangrike fokuspunt wees vir leiers wat betrokke is by die beheer oor opvoeding in Soweto.
CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The equivocation of educationists on teachers' professionalism leads to the indivisible notion that teachers, like most civil servants, are human beings working in organisations. In fact, it is difficult, if not impossible, to imagine an organisation that is not composed of human beings. An organisation in its most elementary form is a system of co-operative human activities (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1984:69) and the school is a formal organisation (Paisey, 1981:8). Individuals create organisations to accomplish specific objectives, and organisations in turn create contextual settings, or environments, that have great influence on the behaviour of people in them. The internal environment of an organisation is also influenced by the political system that supports the organisation (Owens, 1981:23) - this affirmation purports to have much bearing on the organisational climate in a Soweto secondary school.

Ideally, the organisation should accomplish all of its objectives, and its members should satisfy all of the needs that have drawn them to it. However, this ideal is rarely if ever attained. For instance, it is ordinarily not feasible to promote every teacher on the staff, even though almost every teacher desires promotion. For this reason, motivation, being the overriding managerial task, is, of pivotal antecedence in any school. In this respect Newell (1978:128) remarks that recognition of the human dimension in an organisation suggests that the problem of motivation with its concomitant problems is central to the life of the organisation. It is, therefore, the principal's task to
direct teachers so that they can satisfy their needs as far as possible while they strive to accomplish the objectives of the school (Gorton, 1980:109/110). When the latter-day secondary school climate in Soweto is taken into consideration, it would be no understatement to say that this task is unmanageable.

The predominance of anarchy in Soweto has induced an "all-time low" on teachers' morale, a term which Marx & Gous (1986:87) typify as the attitude or state of mind of the employee which will determine whether he will be prepared to co-operate voluntarily in helping to attain the objectives of the enterprise. The following factors determine morale: credit for work well done, fair wages, proper supervision, understanding, interesting work, promotion on grounds of merit, tactful discipline, a clean and safe place of work, security and advice for problems outside the organisation, to mention but a few (Reynders, 1977:121). Any attempt to motivate employees before a positive morale has been established amongst them, would be pointless (Marx, et al., 1986:87). Motivation and morale are thus inseparable and both of cardinal importance in the effective functioning of a secondary school and the realisation of its objectives. The outline of the problem under 1.3, and indeed the entire short dissertation, is based on this premise.

However, any principal managing a secondary school would be on the wrong track if he attempted a study of motivation in isolation. A knowledge of motivation within the broader management concept and an understanding of the various managerial tasks, in particular, is therefore indispensable.
1.2 KEY CONCEPTS

1.2.1 Motivation

Essentially, motivation has to do with an individual's needs or desires that cause him or her to act in a particular manner (Flippo & Munsinger, 1982:310; Gannon, 1977:196; Owens, 1981:106). Motivation is influenced by varying factors (Greene, 1971:18). It would therefore be pointless to attempt an all-embracing definition of motivation. This can also be ascribed to the fact that motives are rooted in behaviour and that people's motives can, in any case, only be indirectly identified. Perceptions of people are often speculative because human motives may differ culturally and even amongst people belonging to the same culture. Similar motives can be expressed in different forms of behaviour and, conversely, differing motives can be expressed in similar behaviour. Thus, a single action can represent various motives (Orpen, 1981:150/151). This does not, however, signify having to resign oneself to mere sophistry, ambivalence or vagueness. For this reason, a more detailed analysis of the motivation concept is expounded in chapter two.

1.2.2 Management

Divergent definitions of management merely serve to confuse. However, many authors are in agreement that management is the manner in which the leaders of an organisation appropriate human beings and resources in order to realise the organisation's objectives (De Wet, 1981:42; Marx et al., 1986:52; Reynders, 1977:211). More typically, educational management is a specified kind of work to ultimately promote educative teaching. This work is in a stipulated area and consists of regulated tasks to be executed by a person or
body in a position of authority (Van der Westhuizen, 1986:53).

1.2.3 Managerial Tasks

Although some authors, for example (Gorton, 1980:46), distinguish between as many as thirteen different fundamental tasks, most authors seem to be in agreement that four basic managerial tasks can be identified. These are: planning, organising, directing and controlling (De Wet, 1981:42; Marx et al., 1986:54; Van der Westhuizen, 1986:45). These four basic tasks do not follow in any particular order nor do they have various numerical and hierarchical phases. They may occur or receive attention simultaneously or at any stage during the management process. Similarly, there are various additional sub-tasks which are in no way less important to the manager. They may need attention during any one of the basic tasks. These include decision-making, communicating and, of course, motivating (Marx et al., 1986:54-55). The additional tasks overlap and intertwine, depending on the situation.

Within this basic framework an attempt can be made to outline the problem.

1.3 OUTLINING THE PROBLEM

An education system is the single most powerful means by which human beings can either "make" or "break" mankind and the world in which they live (Van Schalkwyk, 1981:240). The essential problem is that divergent meaning is given to education. The vicissitude of meaning implies that such interpretations often change from a means for personal and social exaltation to a means for political change. Not only can education be interpreted as a cause or result of change, but also as an obstacle to change or even as a precondition
for change (Idenburg, 1971:ch. 8). Present education for blacks in the RSA is the centre of controversy and is also greatly politicised. The prevailing turmoil is manifested in riots, intimidation, marches, gang warfare, demonstrations and numerous acts of crime (Mkhize, 1986:1). Surely the perfunctory efforts of Soweto teachers must, to a large extent, be linked to these negative phenomena. The situation has resulted in the nigh impossible task of obtaining the co-operation of both teachers and pupils for the realisation of educational objectives.

Quality education is directly dependent on the quality of the teacher. In order to meaningfully develop the human potential of the child, as well as the tuitional subject matter, education necessitates dedicated and motivated teachers. In teaching, the essence of motivation is the driving force or actual reason that compels a teacher to accept, with sincerity, the responsibility of genuine aid and guidance to each pupil in his care. Current unrest has, however, not only created an aura of cynicism, despondency and pessimism, but has also obscured the true meaning, sense and relevance of education for scores of teachers and pupils alike in schools for blacks. In fact, the prevailing indiscipline has succeeded in making a mockery of education, resulting in a completely ludicrous situation. The defeatism and, indeed the futility that is revealed when it is expected of teachers to pay heed to pupils' absurd cry of "pass one, pass all", underlines the necessity of a reorientation of the concept of motivation with teachers. The implication is inter alia that a sense of perspective be developed anew - that a cause again be found to establish education as something significant to the individual. Motivation should thus be a special focal point for leaders involved in the management of education in Soweto.
With the foregoing introductory remarks, key concepts and outline of the problem as background, the aim of the study as well as the method and structure, will now be explicated.

1.4 **AIM, METHOD AND PLAN OF STUDY**

1.4.1 **Aim of study**

The purpose of this study is to examine motivation as a means of dispelling the sense of futility which the situation in Soweto's secondary schools presently engenders. The emphasis later will be on obstacles to possible motivation strategies and might be of some benefit to contemporary principals and other leaders in education for blacks in the RSA.

1.4.2 **Study method**

This dissertation is based entirely on a literary study. However, personal experience gained over a period of five years in education for blacks, of which more than four were in Soweto secondary schools, should serve as a reasonably dependable (if not wholly objective) frame of reference in interpreting and analysing relevant data.

1.4.3 **Structure**

A study of limited scope necessitates that the essence of the problem be extracted as soon as possible. However, without an indepth look at the theoretical background to the concept of motivation, no interpretation could be objective, rational or logical. For this reason, predominant theories on motivation will be discussed in chapter two.

The third chapter will be devoted to the concept of school climate and morale. In this connection the adverse effects
of urbanisation, Soweto's socio-economic and political climate, as well as its high incidence of crime, will be highlighted. However, the single most important factor affecting the degree of motivation and level of morale of secondary school teachers in Soweto will be shown to be that of pupil behaviour.

Chapter four will indicate that exceptional leadership qualities are indispensable to the Soweto secondary school principal if he is to grapple successfully with the innumerable problems which he will encounter in trying to adopt viable motivation strategies.

The concluding chapter will inter alia offer recommendations which it is hoped, will not be without significance to those whose responsibility is the management of black education within Soweto and elsewhere.

1.5 SUMMARY

Within the present political context, which has a powerful influence on the orientation of black pupils to education, the dedicated attention of Soweto's teachers and pupils to the teaching-learning task is problematic. Indeed, the principal of a secondary school for blacks in Soweto has a complex task with regard to the motivation of his staff. The importance of the motivation task for the manager in education has been established in this chapter. Motivation should, therefore, be understood in its entirety (Bondesio & De Witt, 1986:281).

The following chapter is devoted to this end.
2.1 INTRODUCTION

A primary aim of the teaching situation is to promote dedication of the pupil corps. Of greater importance, however, from a management point of view, is the motivation of the teacher (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983:122). There must be a thorough understanding of the needs of people and especially of factors that initiate their behaviour and actions (Bondesio, et al., 1986:281). All people have certain needs. These needs imply objectives that conform to those of the organisation or which have personal gain as basic goal (Flippo, et al., 1982:310/311). Given the recurring unrest situation within Soweto, one can justifiably question the needs and objectives of both teacher and pupil.

In the following sections an attempt is made to elucidate the motivation concept.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

In its simplest form, motivation is any action or event that causes someone's behaviour to change (Gellerman, 1976:15). However, one important fact has obviously been omitted from this exposition, namely that motivation is considered to be rooted in human needs (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:123). The basis for understanding motivation in Soweto's secondary schools lies, therefore, in understanding the needs that motivate the behaviour of teachers in these schools. These needs can be either extrinsic or intrinsic.
2.3 EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Naylor, Pritchard & Illgen (1980:ch. 3) base their approach on the source of the resultant behaviour. If the source of the behavioural outcome lies in the environment, for example salary increases, working conditions or supervisory recognition, the resultant behaviour will be extrinsic. In other words, extrinsic motivators, such as money, satisfy the worker's lower order needs as differentiated by Maslow (Swanda, 1979:155).

Where, on the other hand, the work itself is the motivating factor, the basis for motivation will be intrinsic. Hamner (in Steers & Porter, 1979:545) defines an intrinsically motivating job as one that is interesting and creative enough that certain pleasures or rewards are derived from completing the task itself. Motivation is thus not dependent merely on environmental factors, but also on the extent to which a person himself derives satisfaction from his work (De Wet, 1981:189). Considering the deep-rooted intrinsicality of the teaching profession, as well as the present organisational climate in Soweto, the principal of a secondary school should do everything that is humanly possible to promote intrinsic motivation amongst his teachers.

Although many relevant theories of motivation exist that are directly applicable to management practice in schools, not all of these can be discussed in the course of this short dissertation. The following theories range between wholly extrinsic and partly extrinsic.

2.4 PRESCRIPTIVE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Classical theorists, such as Taylor, Fayol and Weber, stressed the importance of maximising efficiency in the
company's operations. Frederick Taylor regarded financial remuneration as playing the fundamental role in the motivation of people. However, many theorists have laid claim to the notion that motivation encompasses a vast field and is, in fact, much more complex than Taylor would have us believe. His theory perhaps best exemplifies the school of thought which advocated what has popularly come to be known as the traditional model. Subsequent research exposed Taylor's theory of more money equalling more work as simplistic in the extreme (Berkman & Neider, 1987:166; Gannon, 1977:196). In consequence the human relations movement came into being.

The flaw in the human relations movement was that it attempted to assimilate the worker with the objectives of management without taking the worker's beliefs, personality traits and personal objectives into account (Berkman, et al., 1987:164). From this flaw, the behavioural or human resources approach evolved.

Contrary to the human relations movement, the newer human resources approach to organisation theory utilised scientific methods in studying the intricacies of human behaviour. The traditional model of motivation and the more recent motivation theories can be placed in perspective through Douglas McGregor's presentation of Theory X and Theory Y. These two theories contrast the old traditional approaches (X) with the new human resources approach (Y). Theory Y attempts to scientifically answer the question of motivation and the human variable in organisations (Swanda, 1979:28 & 36). McGregor rejects the traditional Theory X assumptions that people are inherently lazy and have to be driven by management under strict supervision. Theory X is thus synonymous with the routine regimenting of workers as imbued in the classical approach. At the opposite pole, Theory Y recognises the worker as a self-actualising being
with personal objectives. If his needs are taken into account by management he will be prepared to voluntarily integrate his objectives with those of the organisation. Should a manager thus support Theory Y assumptions, he would believe that his subordinates enjoy work of a challenging nature and that they, in fact, strive for self-actualisation within the work situation. He would therefore adopt a more lenient and democratic management style (Robbins, 1984:29/30). Many of McGregor's prescriptive assumptions are based on Maslow's need or content theory.

2.5 CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

2.5.1 Orientation

In contrast to the prescriptive theories, content theories (also called need theories) concentrate on those features that cause, activate, or initiate behaviour. Motivation, then, emanates from factors causing or influencing an individual to act. Content theories are concerned with a person's needs and with factors, such as compensation, esteem, and scope for achievement (Kirkpatrick, 1987:320). Possibly the best known and most widely quoted content theory of motivation is that of psychologist Abraham Maslow (Berkman, et al., 1987:92).

2.5.2 Maslow's need hierarchy theory

Maslow based the concept of a hierarchy of needs on two principles: Firstly, human needs may be arranged in a hierarchy of importance progressing from a lower to a higher order of needs. Secondly, a satisfied need no longer serves as a primary motivator of behaviour (Dessler, 1980:178). Needs can be thought of as being ranked in a hierarchy in which one need is more important than others until it is satisfied. Once that need is satisfied, the next higher
need becomes predominant. The order, however, can be reversed and even swing back and forth. Once satisfied, a given need no longer motivates behaviour. Only when one is deprived of something, and therefore craves it, can it be used as an incentive (Williams, 1982:78). It would generally appear, however, that as soon as a need at the lower level is relatively well satisfied, individuals attempt to satisfy needs at progressively higher levels.

1) At the lowest level, but of primary importance when they are not met, are physiological or biological needs. Unless the circumstances are unusual, the need an individual may have for love, status, or recognition, for example, is inoperative when his stomach has been empty for a while. But when he eats regularly and adequately, he ceases to regard hunger as an important motivator. The same is true of other physiological needs, such as for air, water, sex, rest, exercise, shelter, and protection from the elements. People are not interested in money per se. They aspire to obtain money in order to provide for basic physiological satisfaction. 2) When physiological needs are relatively well satisfied, safety and security needs become important. These protect the individual from danger, threat, or deprivation. When people feel threatened or dependent, their greatest need is for guarantees, for protection and for security. 3) Social needs on the other hand include the need for belonging, association, acceptance by colleagues, and for giving and receiving friendship and love. In the school situation, one involuntarily visualises group feeling in both formal and informal groups. 4) Above the social needs - in the sense that they do not become motivators until lower needs are reasonably well satisfied - are the egoistic or esteem needs. These are of two kinds: Firstly, those that relate to one's self-esteem - needs for self-confidence, independence, achievement, competence, and knowledge - and secondly, those that relate to one's
reputation - needs for status, recognition, appreciation, and the deserved respect of one's colleagues. Unlike the lower needs, these are rarely fully satisfied, for human beings seek indefinitely for greater satisfaction of these needs once they become important to them. 5) Finally, there are the needs for self-actualisation, for realising one's full potential as a productive and creative person or becoming what one is capable of becoming. It is clear that the quality of work life in most organisations gives only limited opportunity for fulfilling these needs. When other needs are not satisfied, people attempt to satisfy the lower-order needs, and the needs for self-actualisation remain inert (Cawood & Gibbon, 1981:107; Gannon, 1977:199; Kirkpatrick 1987:320; Maslow, 1970:36-46; McGregor, 1960:36-39; Swanda, 1979:154/155).

The major challenge, thus, for principals of secondary schools in Soweto, is to create an environment, or climate, which will motivate teachers through higher-level or intrinsic needs - esteem, achievement, recognition, competence, self-fulfillment, and advancement.

Herzberg's theory supports Maslow's concept of a hierarchy of needs.

2.5.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner and Barbara Snyderman conducted in-depth interviews with over 200 engineers and accountants. These professionals were asked to recall events or incidents from the past year that had made them feel unusually good or bad about their work. They were also asked to speculate on how much the events had affected their performance and morale (Dessler, 1980:180; Gannon, 1977:201; Herzberg, 1976:251/252; Hoy & Miskel, 1982:148). The interviews were assessed, and, in almost all cases, the
factors causing job satisfaction had a stimulating effect on performance and morale, whereas factors causing job dissatisfaction had a negative effect (Herzberg, 1976:251/252; Kirkpatrick, 1987:326; Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:136; Williams, 1982:82). Another important finding was that the positive factors were all intrinsic to the job, whereas the negative factors were all extrinsic (Gannon, 1977:201/202). When people feel good about their jobs, they usually do so because they are doing their work particularly well or are becoming more expert in their professions. Favourable feelings are related to the specific tasks performed rather than to background factors such as money, security, or working conditions. Conversely, unfavourable feelings result from some disturbances in the extrinsic factors that cause people to feel that they are not being treated fairly, such as poor wages, unsafe conditions, or fear of losing their jobs (Herzberg, 1976:69-83).

On the basis of these findings, the researchers made a distinction between what they called motivators and what they called maintenance or hygiene factors:

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<td>Job Context</td>
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Table 2.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory (Swanda, 1979:157)
Motivators have uplifting effects on attitudes and performance. Maintenance factors (Herzberg calls these hygienic factors) prevent losses of morale or efficiency, and although they cannot motivate by themselves, they can forestall any serious dissatisfaction or drop in productivity and allow the motivators to operate (Herzberg, 1976:58-60). Interestingly enough, although Herzberg's theory has received some criticism (Herzberg, 1976:145-267), Thomas J. Sergiovanni conducted a separate teacher study which was based on Herzberg's theory and achievement and recognition were identified as the most potent motivators for teachers (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:138).

In many ways, Herzberg's factors parallel Maslow's concept of a hierarchy of needs. The motivators relate to the two highest levels (esteem and self-fulfillment), and the maintenance or hygiene factors relate to the lower-level needs, primarily the security needs (Herzberg, 1976:316). David McClelland differs from both Maslow and Herzberg by emphasising one all-embracing need.

2.5.4 McClelland's need for achievement theory

People, psychologically, can be divided into two groups. There are those few who are challenged by opportunity and are willing to work hard to accomplish something, and the majority which really could not care all that much (McClelland, 1984:73). According to McClelland, a country's economic development depends on the extent to which its citizens have a need for achievement. His research also indicates that there is a high positive correlation between the need for achievement and performance and executive success (Dessler, 1980:183/184), and that this need can be developed in mature people, for an individual's drives or motives are not fixed as a result of childhood experiences (Berkman, et al., 1987:99; Gannon, 1977:200).
Achievement-oriented people have certain characteristics that can be developed. They enjoy personal responsibility for outcomes, do best when faced by a challenge, set moderate achievement goals and have a strong need for feedback about how well they are doing (Berkman, et al., 1987:97).

The content theories of Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland focused on the needs that drive or spur behaviour and the incentives that attract or induce behaviour. The following process theories attempt to explain how the principal of a secondary school can produce a motivated state in a teacher.

2.6 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

2.6.1 Orientation

The orientation of process theories is based upon the means (process) people utilise in making choices, identifying goals, and determining the directions they will take. In other words, process theories consider why people choose specific patterns of behaviour to achieve work goals (Kirkpatrick, 1987:327). Like many of the other cognitive or process theories, the expectancy theory of Vroom, which follows, is an extension of the work done by psychologists E.C. Tolman and Kurt Lewin in the 1930s (Williams, 1982:109).

2.6.2 Expectancy theory

This theory states that employees assess in advance what their behaviour may accomplish and consider possible outcomes (Gannon, 1977:197; Hoy, et al., 1982:155; Williams, 1982:110). Although this approach resembles a "what's in it for me" view of behaviour, it does seem to partially explain the causes of behaviour. Thus, the actions of the
principal, the Department of Education and Training, and, of course, the government, significantly influence the behaviour chosen by teachers.

According to Victor Vroom, people are motivated to work if they expect increased effort to lead to reward and value the rewards resulting from their efforts (Berkman, et al., 1987:100). Thus, from a manager's point of view, the following results (Kirkpatrick, 1987:327; Williams, 1982:112): Motivation = (expectancy that increased effort will lead to increased rewards) x (value to the individual of the rewards resulting from his or her efforts).

Researchers testing the theory have found some difficulty with its application. Yet, the most consistent finding supports the notion that there is a cause-effect relationship between expectancy, performance, and extrinsic rewards such as pay or advancement (Filley, House & Kerr, 1976:200). Although many managers have used versions of the expectancy approach, the concept is carried to its utmost under programmes termed organisational behaviour modification (Flippo, et al., 1982:317).

2.6.3 Behaviour modification

The behaviourist viewpoint on motivation is based on Edward Thorndike's principle known as the Law of Effect: Behaviour followed by desirable or pleasant results will be repeated, while behaviour not followed by pleasant consequences will not be repeated (Gannon, 1977:205). Skinner distinguishes between reinforcement (the presentation of an attractive reward following a response or the removal of an unpleasant or negative condition following a response) and punishment, which is the reverse of reinforcement (Moore, 1982:295). Applied to the school situation, it can be assumed that the teachers' desires for
the rewards of positive feedback and recognition will in large measure motivate them to perform satisfactorily in anticipation of such rewards.

The final expectancy model of prominence is that of Porter and Lawler, which, although containing singular differences, is in effect a simplification of the aforementioned models.

2.6.4 Porter-Lawler theory

The Porter Lawler model is a future-oriented version of the expectancy theory of motivation (Porter & Lawler, 1968:166) and it also emphasises anticipated responses or outcomes (Porter, et al., 1968:ch. 2). Managers, particularly, rely on these future expectations rather than on past learning. On the basis of the perceived effort-reward probability, effort is expended, performance is accomplished, rewards are received, satisfaction occurs, and this, in turn leads to future effort (Porter, et al., 1968:20/21).

Another process theory that has received support from research studies is the so-called equity theory.

2.6.5 Equity theory

This theory predicts that people will compare the inputs they bring to the job in the form of education, experience, training and effort with the outcomes (rewards) they receive, as compared to those of other employees in comparable or similar jobs (Gannon, 1977:205; Williams, 1982:98). The belief, on the basis of comparison, that an inequity exists, in the form of either underpayment or overpayment, will have possible adverse motivational and behavioural effects on performance (Kirkpatrick, 1987:328). This form of inequity is, in practice, directly relevant to the recent furore amongst South Africa's teaching corps,
concerning the question of teachers' salaries. Marlene Burger, in the Sunday Times of September 11 (1988:7), quotes independent surveys—commissioned by the Teachers' Federal Council—as indicating that teachers were earning 40 percent less on average than their counterparts in the private sector and 11 percent less than other civil servants. It should, however, be kept in mind that the key factor in the equity theory is whether an inequity is perceived (Kirkpatrick, 1987:328) and not, as in the above example, whether it actually exists.

Most of the theories discussed thus far, have been devoted to the motivation and demotivation of employees. Reddin's theory, however, places more emphasis on the method of motivation from a manager's point of view.

2.7 REDDIN'S 3-D THEORY OF MOTIVATION

It would seem that one of the primary differences between Reddin's 3-D (or Z) theory (1970) and McGregor's X and Y theories (1960)—mentioned earlier—is that McGregor gives much attention to the individual's inner needs rather than to the individual in varying situations, a factor to which Reddin, in turn, gives overriding emphasis. Reddin's 3-D theory is based on Z assumptions. He calls these the rationalist-situationist view of man. The effective manager does not motivate people in an organisation, but rather in a situation, where individuals have a will of their own and possess elements of both X and Y characteristics (Reddin, 1970 64/65).

At face value, Theory Z seems to have all the answers to the question of motivation. However, even the simplest situation is made up of many varying factors and, in turn, every factor, too, has its own dimensions (Carlisle, 1973:176). By no means can Reddin's pragmatic (does it
work?) approach be disregarded (the relevance of Reddin's theory, and its application to the school situation, will be elucidated in Chapter 4). Obviously manager-centred, Reddin is perhaps somewhat inclined to forget that each manager is working, not merely with objects, but with God's greatest and most complex creation - this is the underlying idea in the summary.

2.8 SUMMARY

Summarising all the theories discussed above would be a rather lengthy exercise. However, when considering prominent theories such as that of Maslow, the following conclusion can be drawn: Not only is every situation unique, but also every individual in that situation. The effective manager understands which, how, when, and for whom motivational theories apply (Berkman, et al., 1987:114). Thus, a sound knowledge of each and every teacher's primary needs and desires is of cardinal importance to all leaders in education.

There can, however, be no question of motivation before a harmonious organisational climate has been established within the school. In chapter 3 there follows a discussion of this subject as well as an exposition of conditions in Soweto.
CHAPTER 3

SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SOWETO

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Having outlined the motivation concept in the previous chapter, an attempt will be made here to elucidate the interrelatedness and interdependence of motivation, organisational climate and morale. These three concepts, although separate entities, are inextricably intertwined when related to management activities in any organisation. The key to this phenomenon is that it exists within a group relationship (Hershey, 1985:21). A discussion then follows on how urbanisation, the socio-economic climate with its high incidence of crime, and the political upheaval in Soweto, must of necessity influence teachers' behaviour. In this connection it can be stated that the actions of the employee are not dependent merely on his analysis of his own individual situation, but also on the climate in which he works (Dessler, 1976:185). Finally, thus, Soweto's educational climate and pupils' indifference to their studies will be considered and exposed as possibly being the primary cause of teachers' lack of morale and motivatedness.

Although school climate is a matter of interpretation, the following concise definition should suffice.

3.2 CLIMATE

3.2.1 Defining the concept

Hoy, et al. (1982:185) describe organisational climate succinctly as the set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one school from another and influences the behaviour of people in it. From Hoy & Miskel's depiction,
it is clear that there are different types of organisational climate.

3.2.2 Climate types

Andrew W. Halpin distinguishes between six types of organisational climate in schools, namely open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternalistic and closed. The school with an open climate generates a mutual feeling of trust between the principal and his staff, as well as between the teachers and the pupils. In this type of climate, teachers and pupils are usually highly motivated and a healthy morale exists (Basson, et al., 1986:493; Hoy, et al., 1982:189/190). The types can thus be classified as more open or more closed. Open school climates tend to produce open climates for learning (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:60). The principal, as key motivator in his organisation, should do everything possible to create the ideal climate.

3.2.3 The principal's influence on school climate

It would not be wholly exaggerated to suggest that a principal can either make or break a school as regards organisational climate. Indeed, the quality of a school, to all appearances, depends more on the principal than on any other single causational factor in the formula (Rubin, 1970:58). This implies that the principal treat as a top priority the identification of teachers' level of motivation and morale that, taken together, capture the essence of a school climate.

Teachers, like most civil service employees, function in group context.
3.3 GROUPS AND GROUP MORALE

3.3.1 Orientation

Positive group morale is indicative of the ideal situation. Thus although the optimum is to see that the objectives and purposes of the individual, the group and the organisation all coincide, organisations and individuals use groups for different purposes (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:152/153).

3.3.2 Group objectives versus individual objectives

Schools, like most organisations, use groups for the following purposes: For the division of work and to consolidate a set of skills, talents and responsibilities, and allocate to them their specific duties; for the administration and control of work; exchanging of ideas and information, with understanding as the sole objective; initiating ideas for alternative actions to be carried out by individual teachers; recommending a single course of action; to resolve a conflict or difference between teachers, departments, or functions; allow and encourage teachers to get involved in the plans and activities of the school; making a decision that binds all members; to examine the validity of a decision arrived at outside the group, or to assent to such a decision (Handy, 1980:173/174; Webber, Morgan & Browne, 1985:165).

One of the most important basic motivations is social. Therefore, teachers use groups for the following purposes: To fulfil their social needs or needs for affiliation - a feeling of belonging, friendship, or of sharing in something (Exton, 1975:66; Rue & Byars, 1986:407); for cultivating a self-concept - they pursue a vocation by comparing themselves in terms of their rapport with colleagues, i.e. they cast themselves in a role set, with a contributory part
to play in the group; for gaining help and support in executing their specific aims and objectives, which may or may not be compatible with those of the organisation; a way of sharing and assisting in a joint activity or goal, which may be the execution of a task, mere enjoyment, or being instrumental in originating something (Handy, 1980:174/175). According to Handy (1980:194), groups fit well with a democratic school environment, and participation and involvement go well with assumptions of teachers as independent individuals.

There are, however, certain disadvantages, in that groups can be used by organisations to spread and forfeit accountability. The formation of groups is often indicative of recognising problems rather than solving them (Webber, et al., 1985:165). This has definite implications for the concept of morale. Steers, Ungson & Mowday (1985:186) claim that strong individuals can be reduced to impotence by a group or, conversely, may dominate group meetings suppressing individual initiatives. Ineffectual individuals can be bolstered - it all depends on the norms of the group and its collective motivation (morale) and standards.

In the next section morale is given to be a group phenomenon. As indicated, this phenomenon does not, however, require that all individuals share the same needs and objectives. In fact, the perceptive principal will seek to discover and understand the different values as well as the needs that teachers bring to the organisation of which they are a part (Adair, 1983:60). These personal objectives and values are synonymous with an individual's potential job satisfaction (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984:116-121).

3.3.3 Morale and job satisfaction

Robert Hershey (1985:21) defines true group morale as that
state of enthusiasm for a goal that exists when the group members and their leader (or organisational hierarchy) wish to achieve that goal for the same reason. In order to enable teachers to work happily and harmoniously together as a team, it is a prerequisite that the principal be instrumental in building a cordial spirit and an excellent group morale amongst his staff (De Wet, 1981:191).

In contrast to traditional viewpoints by widely acclaimed researchers, such as Rensis Likert, Hershey (1985:2/3) claims that morale cannot be considered an individual phenomenon. The analyses of morale by Hershey and his fellow researchers pertain only to groups and, more specifically, to groups that have a common goal. Morale, in other words, is a degree, or state, of enthusiasm that a group has for its objective(s). Hershey is also of the opinion that, contrary to the traditional viewpoint, morale is not synonymous with job satisfaction. He believes that morale and job satisfaction are separate phenomena and that job satisfaction is an individual phenomenon. There is ample evidence that individuals can behave and feel differently in a group context than they do in a non-group context - without having to cite extreme cases such as the differences exhibited and felt by individuals when they are alone, as compared to when they are in panic situations and riots when such discrepancies are obvious. Emotions, attitudes and behaviour are therefore not static attributes, but are situationally determined and affected by group membership. A group can behave differently than would each individual member of that group when alone. There is such a thing as a group's emotions that is different from the sum of the individual members' emotions, when those members are not in a group situation (Hershey, 1985:20-37).

It is thus important for the Soweto principal, not only to be aware of the needs and objectives of each teacher on his
staff, but also to recognise the individual in group context. He should also be aware of the fact that certain teachers are more impressionable and susceptible to colleagues' influence and external influence, than others. The effect of these extrinsic factors on morale and the direct bearing their influence has on the level of motivation achieved by teachers in secondary schools in Soweto, form the essence of this dissertation.

3.4 SOWETO

2.4.1 Orientation

It is important that Soweto's problems be seen in the broader South African context. South Africa is, in many ways, a microcosm of most of the problems in the rest of the world. The rich-poor phenomenon is much the same as the differences found between the First and Third Worlds. There are ideologies such as communism, capitalism, nationalism and African socialism, various economic systems and a variety of religions. However, one of the greatest world problems reflected in South Africa is the Black urbanisation phenomenon. While the political problems are typically South African, the socio-economic problems are typical of general urbanisation (Marais & Van der Kooy, 1978:10).

The following sections attempt an objective perspective of the phenomenon which is Soweto - the name which exploded into world headlines with rioting, looting, arson and killing on 16 June 1976. On numerous occasions colleagues jokingly coined the phrase "Soweto is a ghetto". It has a good ring about it and journalists, in particular, will often distort the facts for a good story. This term "ghetto" (Johnson & Magubane, 1979:9) refers to a complex of townships south-west of Johannesburg (a name coined from the first two letters of the words South Western Townships) and
is used to convey the impression of forced misery, squalor, deliberate oppression and degradation (Steyn, J., ed., 1977:2). However, Soweto's evils, even to the most subjective spectator, must be attributed largely to over-population. The terms "forced misery" and "degradation" are implicit in Soweto's socio-economic climate and, especially, urbanisation.

3.4.2 Urbanisation and socio-economic status

The universal phenomenon of social stratification also exists in Soweto. Although Soweto has its fair share of sprawling shanty town, most of the houses in poorer areas such as Zondi, Zola and Emdeni – from personal observation – are identical, neat and functional, although uninspiring, lacking in cheer and conveying a general aura of dullness, as David Grinker (1986:39) so aptly puts it: a traditional Soweto "matchbox" house. In Soweto's newer and more affluent areas such as Protea and Dube, houses are more individualistic and luxurious. Soweto also has its sprinkling of millionaires.

It would seem, however, that one of the major frustrations has resulted from the South African government's policy of black urban containment when providing living space for Sowetans. In his dissertation Gideon Mashile tested the hypothesis that there is a dysfunction between the living space provided for urban blacks by the government on the one hand, and the expressed living space aspirations (ideals) of the urban blacks on the other. It was found that Sowetans are dissatisfied with their living space and express aspirations that are in conflict with the urban policy formulated by the government. In the conclusion to Mashile's survey, the hypothesis was confirmed (Mashile, 1981:55-97 & 117-121).
Mashile paints a rather gloomy picture. Looking at the present climate objectively, however, one is brought to the realisation that everything possible is being done by both government and private enterprise. One need merely refer to various media publications such as the unbiased articles on, for example, p. 6 of the Sunday Business Times’s corporate social responsibility survey (August 28, 1988) with sections entitled "How to ensure a fair deal for all", "IBM goes, but the good deeds stay", "Another Tembisa amenity", "Housing they can afford" and, of course, the coverage given to the highly commendable work of the Urban Foundation. From articles such as these, it is clear that housing remains a top priority, second only to education.

However, the quality of life relates not only to physical but also to social needs. According to Pauline Morris (1980:37/38) the following socio-economic indicators reflect the development status of the population and point to the major or root causes of physical and social problems: Income and income related indicators (the wage gap, household subsistence levels, and the number of wage earners per household); unemployment levels; car ownership level; expenditure patterns; level of education; health status; housing occupancy rates and crime rates. However, some of her comments on the socio-economic status of Sowetans (1980:46), although relevant, are now rather outdated, for example, the numerous restrictions and prosecutions in terms of the pass and influx control laws which were, at the time, the cause of great anger and frustration to Sowetans.

The many frustrations caused by over-population, housing shortages, unemployment and the general socio-economic climate must, of necessity, lead to crime.
3.4.3 Crime

Mashile (1981:46) and Venter (1977:77/78) are in agreement that the high incidence of crime in Soweto is largely a reflection of the poor socio-economic status of the community.

There is much statistical evidence on the extent of crime in Soweto and the rest of South Africa prior to the riots and after the apocalypse. During 1960 and 1961 there were 52 504 black prisoners in South African prisons. In 1969 and 1970, regardless of the many laws that were passed increasing the severity of punishment, the black prison population increased to 70 999. This figure, however, is not all that high when compared to the rest of the world. The two and a half thousand prisons in Holland at the time, for example, compared favourably, per capita, with the total South African prison population (Tiley, 1974:51). What does give cause for concern, however, is the number of criminals that are never brought to justice. The following representation by Pauline Morris is more meaningful and the statistics relate to a short time span after the riots, namely July 1978 - June 1979:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of cases reported</th>
<th>Cases brought to trial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>1 180</td>
<td>569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culpable Homicide</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assaults</td>
<td>7 462</td>
<td>3 547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>3 802</td>
<td>1 369</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Chief of Police, Soweto Divisional Headquarters.

Table 3.1 Crime cases reported and brought to trial - Soweto 1978 - 1979 (Morris, 1980:44)
What makes these statistics very depressing and quite frightening is the number of untried cases.

There are also many reasons for victims neglecting to report crime to the authorities. In a study of 13 of the 27 townships (at that time) in Soweto by the Human Sciences Research Council, it was estimated that there were 32 000 unreported cases of robbery, assault, rape or theft between February 1974 and January 1975. Of the 980 crimes committed against 1 528 households (mainly robbery and assault) a little more than a quarter (27.2 %) were reported to the police. The main reason for not reporting crime to the police was that the victim was not convinced that the police would be able to trace the assailant, i.e. 50.9 % of all cases. On closer scrutiny of the figures in Table 3.1, this lack of faith seems to be fully justified. Other major reasons were that they did not consider that the police would take up the reported crime and that they feared reprisals, particularly with the rising incidence of organised crime involving armed gangs. With reference to Table 3.1, and in fairness to the police, it should be pointed out that it is extremely difficult to pinpoint individual culprits. For example, two thirds of crimes reported to researchers were committed by two or more people working together. One often sees the press castigating the authorities for the detention of innocent people, but most reporters are obviously not interested in the true facts. Complicating the already arduous task of the police is the poor street lighting in most of Soweto which renders victims incapable of identifying their assailants. This is relevant because most crime (76.9 % of the total) in Soweto was found to take place in the late afternoon and early evening and mostly on Fridays, when people seem inclined to crowd the streets in excited anticipation of action, and over weekends (Morris, 1980:45; Strijdom & Schurink, 1977:10 & 45/46).
An earlier HSRC finding indicated the fear amongst Sowetans of potential victimisation in acts of crime. For example, more than three-quarters of the respondents indicated that it was more than probable that they would be robbed or assaulted within the next twelve months. A feeling of fear in members of the public can have an adverse effect on their social behaviour and a damaging influence on their perceptions of the community as a whole (Schurink & Strijdom, 1976:6 & 13). This obviously implies an extremely negative effect on teachers' state of morale and level of motivation.

Thugs and hooligans, especially amongst Soweto's teenage school children, have often used politics as a smoke-screen for their heinous actions.

3.4.4 Politics

A study of some of the facts relating to the 1976 riots in Soweto justifies the above statement. For example, vehicles being set alight, beating people to death, arson and buildings being gutted and destroyed to mention but a few incidents, all in the course of one day, June 16th (Commission of Inquiry, 1980:8-11, 13 & 15). Although these crimes were committed under conditions of extraordinary group incitement, they exemplify the fatuity of attributing 'political motive', as most of the victims were black and nothing of an immediate nature was achieved politically, except perhaps for a reaction of shock, disgust and contempt. This is particularly true of the so-called "peoples' courts" and "necklaces".

Notwithstanding the fact that this kind of behaviour has abated considerably, it still exists and incidents cannot be described as 'isolated' but should more accurately be termed 'sporadic'. For example, at a secondary school in Zola, the
The author of this dissertation was an on-the-spot eyewitness to school children stoning a cold-drink truck for no apparent reason; teachers being assaulted and intimidated; slashing the tyres of the school micro-bus and of vehicles belonging to teachers; a combi and a car being badly damaged by a group of school children; stone throwing, mob violence, stabbings, general indiscipline and chaos (also refer *Sunday Times*, August 28, 1988: 22). The school was also badly damaged by arsonists on a night in September 1985 (the author was present at the scene approximately two hours after the school started burning). Because of the brief nature of this dissertation the numerous other incidents at this particular school (many of them occurring in the name of politics) cannot be elaborated on any further. At many other secondary schools in Soweto, various crimes of a more serious nature occurred during the period 1983-1986.

Soweto's volcanic criminality of June 1976 cannot detract from the great influence these riots have had on subsequent political change to date. The only other prior uprising of relevance is that of Sharpeville in 1960, but because of its localised nature and its failure to fan the embers of discontent elsewhere, the 1976 riots in Soweto must be recognised as the first meaningful mass revolt and uprising against the government in which people, mainly youths, took to the streets in massive demonstrations to voice their demand for political and civil justice, and they continued to voice this demand despite the deaths of fellow-uprisers shot by the police (Brewer, 1986:2 & 7). Even at present, the majority of Soweto's youth considers the older generation as "sell-outs" to the government and are extremely irritated by the adults' complaisance.

Although all the causes of the 1976 riots cannot be embarked on in this space, the Black Consciousness movement, which was used by agitators, seems to be fundamental to all the
other causes, such as political and military events in South Africa, the homelands policy, influx control, the administration boards and Urban Bantu Councils (Mandy, 1984:200). According to John Kane-Berman (1978:55) a main cause of the uprisings was apparently the rapidly rising unemployment rate in Soweto.

However, what is certain, is the fact that Soweto's youth were the initiators of the riots. The South African police force is still, to Sowetans, the ultimate symbol of apartheid and the fact that most policemen are Afrikaans-speaking, explains, in large degree, the youths' actions in 1976 (Kane-Berman, 1979:17). The Afrikaans language medium of instruction in secondary schools was, in effect, the excuse used by Soweto's secondary school pupils for starting the riots (Johnson, et al., 1979:61). These pupils, as symbolic of the youths' impulsive desperation and dissatisfaction with the system, can be considered instrumental in the subsequent changes. The Department of Bantu Education (Mandy, 1984:200) has since become the Department of Education and Training, and English is now the official language-medium for teaching all subjects - except, of course, the vernacular (H.S.R.C. Education Research Programme No. 6, 1986: Preface). These are but two of the many token innovations which have evolved concerning their education and that of their peers elsewhere in South Africa. Education in Soweto is, however, still an inferno of dissent.

3.4.5 Education

White South Africans seem often to have strange preconceived ideas about secondary schools in Soweto. Aggravating this perception of the educational climate are journalists (and writers) who sometimes suck information out of the proverbial thumb. Philip J. Lloyd (Sunday Times, 11
September 1988:21) in an article titled *Education crisis: a bitter pill to swallow*, implies that the weak results in Soweto's schools are the consequence of black schools 'inequality' with white schools; to use his words: 'The report card tells no lies!' Perhaps because of sheer ignorance, many (also those with four years personal experience of teaching in Soweto) might fail to see the connection. According to Lloyd, South Africa also has tertiary institutions which are unacceptable to the black community. One wonders if this gentleman has had first hand experience of standards in any of these 'inferior' institutions, for example, the Transvaal College of Education in Soshanguve, Pretoria (where the sophistication of technology and equipment is comparable with the best), the Northern Transvaal Technikon - in the same area (where, at one stage, Marinus Weinbeek, widely recognised in educational circles as something of a genius, was the rector) or, for that matter, Soweto College of Education. In the same breath he admits to the fruitless contributions of taxpayers. This kind of journalism is most relaxing when read for mere entertainment.

In the same article Lloyd makes mention of the fact that oriental economies have taught that skills are needed which can only come from education and also that the government, rather belatedly, saw the solution to the problem: educate more blacks; but it was a vain hope that thousands with skilled manpower potential would clamour at the tertiary gates. Where Lloyd attributes this phenomenon to the *inferiority* of black education, Grinker is of the opinion that because of his reluctance (which would possibly be regarded by some as inherent laziness) to become involved in his own schooling, the Soweto secondary school pupil learns less than he or she should (phrased mildly). These pupils are then incited by agitators to complain about the inferiority of their education by burning down schools. It
is *unjustifiable* to blame the government for the pitiful state of black education (Grinker, 1986:53).

David Grinker, until very recently, worked for many years in Soweto, and is a former Town Secretary of Diepmeadow Town Council. He also states emphatically that he is in no sense an apologist for the government or the authorities. Cultural conditioning, more than genetics (or, for that matter, poverty or politics) is responsible for the relatively small number of black children who ultimately achieve something truly meaningful (1986:1 & 54). With all due respect to Grinker's view, the unsatisfactory command of English in which medium they receive instruction must surely be an important stumbling block in the way of true progress (H.S.R.C. Education Research Programme No. 6, 1986: Preface).

However, Grinker makes his point. In fact, the majority of secondary school pupils in Soweto convey a sense of indifference to going into the outside world in pursuit of a job or career; and the fear of failure with regard to their studies often seems to be non-existent. This phenomenon could be statistically corroborated were an investigation to be undertaken into the number of Std. 10 pupils who wrote final examinations during the past five years. Of particular significance in this regard is the fact that very congenial alternative examination venues were made available outside of Soweto by the D.E.T. in order to counteract threats of intimidation at certain secondary schools. In this context Grinker's claims bring to mind the idea that many people nurtured in the past, namely that lower-class parents do not really have high expectations of their children as concerns their academic achievement. In fact, numerous studies support this argument. However, more recent studies have triggered a debate on the strength of the correlation between social status and educational
aspirations (Webb, 1981:66). From personal experience it can be attested that many Sowetan parents are vehemently concerned with their teenage children's progress or lack thereof. Naturally, their disappointment is great when their children use political involvement and dissatisfaction as an excuse for neglecting their studies.

However, in all fairness to these pupils, the government (even to date) has not made any serious overtures with regard to the idea of schools in a 'common society' in the true sense of that word (Van Rensburg, ed., 1975:7). With reference, once again, to Lloyd's aforementioned article, in which he remarks on the many white schools that are comparatively empty, Cashmere (1987:170) makes a simple, but thought provoking statement: There's a fine line between discrimination and preference. Admittedly, Soweto's secondary schools are overcrowded, but the extreme difficulty the state treasury must experience in keeping up with the rate of procreation is surely an important factor which seems often to be conveniently ignored. Whereas state expenditure on black education was 167,3 million rand in 1971, it was expected to reach about 636 million rand by 1990. Taking into account, too, the rate of inflation, this is no mean figure. Also relevant, is the fact that, whereas the number of black school pupils made up 42% of the population in the age group 7-19 in 1960, the forecast (in 1975) was that this percentage would rise to approximately 97 by 1990 (Van Rensburg, 1975:vii/viii).

The structure, extent and consequences of 'educational inequality' (Bot & Schlemmer, 1986:8) cannot be discussed in the space of this dissertation. However, from personal experience, and by probing the few academic achievers amongst senior pupils concerning the quality of black education, they were unanimous in their opinion: 'Inferior' education is far better than no education at all -
McClelland's idea of achievement motivation (regardless of ... ..) mentioned in Chapter 2.

Of immediate importance is the present climate in Soweto's secondary schools. Mandla Tyala, in an article entitled Black school unrest pushes rebel pupils further into the educational wilderness, infers that the latest cause for dissent, apart from the hackneyed detainee excuse, is pupils' conceived idea that some secondary school inspectors are siding with the authorities and are thus in conflict with pupil demands. Pupils are not partial to inspectors who are escorted by the police. Inspectors were attacked at several schools where the tyres of their official cars were slashed and, in one instance, a car was torched (Sunday Times, 28 August 1988:22). These inspectors must obviously be rather afraid of 'calling a spade a spade'.

In the light of the above comment, the following understated research finding is relevant: Effective management and motivation, in three of Soweto's secondary schools, is complicated by the immense contribution of political interference with education (Shamase, 1986:29 & 37). The value of this finding is enhanced for the author by the fact that he taught at one of these three target schools between 1983-1986 (this particular school in Zola at one stage during this period fell under Mr Shamase's area of inspection). Although topical, a serious omission in his research was the failure to probe the behaviour of more than a thousand school children and influence thereof on both staff management and the less than fifty members of staff (understandable, as inspectors cannot seriously be expected to have an objective view of a school's climate merely from short, sporadic and, in some instances, infrequent visits). Although white teachers are often made to feel unwelcome at black schools (Grinker, 1986:53) and in spite of many teachers exploiting the situation, it would be noted that
this behaviour is displayed for the 'benefit' of all teachers, not only toward the relatively minute proportion of whites.

The lack of motivation by both management and teachers is thus undoubtedly the result of secondary school pupils' numerical superiority with the attendant mass strategy of intimidatory omnipotence, calculated insolence, utter indiscipline, mockery and ridicule, vandalism, insubordination, hostility, aggressiveness, mob puissance, incitement, innate excitability, and often well-camouflaged criminality and moral cowardice. Slogans on walls (e.g. Sunday Times, 28 August 1988:22), broken windows, and the defacement of buildings and equipment, add the finishing touches to the general climate.

Thus, in the final analysis it can be hypothesised that where pupils are unmotivated to learn, teachers are unmotivated to teach and managers unmotivated to manage.

3.5 SUMMARY

The most unbiased spectator can surely see that the decidedly closed secondary school climate in Soweto is saturated with an ambience of defeatism and fear. The managers are as little indifferent as what the teachers are lazy, and to attempt to embark on the key educational objective in this kind of climate is near to impossible.

In view of this climate, obstacles to possible motivation strategies and the concomitant leadership qualities required by the Soweto secondary school principal are discussed in Chapter 4.
CHAPTER 4
LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3 the conclusion was reached that pupil behaviour is the one factor having the most adverse effect on the Soweto secondary school climate. It has also been established thus far that every teacher has different needs and priorities and that individuals, being unique, are motivated by different factors. Conversely, morale is the esprit de corps that is the natural outcome of groups working together. The secondary school climate in Soweto is affected mainly by teachers' level of morale. The implication is that while the principal can by no means ignore teachers' individual needs, his immediate motivation strategy should be to lift this morale. Another reason for this strategy being important is that organisations, such as the secondary school, are synergistic, meaning that the total effect of the school is greater than the sum of its parts. This is what makes a group's efforts toward a goal so effective, and lack thereof so ineffective. In this sense, unity can mean either strength or weakness, in that groups have weaknesses, but teams have strength - teams are synonymous with high morale (Cawood & Gibbon, 1981:102; Sanzotta, 1977:175).

One of the most important factors on which the development of high group morale is dependent, is effective leadership. In fact, the true leader is the principal who is able to build morale (Cawood, et al., 1981:103). The personality of the principal, and the way in which he uses his authority, is the core of any leadership role and relates directly to the success of his motivation strategy (Sanzotta, 1977:
Fortunately, the principal can develop his personality to fit this role.

4.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP QUALITIES FOR MOTIVATION AND MORALE

4.2.1 Orientation

Many people in the past have considered leadership ability to be a quality that someone is born with. In recent years, however, more opinion has swung in favour of the idea that techniques of effective leadership can, in fact, be acquired by practise. Thus leaders can be made (Cawood, et al., 1981:4; Deep, 1978:66). It would seem, however, that certain forms of conventionalism, protocol and idiosyncrasies - especially in schools - have, in some instances, proved to be counter-productive.

4.2.2 Idiosyncrasies of leadership

Appointments to positions of leadership are rarely made on the basis of obvious leadership abilities. In most cases people are promoted to a managerial position because they have indicated that they do well in the position they are to supervise (Portnoy, 1986:3/4). However, research has proved that the best managers are those who have never worked in the position they now supervise (Deep, 1978:66/67). Deep thus affirms the apparent pitfall in the South African situation. According to Ritzer, excellent teachers without leadership potential, are taken out of the classroom and 'promoted' to do more leadership work and less of the work for which they have the most flair and expertise (Shamase, 1986:3).

For most people, leadership ability does not come about spontaneously. The majority of individuals are ill-prepared
to be burdened with the responsibility of leadership (Portnoy, 1986:3). Principals, vice-principals, heads of department, subject heads and group leaders, could all possess adequate managerial skills, but not necessarily the indispensable leadership abilities required for effective management and motivation. People sometimes become managers before they have acquired (or even distinguished) the techniques of leadership as something completely different from managerial tasks and supervisory skills.

4.2.3 The difference between 'managership' and leadership

The principal's position as manager gives him the formal authority to carry out the four basic managerial tasks of planning, organising, co-ordinating (directing) and controlling (Van der Westhuizen, 1986:45). Chung & Megginson (1981:280) term this authority 'managership'. Although 'managership' and leadership are both important instruments of management (Chung, et al., 1981:281), leadership implies managing by influence (Byrt, 1980:47; Cawood, et al., 1981:3; DuBrin, 1984:252; Feldman & Arnold, 1983:290). The greatest problem, it would seem, is that many principals rely more on their authority than on their influence (Schatz & Schatz, 1986:1). Managers, thus, are not always leaders and leaders are not necessarily managers.

The first major difference is that natural leaders have followers (Cawood, et al., 1981:3). Managers supervise subordinates, but if the subordinates do not willingly follow the supervisory authority, these managers cannot be categorised as leaders. Teachers could submit out of apprehension or fear, but such deference is not a response to leadership, and motivation is nil. Alternately, head teachers in a work group are leaders, but they are not managers (Chung, et al., 1981:280/281).
Secondly, leaders are inspiring, convey warmth and empathy, and have emotional appeal. Managers make rational decisions and solve problems. To establish and accomplish educational objectives the managerial process requires that the principal possess analytical talents. On the other hand, a principal with leadership qualities implies that he possesses charisma and vision as well as the ability to both motivate his staff and lift their morale (Chung, et al., 1981:281; Exton, 1975:216/217). Contrary to the 'lonely at the top' myth, effective principals are involved and care deeply about their teachers and will often refer to them as family. Kouzes & Posner agree that leaders have visions and dreams of what could be, but disagree with Chung & Megginson as concerns charisma. They prefer the terms 'energetic' and 'enthusiastic', and argue that a leader's vigour does not come from unique powers, but from a fervent conviction in a purpose and a willingness to voice that belief (Kouzes, et al., 1987:xvi/xvii & 7).

The third major difference is that leaders meet the needs of subordinates and help them to satisfy the needs which they feel. The principal, as both manager and leader, is accountable for the needs of both school and teachers. However, his 'managership' implies more concern with achieving educational goals, while his leadership is more involved in meeting the demands of individual teachers. Principals cannot be effective managers without meeting the school's objectives, and they are not leaders if they are unable to satisfy the needs of the staff. Thus, while managers do not necessarily motivate, leaders do (Byrt, 1980:49; Cawood, et al., 1981:108; Chung, et al., 1981:281).

Many principals are good managers as far as their supervisory and administrative tasks are concerned, but only a few are effective leaders (DuBrin, 1984:253). Having
clarified the major differences between 'managership' and leadership, definitions of leadership should be more intelligible.

4.2.4 Defining the concept

The concept of management was defined in Chapter I. Leadership, however, is the human component that unites teachers and motivates them toward objectives (Davis & Newstrom, 1985:158) or, the principal's personal guidance of teachers toward the realisation of the school's goals (Deep, 1978:65). These definitions imply that no principal can motivate without possessing the necessary leadership qualities as leadership is the total influence the principal has on the teachers and the activities that surround them (Schatz, et al., 1986:3). More specifically, there are certain essential characteristics of effective leadership.

4.2.5 Characteristics of leadership ability

Based on his research studies involving 300 managers from 90 different businesses in the United States, Professor Edwin Ghiselli concluded that the following six traits characterised true leaders: Supervisory ability, intelligence, the need to be a high achiever, self-assurance, high need to self-actualise, and decisiveness (Dessler, 1983:157/158). At surface level at least two of these characteristics indicate the effective manager's identification with the needs of his subordinates. Deep (1978:75-81) adds the following indispensable qualities: empathy, flexibility, objectivity and openness. Although all the qualities of a good leader cannot be discoursed on in this space, many researchers have emphasised the precedence of integrity and honesty, qualities which engender trust (Adair, 1983:11; Kouzes, et al., 1987:17).
In total, the most relevant credentials of an effective leader are those that relate to the creation and maintenance of fruitful interpersonal bonds, not those that involve job expertise (Deep, 1978:67). However, not only does high group morale depend on effective communication, but also on a predominantly democratic leadership style (Cawood, et al., 1981:103).

4.3 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND SITUATIONAL MANAGEMENT

4.3.1 Orientation

The assumptions, thus far, have been that teachers' degree of motivation and level of morale are influenced by both pupils' behaviour and the principal's quality of leadership. It could be argued that the principal should, first and foremost, change the attitudes of the pupils in order to change teacher behaviour. However, it seems far more logical to work through the teachers to try and change pupil attitudes. This implies that the principal's style of leadership is cardinal to his strategy, whatever the situation.

4.3.2 Leadership style

Each principal has his own style. This style is manifested especially in methods of communication, decision making and the motivation of teachers (Byrt, 1980:30). Although some authors distinguish as many as six styles, for example autocratic, bureaucratic, diplomatic, consultative, democratic and free-rein (DuBrin, 1984:262/263), most are in agreement that three basic styles can be identified, namely autocratic (synonymous with bureaucratic as far as the principal of a secondary school is concerned), democratic (participative) and free-rein - also termed laissez-faire. Autocratic leaders - sometimes referred to as authoritarian
centralise power and decision-making in themselves, issue orders and tell subordinates what to do without consulting them. The democratic leader discusses decisions with subordinates and seeks consensus or majority view. Free-rein leadership is useful in situations where a leader can delegate and leave a choice entirely to a group. However, free-rein leaders, as a rule, avoid responsibility, because they give subordinates too much freedom - these leaders usually exercise little authority and influence (Cawood, et al., 1981:59; Davis, et al., 1985:171/172; De Wet, 1981:184/185). Greater clarity is offered by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Authoritarian</th>
<th>Democratic</th>
<th>Laissez-faire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy determination</td>
<td>Solely by leader</td>
<td>By group's decision</td>
<td>No policy - complete freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for group individual decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of job techniques</td>
<td>Solely by leader</td>
<td>Leader suggests group</td>
<td>Up to individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chooses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Solely by leader</td>
<td>Group receives sufficient information to obtain perspective needed to plan</td>
<td>No systematic planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of division of labour and job assignments</td>
<td>Dictated by leader</td>
<td>Left to group decision</td>
<td>Leader uninvolved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Leader personal in praise and criticism</td>
<td>Evaluation against objective standards</td>
<td>No appraisal - spontaneous evaluation by other group members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 4.1 Differences in behaviour of various styles of leaders (Feldman, et al., 1983:298)
Litwin & Stringer indicate important findings on the relationship between leadership style, climate and effectiveness:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th>Climate</th>
<th>Effectiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisation A</td>
<td>Closed</td>
<td>Performance low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(authoritarian)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation B</td>
<td>Warm</td>
<td>Performance low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human relations leadership</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>Satisfaction very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(laissez-faire)</td>
<td>Friendly</td>
<td>Innovation high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation C</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>Performance very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources leadership</td>
<td>Goal-oriented</td>
<td>Satisfaction high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(democratic)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Innovation very high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 4.2 Leadership, climate and effectiveness (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:58)

There is thus a direct relationship between the principal's leadership style, school climate and the effectiveness of leaders. Many authors have also affirmed the strong influence that effective or ineffective leadership has on the quality of the school climate (Johnson, 1970:230-233). Dessler (1983:158) is of the opinion that most experts agree on leadership styles being roughly divided into two, namely a basic 'people' or a basic 'task' style. Some leaders are more prone to one style than another, depending, of course, on whether they adopt the X or Y assumptions of human behaviour (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:76), which were discussed in chapter 2 (a table with more details on X and Y appears on p. 51). Some authors prefer that a manager adopt, what Reddin terms, theory Z assumptions, which lead to a situational leadership style.
4.3.3 Situational management

Reddin (1970:12) is in agreement that leadership behaviour has to do with the two aforementioned elements, namely the task at hand and relationships with people: The principal's leadership style is thus more task oriented (TO) or more relations oriented (RO), or preferably, a combination of both. Whereas many writers (e.g. Cawood et al. 1981:103) prefer that the principal employ a predominantly democratic leadership style (a perfect combination of both), Reddin's 3-D theory emphasises that any one of four basic styles could be effective, depending on the situation. According to Reddin the key to any motivation strategy is 'style flex' and 'situation flex'. He admits that it would be unreasonable to expect principals to change their styles. However, 3-D expects principals to improve their situational sensitivity and to assess a situation for what it contains. By increasing their range of style flex (flexibility), they can respond to the situation appropriately. They should also increase their skill in situational management as a means of changing a situation needing change (Reddin, 1970:12/13 & 185/186).

It has been established that the principal should develop certain basic leadership qualities for his motivation strategies to be effective. However, research has proved that there is no one best type of leader, nor one best way of managing. Being aggressive occasionally can be effective; democratic leadership can work sometimes; autocratic leadership, on occasion, can also be effective. The types of teachers a principal supervises, the obstacles in the way of their work performance, the flexibility of the department's policies, and the group's climate (morale) all influence what leadership style will be effective. Instead of looking for universal truths, principals should attempt to achieve a better balance between their own motivational
strategies and the demands of particular situations (Feldman, et al., 1983:551/552).

On paper, the flexibility of situational management and Byrt's tribute to the advantages of Machiavellianism (1980:89-109) look tremendously impressive, if somewhat vague. However, it also conveys the impression that a principal will have to be a psychologist par excellence, which, he obviously cannot hope to be. Reddin's psychology - also inclined toward the end justifying the means - has perhaps not accounted for the fact that leaders cannot be effective without being human. The principal is neither a socialite nor a sergeant-major and would thus do well to employ a predominantly democratic leadership style (Nel, 1981:151; Nel, 1983:346) or what Sergiovanni, et al., (1983:5) term human resources supervision (also refer Table 4.2) regardless of the situation.

The laissez-faire style, although effective in certain situations, is inclined to conjure up images of the well-known adage 'Familiarity breeds contempt'. At the other pole, the autocratic 'lonely at the top' style can generally be seen to be ineffective. The following research finding supports this statement: Authoritative managers tend to be insecure, have difficulty in social skills, have low self-esteem, and generally desire more autonomy and authority. Participative managers, on the other hand, tend to desire more personal growth, more self-actualisation and therefore identify much more effectively with the needs of subordinates (McDowell, 1972:84). This does not imply that a principal need be mundane and predictable, but his dynamic leadership qualities should suffice in complementing his democratic style. Consistent behaviour will ultimately lead to greater respect and will help his teachers develop a team-spirit instead of a group mentality. As indicated in the previous chapter, members of a group do not necessarily
have common objectives, but teams do (Cawood, et al., 1981:102).

Sergiovanni, et al (1983:176) support the idea that situational management is not the 'alpha' and 'omega' to supervisory practice in education. They cite the following example: Mary, the supervisor, gives an instruction - which could immediately be hung under the authoritarian label - to John and Bill. She is very clear and specific, but rather demanding. John considers her style domineering, aggressive and overbearing. Bill, on the other hand, is impressed by her clear-cut requirements and feels proud to be managed by such an efficient 'no-nonsense' supervisor, who knows exactly what she wants and how to get it. Both teachers were in the same situation, but reacted differently. A more democratic approach by Mary would perhaps have led to John's reaction being more in line with Bill's, even though Bill might have been somewhat less in awe of his supervisor.

In chapter 2, two separate approaches, generally, could be identified in the study of motivation: The principal can thus focus on the teacher and try to assess how this teacher's previous experience and behaviour will influence the teacher's approach to a certain situation (a difficult task, to say the least) or, he can focus on the situation and concern himself with factors external to the teacher that might affect motivation. Behaviour is, characteristically, a product of both sets of causes, but studies have tended to focus on only one aspect, because it is difficult to concentrate on both aspects simultaneously (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986:17). If this is difficult for researchers, how much more so for principals in the practical situation! As McClelland's theory pointed out, in chapter 2, some people have a built-in personality trait (or traits) that is likely to lead them to exhibit a greater or lesser effort. Those members of staff exhibiting lesser
effort can be positively influenced by the rest of their team, and the group becomes a team through effective participative leadership by the principal (Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:58). The effective leader does not adapt his style to the situation. He adapts his strategy or his motivational approach.

4.4 MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

4.4.1 Orientation and classification

The motivational strategy used by the principal defines the manner in which he will attempt to influence teachers. He may choose from among five basic motivational approaches: directiveness, paternalism, compromise, competition, and participation. The competition approach will not be discussed as it does not seem to lend itself to the civil service teaching situation, where promotions are determined more on seniority and qualifications, than on the competitive spirit experienced in the business world. The strategy actually chosen by the principal will depend on factors such as his personality, the confidence he has in his teachers, the nature of the teacher's work environment, and various bureaucratic pressures which arise as a result of rules, regulations and conditions laid down by his superiors. An autocratic or authoritative principal will feel greater comfort with a directive or paternalistic approach, while a more democratic or permissive principal will feel greater comfort with a participative approach. When confidence in the ability and loyalty of teachers is high, participation is a viable choice; otherwise one of the other approaches is more likely to be adopted. The motivational strategy selected by the principal will also depend on the characteristics of the tasks performed by the teachers (the task of a junior teacher, subject heads or heads of department in the school) and the nature of
hierarchical pressures (in this case from the DET) felt by
the principal (Deep 1978:42-54). The principal's
motivational strategy will, to a large degree, depend on his
assumptions of human behaviour.

4.4.2 Theory X and Theory Y

As indicated in chapter 2, Douglas McGregor postulates that
most managers tend to pigeonhole employees into one of two
categories, which he labels Theory X and Theory Y:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- The typical person dislikes work and will avoid it if possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The typical person lacks responsibility, has little ambition, and seeks security above all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Most people must be coerced, controlled, and threatened with punishment to get them to work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Work is as natural as play or rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People are not inherently lazy. They have become that way as a result of experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People have potential. Under proper conditions they learn to accept and seek responsibility. They have imagination, ingenuity, and creativity that can be applied to work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With these assumptions the managerial role is to coerce and control employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Work is as natural as play or rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People are not inherently lazy. They have become that way as a result of experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- People have potential. Under proper conditions they learn to accept and seek responsibility. They have imagination, ingenuity, and creativity that can be applied to work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With these assumptions the managerial role is to develop the potential in employees and help them release that potential toward common objectives.

**TABLE 4.3** McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, alternative assumptions about employees.
(Davis, et al., 1985:169)
Although McGregor's purpose in postulating these two theories was to expose theory X as an outdated management philosophy, these X assumptions are still widely held among managers (Davis, et al., 1985:169/170; Hoy, et al., 1982:172; Sergiovanni, et al., 1983:72). Although many principals may deny that they have this traditional X view of people, their personality and actions strongly suggest that theory X is their typical assumption about teachers (Hoy, et al., 1982:173). In this case, their motivational strategy will usually be directive or authoritative.

4.4.3 Directiveness

Some principal's resort to a display of authority to get things done. Decisions about teachers' work are made by the principal and then announced or dictated to teachers who have little say about the conditions of their work (De Wet, 1981:184; DuBrin, 1984:262; Feldman, et al., 1983:297). The basic motivation here seems to be, for example, teachers' fear that the principal will overlook them in promotional possibilities, load their time-table with less desirable subject or period divisions, report them to higher management in the department, and, in many other ways, generally make life difficult for them (DuBrin, 1984: 52/53). These directive managers frequently, but not always, tend to have rigid authoritarian personalities (Hoy, et al., 1982:173). This motivational approach, in most circumstances, can be seen to be unsuccessful (De Wet, 1981:184). However, the principal is often forced to act directly, as some teachers obviously warrant theory X assumptions. For example, many Sowetan teachers who are always late for school, late for classes, or late for meetings. A black principal will possibly act upon different assumptions because his cultural background makes it easier for him to identify with his subordinates'
inattention to punctuality. His strategy will thus be more compromising.

Often principals, because of pressures from their superiors, have no alternative but to act directly, for example, the D.E.T. may shift their deadline for examination results to an earlier date, or perhaps announce a sudden school inspection for certain subjects. The examples are numerous. Adding the rigid bureaucratic nature of the D.E.T., as well as all other education departments, most principals have little choice as to their motivational approach. Consequently they act directly. As Sergiovanni, et al. (1983:72) so aptly put it: Both leadership and subordinate behaviour in schools stemming from Theory X, is based on erroneous ideas of what is cause and what is effect.

There can be very little doubt, therefore, that as a result of the education system and its philosophy, policies and practice, the principal usually survives by following a rigidly autocratic and directive approach. His leadership style and motivational approach are, to all intents and purposes, prescribed by his superiors in the bureaucratic hierarchy of his specific education department. Fortunately, paternalism can to a certain extent disguise the shortcomings of the autocratic principal and the bureaucratic system.

4.4.4 Paternalism

While directiveness assumes that employees will have their important needs satisfied outside the school, paternalism emphasises satisfaction that is not associated with the teacher's career in the actual work situation. Here promotions based on seniority and fringe benefits such as housing subsidies, medical aid, pension schemes, relocation expenses, vacation, long leave, sick leave, bursaries and
other benefits immediately spring to mind. The D.E.T. thus assumes that if, in this manner, you can make teachers happy to be members of the organisation or school, they will work harder as a result - Hertzberg's hygiene factors (Lawler, 1973:198/199).

As far as the principal's paternalistic strategy is concerned, it can be characterised as a form of benign directiveness, that is, the idea of keeping teachers happy with benevolent practices external to their actual jobs (Davis, et al., 1985:171). Examples are gifts to teachers on special occasions, "braaivleis", staff parties and gatherings, and in general, the promotion of the concept of 'one big happy family'. Paternalism is thus like directiveness in that people are assumed to fit the description in Theory X. It is assumed that they will find the work detestable unless it can somehow be made more palatable. There is almost a fatherly treatment of teachers. Hence the term paternalism (Deep, 1978:41 & 49). The following comparative strategy is also based on Theory X assumptions.

4.4.5 Compromise

Compromise is a motivational approach based on give-and-take between principal and subordinate. The principal employing this strategy will be ignoring higher-growth needs as possible motivating factors. Like paternalism, it is merely a means of avoiding cause for teacher discontent (Deep, 1978:50). In the Soweto secondary school, for example, the principal could relax rules in certain situations in order to get at least 'window-dressed' normality for the sake of appearances. There might be a mass strategy by pupils who refuse to enter classrooms (Shamase, 1986:1), or a mass stay-away by pupils, which has been a frequent phenomenon in Soweto in the past few years. Three pupils, out of a class
of fifty, refuse to be intimidated and attend school. D.E.T. regulations specify that they have the right to be tutored, when in some instances, many of them merely loiter around toilets and stroll along corridors, shouting at each other hysterically as if fifty metres apart. The principal has to adhere to D.E.T. regulations and he has to take his teachers into consideration. His strategy will be to order all teachers to their classrooms, regardless of the fact that some classrooms have no pupils. He is keeping the D.E.T. 'happy' but not the teachers. To keep the teachers 'happy', he allows them to go home at 13h00 for the rest of the week, because they have physically attended classrooms that have no pupils to teach. By allowing teachers to go home earlier than usual, he is breaking D.E.T. rules.

Regardless of the fact that he is only partially satisfying both D.E.T. rules and the teaching corps, there is no question of motivation at any level of teacher needs. Esteem and self-actualisation cannot even begin to enter the principal's thoughts. His options either way are equally unacceptable, thus proving the hypothesis formulated in chapter 3 concerning pupils' effect on morale and motivation (also compare Shamase, 1986:1). Once again, cause and effect cannot be proved beyond all doubt. Adding to this dilemma, both teachers and principals must live with the possibility of a 'breach of contract' (Deep, 1978:50). Situations such as these do not, however, detract from the importance of the principal's attempting a democratic strategy whenever humanly possible.

4.4.6 Participation

Participation by the principal is the desired strategy in that this approach is based on teacher involvement in making decisions concerning their work (Davis, et al., 1985:187-196; Feldman, et al., 1983:297). Motivation
through participation facilitates teachers being able to satisfy their higher order needs as depicted in Maslow's hierarchy, particularly their needs for esteem and self-actualisation (Deep, 1978:52). However, there are certain conditions under which participative motivation cannot work:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation is indicated</th>
<th>Participation is contra-indicated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Workers</em> find job satisfaction important</td>
<td><em>Workers</em> have their important needs satisfied off the job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The <em>job</em> demands creativity and commitment</td>
<td>The <em>job</em> is boring and devoid of fulfilment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The <em>leader</em> believes in Theory <em>Y</em></td>
<td>The <em>leader</em> believes in Theory <em>X</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Organisation</em> goals are clear and widely accepted by employees</td>
<td><em>Organisation</em> goals are vague and not generally adopted by employees</td>
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</table>

Table 4.4 Participation (Deep, 1978:53)

When analysing the above conditions as they apply to the teaching situation in Soweto's secondary schools, the following conclusions can be drawn: Soweto's teachers have their important needs satisfied off the job. As was established in chapter 3, pupils concern themselves more with matters pertaining to their own education, and much less with their own academic advancement. Pupils' general indifference to their schoolwork and blatant indiscipline (Shamase, 1986:1) cannot lead to on-the-job career satisfaction by teachers. Teachers thus have little option but to satisfy their more important needs extramurally.

Secondly, as a result of this phenomenon, their job isn't boring, per se, but frustrating, and therefore devoid of fulfilment.
Thirdly, the principal does not necessarily believe in Theory X, but D.E.T. pressure leaves him with little alternative but to adhere to a motivational strategy based on Theory X assumptions.

Finally, because of the D.E.T.'s persevering commitment to have pupils pass their examinations by any available means, the teachers must inevitably associate educational objectives with vagueness, farce and absurdity. When compared with secondary schools exclusively for whites, there seems - for most part - to be "equality" (parity) of education insofar as the D.E.T. curriculum and syllabus for the various subjects is concerned. The prescribed standard of education in Soweto's secondary schools is thus on a par with schools elsewhere. For example, standard ten pupils, one suasses, are required to study works by William Shakespeare with the same dedication as pupils in Afrikaans-medium schools, who also have English as a second-language subject. Standards are definitely acceptable, but Soweto pupils - as indicated - are completely unwilling to dedicate the same attention to their studies as the zeal and enthusiasm which they display for other non-academic activities.

The consequences of this phenomenon are, for example, the following occurrence: Six standard seven classes obtain an average mark of 28 % for their overall year-end English results after the teacher did everything in his power to enable them to pass (short of giving them the easy examination paper before the relevant final examination) and after marking the final papers extremely leniently. Having scanned the mark-schedules, the principal concludes that, apart from the political unrest, the teacher is partially to blame for the weak results, as the D.E.T. requirements specify that the pupil must obtain 34 % to pass English in standard 7. Therefore, the English teacher is instructed to
adjust his already lenient marks upwards by 6 % for each pupil who wrote English in standard 7 during the final examinations. This instruction is carried out - to the letter - by the teacher. After these upward adjustments have been made by the teacher, the principal adjusts the marks of the new "borderline" cases upwards - after all, the principal's reputation is also at stake. The school inspector then makes his own upward adjustments to the principal's final mark schedule, deciding on "brand" new borderline cases - this is perhaps a new variation to the so-called "rising line of achievement". The outcome is that more than fifty percent of pupils in standard 7, who should have failed English, are now sanctioned as fully prepared to cope with standard 8 English (adding calamity to this dilemma is the fact that these pupils have to study all their other subjects in English and have to write their examinations in English, except, of course, their vernacular). As a result, many pupils reach standard 10, and great is their frustration when many of them cannot pass standard 10 (Shamase, 1986:2/3).

Possibly this kind of practice could make educational objectives somewhat vague for most of Soweto's secondary school teachers, particularly those who would like to be proud of their profession. A participative motivational approach is rather difficult for the principal in this situation. From one side, pupils (many of whom have been in a standard on the junior secondary level for a few years) chant "pass one, pass all", and from the other side, the D.E.T. (admittedly in a remarkably subtle way) often succumbs to the chant. In situations such as these, teachers cannot be motivated in the true sense of the word. Money is obviously no motivator for those in the teaching profession. Therefore, it could be assumed that job-satisfaction has to be on a higher level than in many other professions.
Having considered the principal's many obstacles as regards viable motivational strategies in a Soweto secondary school, it is apparent that his greatest challenge is that of being able to lift his teachers' morale, as the possibility of career satisfaction, in Soweto, is null and void. The Soweto principal's leadership style and involvement approach concerning his staff and their needs, is the one and only overriding factor in attempting to lift their morale. This is the underlying theme of the summary which follows.

4.5 SUMMARY

Earlier in this chapter it was postulated that, ideally, the democratic leadership style was to be striven for in most situations and that the strategy employed by the principal preferably be participative. However, the reality of the Soweto situation was shown to lend itself in many instances to an autocratic style and a directive or compromising strategy. When pressures develop and conflicts arise, even the most stable of principals is challenged to remain level headed. Motivational strategies that are embarked upon to preserve personal pride or from spite or vengeance could prove disastrous to the long-term welfare of the school. The cardinal leadership characteristics for the principal who wants to achieve any level of success in motivating the staff in a Soweto secondary school with its vicious circle of cause and effect, will thus have to be perceptiveness, rational thinking and, above all, emotional stability.

Chapter 5 concludes this study with suggestions for possible improvement of the Soweto secondary school situation.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

Not only is the secondary school the institution of which the principal is manager, but more important, it is the institutional establishment which has as its long-term objective the tuition, education and forming of each and every adolescent member of the community in its care. The quality of human actions in an organisation such as the secondary school is largely determined by the climate at the basis of these actions. By studying their own school climates, principals will learn to appreciate the subtle causal relationships between their own managerial behaviour and the motivated behaviour of their teachers. The ideal situation is an open school climate which generates a mutual feeling of trust between principal, staff and pupils, and where all concerned are usually highly motivated and a healthy morale prevails. In fact, the main objective of this dissertation has been to show that effective motivation cannot precede the establishment of a sound school climate and positive morale amongst the staff.

Soweto's diverse problems influence teacher morale and motivation as they do the level of pupils' commitment to their studies. However, the characteristic lack of motivation of Soweto's secondary school teachers was postulated as being mainly the result of pupils' blatant indiscipline as well as their general inattention and indifference to their own schooling and academic advancement. If D.E.T. policy is added to this already highly unsatisfactory situation, the principal, who may otherwise have many viable motivation strategies, finds himself in a blind alley. To achieve any measure of success
in this situation requires exceptional leadership capabilities.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

In a limited literary study of this nature objectivity, although earnestly to be desired, can rarely be achieved. Research questionnaires might possibly have given teachers the long-awaited opportunity to voice their often justifiable grievances and complaints against staff management in some of Soweto's secondary schools, and might have explained, in part, their lack of motivation. This is, however, by no means conclusive. By way of substantiation the following observations regarding the Shamase (1986) findings may be relevant: His conclusions were based, to a large extent, on the Standard 10 pass rate for 1983-1984 in three of Soweto's secondary schools. One of these target schools did not have Standard 10 pupils in 1984 and was at this stage a junior secondary school. It had its very first batch of standard 10's in 1986. Enigmatic too is that this particular school (and this is verifiable, as is the above statement) did extremely well in an inspection report prior to its principal's departure at the end of 1988. Inaccurate reporting by journalists and misrepresentations of this nature are hardly conducive to a healthy school climate. Soweto secondary school teachers' lack of motivation is the result of negative pupil behaviour. Although some teachers admittedly exploit the situation, their general reluctance, lethargy and discontent is related more to pupil unrest than to weak staff management. No person can be properly motivated when working under unhygienic, unsafe and disharmonious conditions. Rather than channel their expertise into the calamity which is the Soweto secondary school system, certain senior D.E.T. officials, if media reports are to be believed, have of late taken to using their influence to benefit friends and family. Corruption
at any level can only have a debilitating effect and lead to teacher contempt and insubordination. Above all, however, it is a definite demotivating factor. Where teachers are exposed daily to various forms of antisocial pupil behaviour, and sometimes to intolerable levels of frustration, phenomena such as that which has become known as the 'golden handshake' could cause cynicism and indifference and have disastrous effects on teacher morale.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

* Remedy the actual dilemma and only then can attention be given to aspects such as staff-development, in-service-training, management courses and the so-called "topdowns", because in the secondary school climate in Soweto these concerns are of lesser importance and above all teachers' motivation is nil.

* The problem that should be addressed is that of the chaotic conditions which affect teacher morale and which are the direct result of pupil behaviour – minority groups that use any puerile excuse to disrupt the normal course of academic activities.

* With the latest state of emergency, soldiers patrolled the streets in conspicuous vehicles and arrived at Soweto's secondary schools after the damage had been done. When schools are burnt down or irreparably damaged and defaced, the overburdened taxpayer has to foot the bill, but worse still, those pupils who really want to learn are placed at a tremendous disadvantage. Surely many unemployed could, on a highly selective basis, be trained as additional municipal policeman who could patrol Soweto's secondary school premises in three shifts on a 24 hour basis. There will always be the trouble-makers, inciters and intimidators. A full-scale
clampdown on these disruptive elements will conceivably be more productive than having constantly to rebuild, rewire and repair schools.

* Another option would be to open all schools to all races. This could quite possibly lead to even greater anarchy than would a reinforced state of emergency.

* In some independent territories where appropriate action is taken in dealing with negative elements in secondary schools, unrest-related incidents seem to be minimal and teacher motivation at a much higher level. Ideally thus, Soweto should govern and be responsible for its own education in every possible way, because even though the present standard of requirements is adequate and parity exists, the government and D.E.T. are still shunned and categorised as the 'system'. Many bureaucratic procedures lead to taxes being ill-spent on financing a system on which there is little or no return and for which the government receives perpetual criticism both locally and abroad.

* To alleviate the excessive tax burden and to aid in the implementation of the new trend toward privatisation and deregulation, a statute might be promulgated requiring greater financial commitment of all parents of all race groups and sectors of the population to the education of their children. Parents might thus be moved to exercise much needed control over their recalcitrant offspring.

* The private sector might be made to pay substantial levies toward education rather than being allowed to seek (often lucrative) tax-loopholes for profit. The business community would thus also have a greater say in the
prescribed curricula and be able to add their own specific requirements for the general standard of education.

* Schools that come closest to meeting specific government requirements, guidelines, policy and basic standards, could be rewarded by means of more generous government subsidies than those schools who do not.

The enactment of some of these recommendations where secondary schools would, in effect, operate on a business basis and the idea of parent involvement would be realised in the fullest sense of the word, could contribute to a more motivated teaching staff, with teachers being remunerated entirely on merit, level of dedication and professional expertise.

5.4 CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The foregoing chapters and above suggestions are incomplete, speculative and subjective. To many they may seem negative, idealistic, unfounded and controversial. The intention of this short dissertation has not been to offend but rather to stimulate thought on the Soweto phenomenon and perhaps encourage truly significant empirical research on the subject of teacher motivation.

In all spheres of life there can be little motivation where people are not moved to constructive activity by challenging obstacles in order to achieve meaningful objectives.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


