

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON THE PERFORMANCE OF GHANA ARMED
FORCES SCHOOLS AND SELECTED PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE SEKONDI
TAKORADI METROPOLIS**

Thomas Kwesi Vormawah

2009

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BY

Thomas Kwesi Vormawah

2009

DECLARATION

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Thomas Kwesi Vormawah

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Frimpong Siaw

ABSTRACT

The study sought to assess the effect of motivation on the performance of Ghana Armed Forces schools and selected public schools in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis. Four research questions were posed to guide the study. The descriptive survey design was used. All basic schools in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis constituted the accessible population. However, only six public schools and six armed forces schools were involved in the study. A total of 177 respondents, comprising 12 head teachers and 165 teachers were randomly and purposively selected.

In order to gather relevant data for the study, two sets of likert-type scale questionnaire were designed for head teachers and teachers. Data gathered were analysed using frequencies, percentages and means. The independent samples t-test was also employed to test the differences between the reactions of respondents to the various motivation variables at a p-value of .05.

Some of the major findings were that the school environment in public schools encouraged performance of staff than what exists in the armed forces schools; the staffs of armed forces schools were more rewarded than their counterparts in the public school. It was recommended that schools must provide a lot of resources for teaching and learning both inside and outside the classroom to create a conducive and an enabling environment for teaching and learning; heads of institutions should be more democratic and also vary leadership style to suit a particular situation this will largely determine the kind of interrelationship that will exist between and among teachers, head, students and non teaching staff.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I owe a depth of gratitude to many a man who in varying ways lent support, just to ensure that this venture succeeds. It is in this respect that there is the need to make special mention of my supervisor, Mr. Frimpong Siaw, who inspite of his heavy schedule went through the work meticulously and made useful suggestions. I also want to recognize the support and encouragement of my wife, Jennifer and lovely kids who were denied attention to enable me complete the work on schedule. To all friends who made inputs in various ways, I wish to register my sincerest appreciation.

DEDICATION

To my wife, Jennifer and children, Juliana and Joseph.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Education is considered as a single most crucial driving force in the development of every country. Infact, it is the wheel that carries the development of any nation. It therefore implies that no nation can move beyond the level of her education. This thus suggests that there is a correlation between a nation's level of development and her level or standard of education. In the centre of this interplay is the teacher whose effort determines how far a nation's development can go since it is the teacher who provides this education to citizens to bring the desired development. This suggests that teaching can be described as an indispensable profession for development because all other professions will depend on it for acquisition of its expertise. Therefore, if any nation lacks quality teachers to train the needed manpower, its developmental effort will be slackened.

The need for quality teachers should be of paramount importance to a country if she really wants to develop because educated citizens can contribute more meaningfully to socio-economic development of a country than an illiterate population. For this reason, any nation that does not recognize the importance of teachers in its development effort is likely to fail, as the training of manpower will be undermined. The necessity for every country to resource the teacher in the classroom is perfectly captured by Dr. Martin W. Gould, Principal of Maynard

Elementary School in U.S.A as he said, the teacher in the classroom who is supposed to impart knowledge to generate the needed human resources or manpower for national development needs to be give all that it takes to give him or her job satisfaction so that he or she can perform his or her duty efficiently and effectively.

In Ghana, the need for teachers to be motivated to enable them perform better has been hammered by Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT), parents, some government officials, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) and all other concerned bodies because they all believe that, if teachers are adequately resourced they are likely to experience the joy of teaching and will be in a position to offer better and quality services to the students they handle. It behoves all stakeholders to know that for teachers to give off their best in the training of quality human resources, they should be motivated enough for them to be able to deliver since it is widely known that if one is motivated one becomes more committed and dedicated to work. This fact is supported by Vroom (1964) as he wrote in his book 'Work and Motivation' that 'satisfied employees tend to be more committed to their organizations and are likely to be very loyal and dependable.

Giving recognition to the work of the teacher should also be the concern of all so compliments like 'well done', 'good job done', 'may God bless you' and other words of encouragement should be showered on the teacher from time to time. This is admitted by Mussazi (1982) as he argues that, if a principal or head

of a school, parents of students and the society in general appreciate a teacher's performance saying 'you are doing a very good job or thank you', alone makes the teacher feel that his contribution is valued and therefore, is encouraged to do even more because of the satisfaction derived from the recognition. Anything short of this will make the teacher feel discouraged and will likely behave in a way that can undermine the institution and the nation by being prone to absenteeism, strikes, industrial accidents, grievances, sabotage and possibly, low performance.

The need to motivate teachers cannot be overemphasized when the contributions of teachers to the socio-economic development of the country is considered. So, there is the need for teachers to be properly equipped and motivated to provide human resource that are capable of adapting to technological advancement of the 21st Century and beyond. Consequently, there is the urgent need to tackle the social, economic, psychological and physiological needs of teachers by all stakeholders – the Government, Ghana Education service, Old students, Parent Teacher Associations, the religious bodies, philanthropists and all those who hold education in high esteem.

Statement of the Problem

A large part of an employer's task is getting things done through employees; He must therefore try to understand employees' motivation to be able to provide their needs to achieve targeted organizational goals. It is sometimes difficult for employers to identify the things that induce workers to put up their best. This is because workers at the various levels in the organization have

different needs and unless the right needs are identified, all efforts and methods employed aimed at motivating employees will not yield any positive results.

It is noted that inspite of the numerous efforts of the Government of Ghana in the provision of sound education, especially at the basic level, the performance of public schools have not been encouraging. However, it appears the performance of Armed Forces Schools has been encouraging. The BECE results of the schools in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis indicate that the performance of twelve (12) Armed Forces Schools(AFS) has been above 70% since 2003 (Sekondi/ Takoradi Education Directorate, 2008). Though, these schools were established by the Ghana Armed Forces to cater for the educational needs of the wards of her staff, the schools are opened to the public. It is therefore important to find out what motivations exist in the AFSs and other public schools and to assess their effects.

Purpose of the Study

The thrust of the study was to assess the effect of motivation on performance of teacher in Armed Forces Schools and other public schools in the Sekondi/ Takoradi Metropolis. Specifically, it is aimed at finding out;

1. How the school environment motivate teachers.
2. The extent to which school leadership affects teachers' performance.
3. The types of rewards provided to motivate teachers.
4. How the inter personal relationship among teachers affect performance.

Research Questions

The following research questions were be posed to guide the study:

1. How does the school environment motivate teachers?
2. To what extent does school leadership influence teachers' performance?
3. What rewards are provided to motivate teachers?
4. How does inter personal relationship among teachers affect performance?

Significance of the Study

Generally, the study has revealed insights on the forms of motivation provided and how they affect teachers' performance. Specifically, the investigation provided useful information on how the school environment motivates teachers. This will help headmasters create a conducive and an enabling environment for teaching and learning.

Again, it brought to light the various kinds and forms of reward provided to motivate teachers. This will make education authorities aware of appropriate rewards systems to put in place to enable teachers perform. The study further unearthed the opportunities available for teachers' development. The education directorate will be placed in a better position to revise structures that are already in place as per teachers' reaction to them to enable teachers improve themselves and become abreast of the current trends in their respective subject areas.

The study also brought to the fore the effect of the interrelationship among teachers and other stakeholders and how it affects teachers performance. This will help put in place the necessary structures to help foster a healthy relationship among all players that has a positive implication for performance.

Delimitation of the Study

The study only aimed at assessing the effect of motivation on the performance of teachers in the Armed Forces Schools and some selected public schools in the Sekondi/ Takoradi Metropolis. It was therefore not in any way geared towards assessing the performance of the schools. The study was limited to only the headmasters and teachers of 12 selected schools comprising six Armed Forces Schools and six public schools in the Sekondi/ Takoradi Metropolis.

Organization of the Dissertation

The first chapter of the work provides a background of the study. The statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and the hypothesis that directed the study are also stated. The chapter also looks at the significance of the study, delimitations and the definition of terms.

Chapter two covers the review of related literature on issues such as The concept “Motivation”, theories of Motivation, the school or work environment and motivation, Leadership and performance and reward and performance. The review will involve both theoretical and empirical studies. Chapter three deals

with the research design, techniques and procedures employed in the study. It further examines population, sample and sampling procedure, the instrument for data collection, administration of instrument and procedures used for analyzing data collected.

Chapter four is devoted to the presentation and discussion of findings of the study while the last chapter looks at the results of the study, summarizes and draws conclusions. Recommendations have also been made based on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview

This review of literature involves the systematic identifications, location and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem. It will make the researcher aware of contributions of other researches that have been done and needs to be done in the area under investigation. In this chapter, therefore, attempts will be made to examine related literature on theories and the effect of motivation on employees. The following themes were used in the design of the review.

1. The concept “Motivation”
2. Theories of Motivation
3. The school or work environment and motivation.
4. Leadership and performance
5. Reward and Performance.

The concept of Motivation

A large part of a manager's task is getting things done through employees. However, it is sometimes difficult for managers to identify the real things that induce workers to put up their best in order to achieve targeted organizational goals. This is because workers at the various levels in the organization have different needs and unless the right needs are identified, all efforts and methods employed aimed at motivating employees will not yield any positive results.

Motivation is derived from the Latin word "movere", meaning "to move". In contemporary usage, a definition of motivation which simply means, "to move" would however be considered too narrow and inadequate. Motivation simply explains why people do the things they do. This evokes the question 'why do people do what they do?'. To Bateman and Snell (2007) motivation is the forces that energize, direct and sustain people's efforts. Hoy and Miskel (1987) consider motivation as the complex drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity, directed toward the achievement of personal goals. Similarly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) explain motivation as those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal-directed. In Mankoe's (2007) opinion motivation is the process of moving oneself and others to work towards the attainment of individual and organization objectives. A careful gleaning of the foregoing reveal some common threads that run through any effort made with the intention to motivate: it must create energy, drive, stimulate, excite, arouse and activate. It involves certain forces acting on or within a person to initiate and

direct behaviour; it involves guiding, directing or channeling the energies created towards the achievement of targeted organizational goals.

From a review of motivation theory, Mitchell (1982) identifies four common descriptors of motivation:

- Motivation is typified as an individual phenomenon
- Motivation is described, usually, as intentional
- Motivation is multifaceted
- The purpose of motivational theories is to predict behaviour.

Based on these descriptors, Mitchell (1982) as cited in Mullins (2006) defines motivation as the degree to which an individual wants to choose to engage in certain specified behaviours. Also, Steers and Porters (1983) identified three major components of motivation as:

- (1) *The Engineering component* – the force or drive present in an organism which pre-emit the behaviour.
- (2) *The Direction component* – the drive that guides the behaviour in a particular direction.
- (3) *The Maintenance component* – what sustains the behaviour once it has occurred and crucial to work environment.

Motivation involves purposive and designated-goal-directed behaviour. Often, motivation is equated with needs, wants, desires, wishes, aspirations, values, interests and attitudes which activate or arouse an organism and direct the organism's behaviour towards attainment of some goals. It can not be measured directly but inferred from behaviour and even attitudes.

A simple model of human motivation is illustrated below.

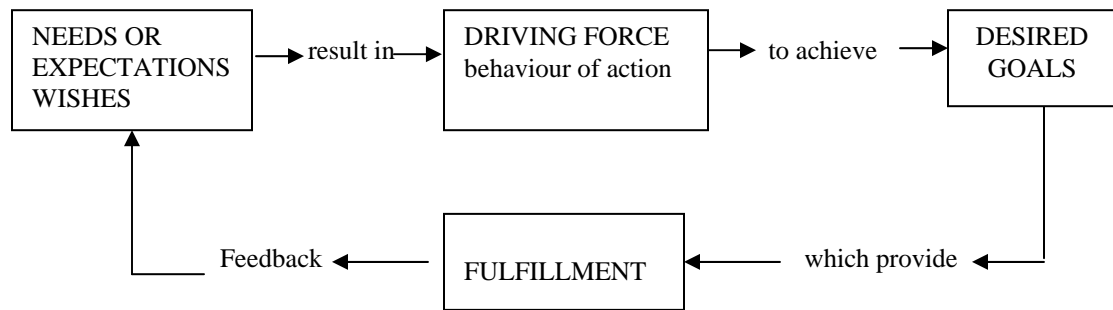


Fig. 1. A simplified model of human motivation

Types of Motivation

There are two types of motivation: Intrinsic and Extrinsic (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). Intrinsic or internal motivation consists of those needs, wants, and desires etc. which exist within the individual. Intrinsic motivation therefore, stems from natural, innate or inherent motives. To Mullins (2006) intrinsic motivation is related to ‘psychological’ rewards such as opportunity to use one’s ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition, and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. Intrinsic motivation is self-driven and has the advantage of fostering greater independence and initiative in action. Intrinsic motivation is the desire of workers to perform activities because they are rewarding themselves. The worker who is intrinsically motivated will work on his own with little or no supervision.

Extrinsic or external motivation stems from outside stimulation and events. It is related to ‘tangible’ rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, security, promotion, contract service, work environment and conditions of work. Extrinsic motivation uses techniques that have artificial connection (Deci, 1998). These are

often determined at the organizational level. A worker who is extrinsically motivated will work as a means to obtain tangible rewards or avoid punishment.

Foundations of Motivation

A manager's assumptions about employee motivation and application of rewards are premised on his or her perspective on motivation. Daft (2003) outlines four perspectives on employee motivation as they have evolved as: the traditional approach, the human relations approach, the human resource approach and the contemporary approach.

Traditional Approach

This approach emanated with Frederick W. Taylor's work and scientific management where there was the systematic analysis of an employee's job for purposes of increasing efficiency. Economic rewards are then provided for high performance based on the notion of the economic man. This led to the development of incentive pay systems based on quantity and quality of work output.

The Human Relations Approach

The human approach to motivation replaced the economic man concept of motivation. It began with the landmark Hawthorne studies at a Western Electric plant where non-economic rewards, such as congenial work groups who met social needs were seemingly important than money as a motivator of work behaviour. To Daft (2003), for the first time, workers were studied as people, and the concept of social man was birthed.

The Human Resource Approach

The human resource approach carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the whole person. Human resource theory suggests that employees are complex and motivated by varied factors. For example, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y argue that people want to do a good job and that work is natural and healthy as play. Proponents of the human resource approach conceived that earlier motivation approaches manipulated employees through economic or social rewards, and this laid the basis for contemporary perspectives on motivation.

The Contemporary Approach

The contemporary approach to motivation is dominated by three theories. These theories provide divergent explanations of motivation and how people are motivated. The three main motivational theories are: *Content theories*, *Process theories* and *Reinforcement theories*.

Content theories of motivation emphasize the inner needs that motivate behaviour. They stress the analysis of underlying human needs by providing insight to those needs and how such needs can be satisfied in an organization. For example individuals are motivated by many needs and wants which they seek after. Content theories of motivation include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory, Herzberg's Two-factor Theory and David McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory.

Process theories of motivation conversely examine the way in which the outcomes of certain events become attractive to people and therefore, motivate those people to pursue them. The theories explain how workers select behavioural

actions to meet their needs and determine whether their choices were successful. Process theories place emphasis on the actual process of motivation. There are two basic process theories: equity theory and expectancy theory.

Reinforcement theories simply consider the relationship between behaviour and its consequences. The theory focuses on modifying employees' on-the-job behaviour through appropriate use of immediate rewards and punishments. Reinforcement theories adopt behaviour modification which describes the name given to the set of techniques used to modify human behaviour. The basic proposition underlying behaviour modification is the law of effect, which states that behaviour that is positively reinforced tends to be repeated, and behaviour *vice versa*. Reinforcement theories make use of four reinforcement tools namely: positive reinforcement, avoidance learning, punishment and extinction as well as schedule of reinforcement.

Theories of Motivation

Many a theory have been propounded and postulated by authorities in motivation. These theories reveal the principles and assumption underlying such prepositions.

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory is the most famous content theory and is based on the proposition that humans are motivated by a variety of needs. It identifies five basic needs, which are organized into successive levels of importance or hierarchy as shown below, in an order of ascendance. These are: (i)

psychological (ii) safety (iii) social (iv) esteem and (v) self-actualization. Needs are physiological or psychological deficiencies that arouse behaviour.

Maslow's theory suggests a pre-potency of these needs; that is, some needs are assumed to be more important (potent) than others and must be satisfied before the other needs can serve as motivators. Thus, for instance, the physiological needs must be satisfied before the safety needs are activated, and the safety needs must be satisfied before the social needs are activated, and so on.

Survival needs: They are considered the most basic human physical needs for survival. These include food, air, water, sexual satisfaction, shelter and sleep. Individuals try to satisfy these needs before turning to needs at the safety level. In the school setting, these are reflected in the needs for adequate air, and basic salary to ensure survival.

Safety (or security) Needs: These are needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment and freedom devoid of threats. When a person's survival needs are fulfilled he is basically satisfied. He then longs for safety or security. The individual wants more assurance of job security and protection from physical danger; threat, deprivation, economic disaster and unexpected events. The individual is concerned about the future. In the school setting, such needs are catered by fringe benefits and other enticing incentives.

Social needs: Also called belonging needs. These consist of a sense of belonging and a need for affiliation. Social needs are termed by some writers as "I love needs" and involve the need to feel needed and the need for effective belongingness, association, love, friendship, interaction and acceptance in

relationship with the people. Mostly, people want to be accepted by others and have their approval. For example, in school setting such needs influence the desire for good relationships with colleagues, participation in group work and a positive relationship with the principal, head or superiors.

Esteem needs: These are known as ego needs. They are two fold in nature: (i) a mode to feel important and (ii) receive recognition from others. These include one's self esteem need competence, knowledge, self confidence or independence. The needs also relate to one's reputation – the needs for status, recognition, independence, appreciation, for the deserved respect of one's fellow. Esteem needs set in, when social needs are satisfied. For example, a teacher must obtain recognition for work done or seek love and respect from others. When esteem needs are fulfilled individuals have self-confidence, power, prestige and control.

Self-Actualization: This is the highest need level and denotes the need for self-fulfillment. People, who have satisfied others needs, now feel to acquire competence in their professions. They desire to become everything one is capable of becoming. Self-Actualization involves the need to maximize one's competence-skills, abilities and realize potentialities for continued self-development to become a better person. For example, a teacher wants to feel happy and conversant with his job. When he feels satisfied, Maslow says, he has maximized his potential. The self actualized person is strongly directed, seeks self growth and is highly motivated by loyalty to cherished values, and beliefs.

Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory is a proposed modification of Maslow's theory and an attempt to simplify and respond to some criticisms of its lack of empirical verification. The ERG theory has three (3) categories of needs. These are:

Existence needs (E): these are needs for physical well-being

Relatedness needs (R): these relate to the need for satisfactory relationship with others.

Growth needs (G): these focus on the development of human potential and the desire for personal growth and increased competence.

The ERG theory and Maslow's needs hierarchy are similar as both are hierarchical in form and presume that individuals move up the hierarchy one step at a time. However, Alderfer reduced the number of need categories to three and proposed that movement up the hierarchy is more complex that reflects a frustration-regression principle. That is failure to meet a higher order need may trigger a regression to an already fulfilled lower-order need. Thus, a worker who cannot fulfill a need for personal growth may revert to a lower-order need and re-direct his/her efforts towards making a lot of money. The ERG Theory is less rigid than Maslow's need hierarchy. It suggests that individuals may move down as well as up the hierarchy based on their ability to satisfy needs.

Frederick Herzberg's Two-factor Theory (Motivator-Hygiene Theory)

Herzberg (1959) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity and posited that motivation is not a single dimension describable as a

hierarchy of needs. This led to the development of the two-factor theory of motivation and job satisfaction as he interviewed 203 accountants and engineers.

He believed that two entirely separate and independent factors contribute to an employee's behaviour at work: (1) motivational factors, which can lead to job satisfaction (satisfiers or motivators) and (2) maintenance factors, which must be sufficiently present in order for motivational factors to come into play and when not sufficiently present can block motivation and lead to job dissatisfaction (dissatisfiers or hygiene factors).

Satisfiers or Motivator Factors

Satisfiers or motivator factors are also called growth needs and are related to job satisfaction or positive feeling about the job. These factors are related to the nature of the work, that is the content of the job itself and are sometimes referred to as intrinsic factors. Motivators are believed to encourage the growth and development needs of people at the work place and include: (1) achievement (2) recognition for achievement (3) the work itself (4) responsibility (5) advancement (promotion) and (6) the possibility of personal growth. When these motivational factors are present in a work situation they lead to strong motivation, satisfaction and good job performance, but do not cause dissatisfaction when they are absent. At worst, the absence of motivators can only result in non satisfaction.

Dissatisfiers or Hygiene Factors

Dissatisfiers or Hygiene or maintenance factors are related to dissatisfaction. This is because they are related to the context (environment) of the job. In other words, the factors are related to a person's work setting rather than the nature of

the work itself. For example, when hygiene factors are poor, work is dissatisfying. However, good hygiene factors simply remove the dissatisfaction but do not necessarily cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work.

The hygiene factors are also referred to as extrinsic factors and include; (1) company policy and administration (2) supervision (3) interpersonal relations with superiors or peers or subordinates (4) working conditions (5) salary (6) personal life (7) status and (8) job security.

However, when these hygiene factors are present in the work situation, the employee will not necessarily be either satisfied or motivated. He or she will simply not be dissatisfied but when they are absent, the employee will be dissatisfied. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but simply no job dissatisfaction. Perhaps the most controversial of the hygiene factors is salary. Herzberg found that low salary makes people dissatisfied, but paying them more does not satisfy or motivate them. Improved conditions (e.g. special offices, air conditioning) act in the same way.

Criticisms of Herzberg's theory

1. The sample for the study consisting of scientists, engineers and accountants was probably not representative of the working population.
2. The theory does not account for individual differences (e.g. pay will have similar impact regardless of gender, age, status and other important differences).
3. The theory assumes there is a direct relationship between effectiveness and job satisfaction; the research studies only satisfaction and

dissatisfaction and does not relate either of them to the effectiveness/productivity of the organization.

David McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory

McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory on motivation proposes that certain types of needs are learned and socially acquired as the individual interacts with his environment. In other words, needs are acquired over time as a result of life experiences. Thus, people are not born with those needs but may learn them through their life experiences. People are motivated by these needs, each of which can be associated with individual work preferences. McClelland's theory focuses on three needs: *the need for achievement; the need for affiliation and the need for power.*

Need for Achievement (n-Ach): The desire for productivity and to reach desirable goals. It is the desire to perform in terms of standard of excellence, to do something better or more efficiently, to solve problems, to master task for to be successful in a competitive situation.

Need for Affiliation (n-Aff): The desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm interpersonal relations with others; avoid conflicts.

Need for Power (n-Pow): The desire to control others, to influence their behaviour, or to be responsible for others, and have authority over others. It includes the need to coach, teach or encourage others to achieve. Early life experiences determine whether people acquire these needs. McClelland identifies two types of power – positive and negative. Positive use of power is essential if an educational administrator is to effectively accomplish results through the efforts

of others. Negative power is demonstrated when an individual seeks power for his or her own personal benefit, which may prove detrimental to the organization. The theory encourages managers or administrators to learn how to identify the presence of n-Ach, n-Aff, and n-Pow in themselves and others and to be able to create work environments that are responsive to the respective need profiles.

Adam's Equity Theory

Equity theory is both a theory of job motivation and job satisfaction. To Kreitner and Kinicki (2007), the equity theory as a model of motivational explains how people strive for fairness and justice in social exchange or give-and-take relationships. Developed by Psychologist J Stacy Adams, equity theory proposes that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they expect for performance. For instance, to be motivated, individuals must believe that the rewards they receive are fair. Thus, if people perceive their compensations as equal to what others receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable.

People evaluate equity by a ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs to a job include education (qualification), experience, effort, and ability while outcomes from a job include pay, recognition, benefits, and promotions. The input-to-outcome ratio may be compared to another person in the work group or to a perceived group average. To Adams a state of equity exists whenever the ratio of one person's outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of another's outcomes to inputs. Inequity occurs when there is an imbalance input-outcome ratio. For example, when a person with a high level of education or experience receives the same

salary as a new, less-educated employee. Perceived inequity also occurs in the other direction. Thus, if an employee discovers she is making more money than other people who contribute the same inputs to the organization, she may feel the need to correct the inequity by working harder, getting more education, or considering lower pay. Perceived inequity creates tensions within individuals that motivate them to bring equity into balance. The most common methods for reducing perceived inequity are:

- *Change inputs.* A person may choose to increase or decrease his or her inputs to the organization. For example, underpaid individuals may reduce their level of effort or increase their absenteeism. Overpaid people may increase effort on the job.
- *Change outcomes.* A person may change his or her outcomes. An underpaid person may request a salary increase or a bigger office. For example, NAGRAT may try to improve wages and working conditions in order to be consistent with a comparable union whose members make more money.
- *Distort perception.* Research suggests that people may distort perceptions of equity if they are unable to change inputs or outcomes they may artificially increase the status attached to their jobs or distort others' perceived rewards to bring equity into balance.
- *Leave the job.* People who feel inequitably treated may decide to leave their jobs rather than suffer the inequity of being under- or overpaid. In their new jobs, they expect to find a more favorable balance of rewards.

The equity theory presents a relatively simple model to help educational administrators explain and predict teachers' attitudes about rewards. It must be noted that employees indeed evaluate the perceived equity of their rewards compared to others. An increase in salary or a promotion will have no motivational effect if it is perceived as inequitable relate to that of other employees.

Reinforcement Theories

Positive Reinforcement is the administration of a pleasant and rewarding consequence following a desired behaviour. A good example of positive reinforcement is immediate praise for an employee who arrives on time or does a little extra work. The pleasant consequence increase the likelihood of the excellent work behaviour recurring. Studies has shown that positive reinforcement does help to improve performance. Non financial reinforcement such as positive feedback, social recognition, and attention are just as effective as financial incentives

Avoidance Learning is the removal of an unpleasant consequence following a desired behaviour. It is sometimes called negative reinforcement. Employees learn to do the right thing by avoiding unpleasant situations. Avoidance learning occurs when a supervisor stops criticizing or reprimanding an employee once the incorrect behaviour has stopped.

Punishment is the imposition of unpleasant outcomes on any employee to decrease the re-occurrence of undesirable behaviour. For example, a supervisor may berate an employee for performing a task incorrectly. Punishment may take

the form of harsh criticisms, withholding pay raises, denying privileges, demotion or suspension.

Extinction is the withdrawal of a positive reward for undesirable behaviour so that the behaviour will eventually disappear. For example, if a perpetually tardy employee fails to receive praise and pay raises, he or she will begin to realize that the behaviour is not producing desired outcomes.

Schedules of Reinforcement

A great deal of research into reinforcement theory suggests that the timing of reinforcement has an impact on the speed of employee learning. Schedules of Reinforcement pertain to the frequency with which and intervals over which reinforcement occurs. A reinforcement schedule can be selected to have maximum impact on employees' job behaviour. These are five basic types of reinforcement schedules, which include continuous and four types of partial reinforcement.

Continuous Reinforcement with a Continuous reinforcement schedule is where every occurrence of the desired behaviour is reinforced. This schedule is very effective in the early stages of learning new behaviours as every attempt has a pleasant consequence.

Partial Reinforcement

In the real world of organizations, it is often impossible to reinforce every correct behaviour. With a Partial reinforcement schedule, the reinforcement is administered only after some occurrences of the correct behaviour. There are four

types of partial reinforcement schedules: fixed interval, fixed ratio, variable interval, and variable ratio.

1. *Fixed-Interval Schedule* rewards employees at specified time intervals. If an employee displays the correct behaviour each day, reinforcement may occur every week. Regular paychecks or quarterly bonuses are examples of fixed-intervals reinforcement.
2. *Fixed-Ratio Schedule* presents reinforcement after a specified number of desired responses, say after every fifth. e.g. paying a workers GH¢ 10.00 for picking 10 pounds of peppers is a fixed-ratio schedule. Most piece-rate pay systems are considered fixed-ratio schedules.
3. *Variable-Interval Schedule* administers reinforcement at random and unpredictable times. An example would be a random inspection by the CEO of Vormawah and sons Inc. of the production floor, at which time he commends employees on their good behaviour.
4. *Variable-Ratio Schedule* is based on a random number of desired behaviours rather than on variable time periods. Reinforcement may occur after 5, 10, 15, or 20 displays of behaviour. An example is random monitoring of workers who may be rewarded after a certain day in the month when they perform the appropriate behaviors and meet performance specifications. Employees know they may be monitored but are not sure when checks and rewards would occur.

Importance of Motivation

The importance of motivation in any organization cannot be underestimated. Among others a properly motivated staff is always likely to be highly productive.

1. Highly motivated staff usually have their morale boosted and will collaborate to ensure that the organization succeeds. This also helps prevent disputes and conflicts that often characterize some organizations.
2. It is also that hoped when the staff or employees are motivated they will be prepared to take up responsibilities or be actively involved in the decision-making process.
3. Motivation is also related to leadership. The effective leader is the one who is able to motivate his followers and encourage them to work harder towards the attainment of the organizational goals.
4. Knowledge of motivation also helps administrators or supervisors to better understand their subordinates and also help management in the formation of policies.
5. Motivation encourages management to treat workers with respect and dignity and not just as people who must work in exchange for pay.

The school or work environment and motivation

Every educational organization has an environment, climate or atmosphere that distinguishes it from other schools and influences behaviour and feel of teachers and students for that school (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988). The environment or climate is the perceived subjective effects of the formal system,

the informal style of managers, and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organization and in a sense the personality of a school. The atmosphere of the workplace, including a complex mixture of norms, values, expectations, policies, and procedures that influence individual and group patterns of behavior (Spencer, Pelote & Seymour, 1998); generalized perceptions that people employ in thinking about and describing the organizations in which they work (Hall, Bowen, Lewicki & Hall 1987); employees' perceptions of the events, practices, and procedures as well as their perceptions of the behaviours that are rewarded, supported and expected within an organization (Schneider, Wheeler & Cox, 1992).

In a different breathe, Moos (1979) defines *school climate* as the social atmosphere of a setting or "learning environment" (p. 81) in which students have different experiences, depending upon the protocols set up by the teachers and administrators. Moos divides social environments into three categories:

- Relationship, which includes involvement, affiliation with others in the classroom, and teacher support.
- Personal growth or goal orientation, which includes the personal development and self-enhancement of all members of the environment.
- System maintenance and system change, which includes the orderliness of the environment, the clarity of the rules, and the strictness of the teacher in enforcing the rules.

He advises that "although the specific types of educational environments needed depend in part on the types of people in them and on the outcomes desired...[at least] we need to focus on relationship, personal growth, and system maintenance and change dimensions in describing, comparing, evaluating, and changing educational settings." (p. 96)

In Armstrong's (2005) opinion "people are more likely to be motivated if they work in an environment in which they are valued for what they are and what they do" (p.229). A classical example is the Hawthorne experiments conducted in 1924. Gunbayi (2007) concurs that researches ongoing since the 1950s, indicate that successful leadership competencies and managerial styles produce motivating organizational climates, which arouse employee motivation to do work well, and which predict the desired organizational outcomes: exceptional customer satisfaction and financial performance. Thus, climate makes a difference. That is, it differentiates levels of performance among organizations. Hundreds of studies have demonstrated the link between organizational climate and bottom-line performance measures such as volume, efficiency, productivity, and customer perceptions of service quality. Providing a positive working atmosphere is thus crucial to the success of every institution. Some of the ways in which it could be done are by;

Providing meaning and purpose

Employees should find meaning and purpose in the job they do at the workplace. The atmosphere in the office should make them feel that they have

made the right decision by choosing the organization for showing their talents and improving their skills.

Work as a team

One of the best ways of creating a positive working atmosphere is to group the individuals into teams. If the employees work as a team, instead of working separately, they will be less burdened with responsibilities, which will, in turn, help them in increasing their output.

Encouraging employees

Encouraging employees to work more efficiently by showing appreciation also helps to create a stress free environment. Monthly awards and certificates can be assigned to employees who perform well. This will bring in a positive attitude towards work, as they know that they will be recognized and rewarded for their good performance. McHugh (2006) warns that failure to praise and recognize your employees can take away from a positive work environment. He intimates that employees should be encouraged and praised for work well done often. It should be on a regular basis, publicly and privately.

Utilizing their talents

Managers should know how to utilize the special talents of employees. Showing appreciation for the employees, would lead to the establishment of a good working relationship. Eventually, they will feel that the workplace atmosphere is favourable for them and will help them exhibit their talents. In general, people want to better themselves and do a good job. Jobs should be

redesigned to fulfill higher levels of needs such as independence, challenge and creativity.

Making wise investment

Some investment should be made in creating a conducive and relaxed environment. In a school environment, for instance, this can be done by providing a well ventilated staff room, furniture for teachers, a print rich teaching and learning environment among others. If the walls seem to be dull, they can even be painted cozy colours that provide a welcoming atmosphere.

Communicate expectations

The employees will be acquainted with the nature of work, if expectations are clearly spelt out for them. They should be made aware of set standards for performance to enable them work towards achieving it. Deadlines should be specified. McHugh (2006) indicates that employees should be given more feedback, guidance and instructions. Constructive criticism can also play a role in creating a positive work environment. He underscores the essence of creating a conducive working atmosphere by cautioning that it is the responsibility of a supervisor, by implication any manager, to create and maintain a positive work environment, without which has a consequence of a high turn over rate and lower productivity.

Leadership and Performance

Various concepts of leadership have been postulated over the years. Indeed, a concern over the quality of modern leadership and its impact on individuals or a group of people in an organization is an area of concern in every society. Astin and Leland (1991) considers leadership is 'a process by which members of a group are empowered to work together synergistically toward a common goal or vision that will create change, transform institutions, and thus improve the quality of life'(p.8). Cole (2006:52) posits that 'the crust of every management job lies in the job-holder's capacity to obtain the commitment of people to the objectives of the organization, which is another way of saying 'to exercise appropriate leadership'. For Rost (1991) leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend to bring real changes that reflect their mutual purposes. To him four elements must be present for a relationship to be considered as a leadership relationship. They are; a relationship based on influence; leaders and followers are participants in the relationship; both parties intend that real changes are to take place; and both parties developing mutual purposes. Stogdill (1950) on his part views leadership as those activities engaged in by an individual or members of a group which contribute significantly to development and maintenance of role structure and goal direction necessary for effective group performance.

In a different breadth Hackman and Johnson (2004) contends that leadership is human communication which modifies the attributes and behaviours of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs. The foregoing discourse

reveals that the essence of leadership is followership: the willingness of a group of people to follow someone by sharing his vision and purpose for an agenda. The 'willingness' results from the relationship created between the parties which would subsequently influence performance towards goals achievement. Daft (2003) intimates in agreement that leadership is the process of influencing others to work willingly towards an organization's goals and to the best of their capabilities.

Blake and Moutton (1978), Doyle (1986) intimate that the leadership style can determine the performance of a teacher. There are many schools where heads behave as 'monarchs' and hardly involve teachers in the decision making process. Teachers are usually informed about decision taken at the implementing stage and woe unto any teacher who dares to challenge the decision during a staff meeting. Blake and Moutton (1978) intimate that such head teachers advanced the idea of top-down management instead of bottom-up management which will involve the ordinary worker in decision process. This action (leadership style) is in contrast with Follet's (1924) principle of coordination in the early stages where she advised that workers should be involved in decision-making from the planning stage.

According to Stogdill (1974), there are heads or managers of schools who dictate to their teachers as to what they should do, so in most cases school activities come to a halt when they travel. Such heads hardly appreciate a teacher's contribution, think about him and hardly care for the social, economic and psychological needs of the teacher. He adopts divide and rule tactics in the

running of the school and those who oppose to his decision(s) are seen as enemies or 'development wreckers'. Teachers who do not want to be victimized keep their silent all the time and transfer their anger and frustrations to their students in the class by way of not giving off their best. Under such leadership, most teachers decide not to give off their best because job satisfaction is almost absent. After all, no matter what they do, their efforts and ideas are not recognized. There are also instances where the head discriminates among teachers. Those who sing his tune are considered as "good boys" and receive favours and compliments from him while those who criticize him even constructively are seen as enemies and they are hardly promoted, assigned responsibility or offer greater opportunities to improve on themselves. The result of this is that, such teachers become dissatisfied and hardly performs.

Contrarily, a leader who operates by putting the workers needs first succeed. According to Doyle (1986), leaders who adopt democratic leadership style where the needs, interest, rights and freedom of the workers are considered first are likely to get the workers to co-operate as they get job satisfaction. Here, the worker is involved in decision-making and the leader offers suggestion rather than issuing orders, promotes initiatives and creativity. Blake and Moutton (1978) identified that poor organizational climate also influences job satisfaction. To them, if the communication methods used to convey messages are so poor that the teacher is always kept in dark, unsympathetic supervision of work and motivation is nil, the worker feels humiliated or nonentity so his morale dies and job supervision is absent.

Similarly, if the relationship between the head and the teacher is strictly formal such that teachers hardly contribute to decision-making process and question the legitimacy of instructors or authority, job supervision will be low. In the same vein, if the school climate is controlled type where little attention is given to the personnel needs of the teachers or the paternal climate where the head tends to monopolise all decision making process, job satisfaction is likely to be low.

On the other hand, if there exists open and autonomous climate systems, the head teacher and teachers are genuine in their behaviour and nothing is hidden from any worker, teachers are sufficiently motivated and obtain considerable satisfaction with his personal contribution to the general life of the school and above all, there is a group action or decision making and job satisfaction is likely to be high. With the autonomous climate, there is almost complete freedom on the part of teachers to conduct their work and fulfill their social needs as they wish. In short, if the school is run by consensus and everyone has a reason to believe that he is part of the leadership of the school he will give off his best because that sense of belongingness will be the driving force for hard work. This sense of belongingness was highlighted by Herzberg (1959) in his hygiene factors.

Leadership Theories

Trait Theory: Carlyle (1841) was a precursor of the trait theory. Trait theory tries to describe the types of behaviour and personality tendencies associated with effective leadership. This is probably the first academic theory of leadership. Carlyle can be considered as one of the pioneers of the trait theory,

using such approach to identify the talents, skills and physical characteristics of men who rose to power. Heifetz (1994) traces the trait theory approach back to the nineteenth-century tradition of associating the history of society to the history of great men.

Proponents of the trait approach usually list leadership qualities, assuming certain traits or characteristics will tend to lead to effective leadership. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) exemplify the trait theory. They argue that key leader traits include: drive (a broad term which includes achievement, motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative), leadership motivation (the desire to lead but not to seek power as an end in itself), honesty, integrity, self-confidence (which is associated with emotional stability), cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. According to their research, "there is less clear evidence for traits such as charisma, creativity and flexibility. The theory suggests that attention is focused on the selection of leaders rather than training for leadership (Mullins,2006).

Behavioural and style theories

In response to the criticism of the trait approach, theorists began to research leadership as a set of behaviours, evaluating the behaviour of 'successful' leaders, determining a behaviour taxonomy and identifying broad leadership styles. McClelland , for instance, saw leadership skills, not so much as a set of traits, but as a pattern of motives. He claimed that successful leaders tend to have a high need for power, a low need for affiliation, and a high level of what he

called activity inhibition. Razik and Swanson (2001) contend that the theory determines what effective leaders do by identifying both the behaviour of leaders and its effect on subordinate productivity and work satisfaction.

Situational and contingency theories

Situational theory also appeared as a reaction to the trait theory of leadership.. The theory assumes that different situations call for different characteristics and no single optimal psychographic profile of a leader exists; the times produce the person and not the other way around. According to the theory, what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions.

Some theorists started to synthesize the trait and situational approaches. Building upon the research of Lewin, Lipitt and White (1939), academics began to normalize the descriptive models of leadership climates, defining three leadership styles and identifying in which situations each style works better. The *authoritarian leadership style*, for example, is approved in periods of crisis but fails to win the "hearts and minds" of their followers in the day-to-day management; the *democratic leadership style* is more adequate in situations that require consensus building; finally, the *laissez faire leadership style* is appreciated by the degree of freedom it provides, but as the leader does not "take charge", he can be perceived as a failure in protracted or thorny organizational problems. Thus, theorists defined the style of leadership as contingent to the situation, which is sometimes, classified as contingency theory.

Functional theory

Functional leadership theory (Hackman & Walton, 1986; McGrath, 1962) is a particularly useful theory for addressing specific leader behaviours expected to contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness. This theory argues that the leader's main job is to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; thus, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion (Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Hackman & Walton, 1986). While functional leadership theory has most often been applied to team leadership (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001), it has also been effectively applied to broader organizational leadership as well (Zaccaro, 2001). In summarizing literature on functional leadership (Zaccaro et al. 2001), Hackman and Walton (1986), Hackman & Wageman (2005), Morgeson (2005), Klein, Ziegert, Knight, and Xiao (2006) observed five broad functions a leader perform when promoting organisation's effectiveness. These functions include: environmental monitoring, organizing subordinate activities, teaching and coaching subordinates, motivating others, and intervening actively in the group's work.

A variety of leadership behaviours are expected to facilitate these functions. In initial work identifying leader behaviour, Fleishman (1996) observed that subordinates perceived their supervisors' behaviour in terms of two broad categories referred to as consideration and initiating structure. Consideration includes behaviour involved in fostering effective relationships. Examples of such behaviour would include showing concern for a subordinate or acting in a

supportive manner towards others. Initiating structure involves the actions of the leader focused specifically on task accomplishment. This could include role clarification, setting performance standards, and holding subordinates accountable to those standards.

Transactional and transformational theories

The transactional leader (Burns, 1978) is given power to perform certain tasks and reward or punish for the team's performance. It gives the opportunity to the manager to lead the group and the group agrees to follow his lead to accomplish a predetermined goal in exchange for something else. Power is given to the leader to evaluate, correct and train subordinates when productivity is not up to the desired level and reward effectiveness when expected outcome is reached.

The transformational leader motivates its team to be effective and efficient. Communication is the base for goal achievement focusing the group on the final desired outcome or goal attainment. This leader is highly visible and uses chain of command to get the job done. Transformational leaders focus on the big picture, needing to be surrounded by people who take care of the details. The leader is always looking for ideas that move the organization to reach the company's vision.

Leadership Styles

Leadership style influence level of motivation and by implication performance on a job. However, throughout a lifetime, ones motivation is

influenced by changing ambitions and or leadership style one works under or socializes with. In the past several decades, management experts have undergone a revolution in how they define leadership and what their attitudes are toward it. They have gone from a very classical autocratic approach to a very creative, participative approach. Somewhere along the line, it was determined that not everything old was bad and not everything new was good. Rather, different styles were needed for different situations and each leader needed to know when to exhibit a particular approach. Four of the most basic leadership styles proposed by Lewin, Lipitt and White (1939) are autocratic, bureaucratic, laissez-faire and democratic.

Autocratic Leadership Style

This is often considered the classical approach. It is one in which the manager retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. The manager does not consult employees, nor are they allowed to give any input. Employees are expected to obey orders without receiving any explanations. The motivation environment is produced by creating a structured set of rewards and punishments. This leadership style has been greatly criticized during the past three decades. Research indicates that organizations with many autocratic leaders have higher turnover and absenteeism than other organizations. Autocratic leaders rely on threats and punishment to influence employees; do not trust employees; do not allow for employee input. On the other hand, autocratic leadership is sometimes useful

when new, untrained employees do not know which tasks to perform or which procedures to follow; effective supervision can be provided only through detailed orders and instructions; employees do not respond to any other leadership style; there are high-volume production needs on a daily basis; there is limited time in which to make a decision; a manager's power is challenged by an employee; work needs to be coordinated with another department or organization.

Bureaucratic Leadership Style

Bureaucratic leadership is where the manager manages "by the book" Everything is done according to procedure or policy. If it is not covered by the book, the manager refers to the next level above him or her. This manager is really more of a police officer than a leader. He or she enforces the rules. This style can be effective when employees are performing routine tasks over and over; employees need to understand certain standards or procedures; employees are working with dangerous or delicate equipment that requires a definite set of procedures to operate; safety or security training is being conducted; employees are performing tasks that require handling cash.

However, this style is ineffective when work habits forms that are hard to break, especially if they are no longer useful; employees lose their interest in their job and in their fellow workers; employees do only what is expected of them and no more.

Democratic Leadership Style

The democratic leadership style is also called the participative style as it encourages employees to be a part of the decision making. The democratic manager keeps his or her employees informed about everything that affects their work and shares decision making and problem solving responsibilities. This style requires the leader to be a coach who has the final say, but gathers information from staff members before making a decision.

Democratic leadership can produce high quality and high quantity work for long periods of time. Many employees like the trust they receive and respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale that translates into high performance. Typically the democratic leader develops plans to help employees evaluate their own performance; allows employees to establish goals; encourages employees to grow on the job and be promoted; recognizes and encourages achievement.

Like the other styles, the democratic style is not always appropriate. It is most successful when used with highly skilled or experienced employees or when implementing operational changes or resolving individual or group problems.

The democratic leadership style is most effective when the leader wants to keep employees informed about matters that affect them; the leader wants employees to share in decision-making and problem-solving duties; the

leader wants to provide opportunities for employees to develop a high sense of personal growth and job satisfaction; there is a large or complex problem that requires lots of input to solve; changes must be made or problems solved that affect employees or groups of employees; you want to encourage team building and participation.

Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

The laissez-faire leadership style is also known as the “hands-off” style. It is one in which the manager provides little or no direction and gives employees as much freedom as possible. All authority or power is given to the employees and they must determine goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own. This is an effective style to use when employees are highly skilled, experienced, and educated; employees have pride in their work and the drive to do it successfully on their own; outside experts, such as staff specialists or consultants are being used; employees are trustworthy and experienced.

This style should not be used when it makes employees feel insecure at the unavailability of a manager; the manager cannot provide regular feedback to let employees know how well they are doing; managers are unable to thank employees for their good work; the manager doesn’t understand his or her responsibilities and is hoping the employees can cover for him or her.

Varying Leadership Style

While the proper leadership style depends on the situation, there are three other factors that also influence which leadership style to use.

1. The manager's personal background. What personality, knowledge, values, ethics, and experiences does the manager have. What does he or she think will work?
2. The employees being supervised. Employees are individuals with different personalities and backgrounds. The leadership style managers use will vary depending upon the individual employee and what he or she will respond best to.
3. The company. The traditions, values, philosophy, and concerns of the company will influence how a manager acts.

It is therefore gainsaying that the type of leadership provided largely influences the relationship that exists between management and employees. This to a greater extent makes employees satisfied and would want to give off their best or otherwise. For an employee, job dissatisfaction can result in feelings of helplessness, burnout, resentment, anger, and fatigue (Knoop, 1987; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Further, these emotions can lead to the following behaviours: aggression, regression, complaining, fighting, psychological withdrawal, and leaving the agency (Knoop, 1987; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). With these emotions and behaviours, poor physical and mental health may ensue. From a

management perspective, these emotions can lead to decreased employee performance, tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, early retirements, and strikes (Ribelin, 2003; Robbins, 1998).

While understanding the reasons for changing employment are critical for organizations, discerning the relationship of leadership style on job satisfaction is of paramount concern. Working with a leader who does not provide support, show consideration, or engages in hostile behaviors can be stressful for employees (Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Negative leader-employee interactions can result in decreased pleasure with work, questioning one's skill on the job, reacting harshly to the leader, and leaving the agency (Chen & Spector, 1991). The quality of the leader-employee relationship has an impact on the employee's self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; DeCremer, 2003) and job satisfaction (Chen & Spector, 1991). The costs to the agency can be quite high in terms of worker stress, reduced productivity, increased absenteeism, and turnover (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Ribelin, 2003).

Considerate leaders, also known as expressive leaders because they show concern for people, have been found to facilitate a group with higher productivity and higher performance (Singh, 1998). In addition, leadership consideration (expressive leadership) is more conducive to job satisfaction (Singh & Pestonjee, 1974; Spector, 1997). On the other side of the coin, task structured leaders, also known as instrumental leaders, show less concern for employees and are high on initiating structure. "Leader behaviour characterized as high on initiating structure

led to greater rates of grievances, absenteeism, and turnover and lower levels of job satisfaction for workers performing routine tasks” (Robbins, 1998: 350).

Reward and performance

The proponents of reward school of thought include Dyer and Theriault (1976); Etzioni (1961) and Rebores (1982). Dyer and Theriault hold the belief that a worker’s job satisfaction is influenced greatly by the reward policies pursued by the organization. To them, if the reward is very motivating and attractive, the worker will appreciate and see it as a moral booster and for that matter will perform satisfactorily. Etzioni and Rebores supported the relationship between reward and performance.

Etzioni (1961) in analyzing his compliance typology, where he was examining the relationship between the kind of power leadership applied to their subordinates and their resulting involvement in the organization identified remunerative (utilitarian) power and normative power. He argued that management sometimes relies on material resources and rewards in the form of salaries, wages, bonuses and fringe benefits to influence their workers to perform. Etzioni in a way believes that certain categories of workers like bankers can be induced to work harder if they are properly remunerated. He quickly added that those workers reduce their efforts as soon as the reward is reduced, withdrawn or not sustained. This means that, to Etzioni, reward as a means of extracting job satisfaction has time limit or not the best means of influencing a worker’s job satisfaction. He also advocated for normative power where the management uses manipulation of symbolic rewards and sanctions as means of exercising control

over workers to perform. This kind of reward involves status, prestige, promise, grades, recommendations and promotions. Etzioni advocated for this type of reward for most organizations that do not make profits (non-profit organizations like public school, mental hospitals, churches) since they are less costly or in some cases costless. To him, saying 'thank you', 'well done' or giving a citation to a worker costs less to an organization but could go a long way to boost his morale to perform better or sometimes more than a person being rewarded. This is because the worker feels that his effort is being recognized and appreciated by the authority.

It can be concluded from Etzioni's theory that if reward should be made meaningful it should differ from one worker to another and more so, the type of reward should also depend on the type of organization.

On his part, Rebores (1982) believes that reward is a necessary factor in influencing job satisfaction but cautioned in his expectancy model that rewards need to be flexible and varied to meet the expectations of individuals since all workers may not value the same type of rewards. He therefore called on administrators to analyse and interpret the needs of the employees by sometimes asking them or observe or develop an awareness of employees behaviours (p.339). Rebores advised organizations not to establish rewards for the sake of it but take into consideration that the reward policy aims at attracting and retaining qualified employees who can provide the type of service expected by the public. To this end, certain factors or variables have to be considered in providing rewards so as not to undermine the very purpose for which it was instituted. This

is because if the rewards are not based on certain laid down principles or criteria it will end up demoralizing the efforts of “non-reward” workers or may lose its essence. Consequently, he identified factors like performance, effort, skills, commitment, personal qualities, seniority, risk and qualification which could create differences in employees’ returns. For instance, if a worker puts in an extra energy than what others put in or stipulate for others, we say a person has put in an effort so when he is rewarded his colleagues will accept and be ready to do likewise.

Rebore identified two types of rewards namely intrinsic and extrinsic which all have to be used in rewarding an employee. Rebore defines intrinsic reward as “reward that an employee receives for doing the job itself” (p. 244). This kind of reward concerns with inner satisfaction derived from doing the job itself and this includes participating in decision making, job discretion, increased responsibility, interesting work, opportunities for personal growth (staff development) and diversity of activities. He also defines extrinsic reward as a reward that an employee receives that comes from outside the work. To him, extrinsic reward is a reward that one receives for the work he prepares to do. This includes wages and salaries, overtime pay and fringe benefits.

Rebore like Etzioni (1961) argues that both types of reward can be blended effectively by an organization to promote job satisfaction among workers. To them, the mode of rewarding, the sustainability of the reward, the needs and interest of a particular worker and the type of organization should be the prime factors in providing rewards.

On fair rewards, Baverdam (1981) indicated that employees are more satisfied when they feel they are rewarded fairly for the work they do, their responsibilities, the effort they have put forth, the work they have done well and the demand of their jobs are all taken into consideration. Actions to be taken to ensure fair rewards should ensure that rewards are for genuine contribution to the organizations. There is also the need for consistency on reward policies. If the wages are competitive the employer must make sure that employees know about that and rewards can include a variety of benefits and perks other than money. As an added benefit, employees who are rewarded fairly experience less stress.

However, De Champs (1979) held different view from the reward school of thought. He observed that pay ranked relatively far low in a list of job satisfaction factors. He said, sometimes the pay a worker receives at certain times especially during periods of inflation (which is prevalent in Africa) becomes very insignificant factor in job satisfaction as the value of the salary is eroded every time.

Studies have indicated that while financial incentives can promote specific behaviours (such as taking on difficult teaching assignments) and can direct teachers' efforts towards measurable goals (such as achieving higher test scores), they are less promising tools to improve general teaching performance. There is extensive evidence that teachers regard professional efficacy, not money as the primary moderator in their work, and some evidence that the prospect of extrinsic rewards may diminish the potency of intrinsic rewards for them. Furthermore, there is some indication that competitive rewards intended for the individual may

be less effective in motivating teachers than inducements designed to engage them in school enterprises and to promote shared professional goals.

The limited data provide some evidence that efforts to motivate veteran teachers with pay and promotions may prove to be misdirected and counterproductive. It would be a mistake, however, to conclude that extrinsic rewards are irrelevant in the search for appropriate incentives. To say that teachers are motivated by intrinsic rewards does not necessarily mean that they are motivated solely by them. Money does matter particularly to teachers whose pay falls short of personal needs. Most teachers have teaching because they fail to achieve personal satisfaction in their work. However, even intrinsic rewards may not be sufficient to retain and inspire the best teachers in a society that denies teachers the status and pay of other service professionals such as law and medicine. Some contend that educators would be more productive if the array of professional rewards (for example, pay, praise for personal satisfaction) were expanded and guaranteed for all. These would include what Lortie (1975) called ancillary rewards and these are good working conditions, the convenience of the academic calendar and the security of retirement benefits.

Richmond (1978) found that though money was not a major reason teachers gave for entering the profession, it ranked second (after inefficacy) as a reason for leaving. He speculated that, anticipating rewards intrinsic to the work could result in teachers willing to forgo high salaries. However, when confronted with the frustration of those expectations, the fact that they are sometimes paid

less than the bus driver who brings their students to school may become a considerable source of dissatisfaction as well.

In his study of high school teachers, Aikenhead (1960) found that extrinsic and ancillary rewards are important to inducing teachers to join the system and at the same time remain in the system; while intrinsic rewards were related to job performance, reduced absenteeism, improved peer and subordinate relations and in particular, effectiveness of the teacher's classroom behaviour.

In conclusion, it is an unarguable fact that since the reward of labour is wages and salaries and most labour offer their services in return for remuneration if the right atmosphere is provided and rewards, both monetary and symbolic rewards are given at the right time, motivation among workers will be high: this has a positive implication for performance.

Summary of literature Review

Literature was reviewed both theoretically and empirically to establish the current trends in motivation. Issues emerging out of the literature are summarized below.

Motivation simply explains why people do the things they do. This suggests that there is a force that energizes, directs, drives, stimulates, excites, arouses and activates people to act in a particular way that will lead to the achievement of personal or group goals. The review revealed that there are two types of motivation: Intrinsic and Extrinsic. Intrinsic or internal motivation consists of those needs, wants, and desires that moves one to perform a task

without any external influences. Where as, extrinsic or external motivation is derived from outside stimulation and events such as salary and fringe benefits.

A review on foundations of motivation showed four different perspectives and approaches to motivation. These are the traditional, human relations, human resource and contemporary approaches.

Some theories of motivation were also looked at. These brought to bare some of the principles and assumptions unpinning such prepositions. The famous Maslow's theory indicates that humans are motivated by five basic needs that are organized in successive level of importance; they are psychological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization. Herzberg's two factor theory intimates that the two motivational factors that influence behavior are satisfiers that affect job satisfaction and hygiene factors that are related to the work environment.

However, McClelland's theory stipulates that humans are motivated by needs that emerge as one interacts with environment. It focuses on the need for achievement, affiliation and power. The Equity theory espoused by Adams is premised on the principles of fairness and justice in the administration of rewards for performance. While the reinforcement theory resorts to the use of rewards, avoidance learning and punishment to induce behaviour.

The review also established that a positive and a conducive work environment largely influence employees' performance. Such work environment can be created by making employees find meaning and purpose in the job, working as a group, encouraging employees, utilizing their talents and communicating effectively.

In reviewing literature on the extent to which leadership style affects performance, it came to light that the characteristics demonstrated by a leader has an enormous influence on what employees do. As a result, administrators know the type of environment and the appropriate leadership style to employ to induce performance.

It was also realized that if rewards are very motivating and attractive workers will appreciate and see them as a moral booster and for that matter will perform satisfactorily. Literature thus supported the relationship between reward and performance.

CHAPTER THREE

Overview

This chapter discusses the research design, the population, the sample and the techniques of sample selection. It also describes the instruments used for data collection, pre-testing of instruments, the procedure followed in conducting the research and the method of data analysis.

Research Design

The descriptive, non-experimental survey was used for the study since it examined the effect of motivation on the performance of Ghana Armed Forces Schools and selected public schools in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis. This involved soliciting large volumes of information from respondents to test hypothesis and to answer research questions. Descombe (2000) observes that the notion of a survey suggests that the researcher intends to get information “straight from the horse’s own mouth” and is purposeful and structured. He maintains that surveys are associated with large scale research covering many people. In support of the usefulness of the design, Gay (1987) intimates that the descriptive survey is an attempt to collect data from members in a population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables.

The descriptive survey was therefore employed to help produce a good amount of responses from a wide range of people since it is associated with large-

scale research, covering many people or events. Furthermore, in-depth follow-up questions can be asked and items that are unclear can be explained (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Babbie, 2001).

The design permitted the generalization of research findings about the population that was studied. The wide and suitable coverage gave credibility to generalized statements made on the basis of the research. In this regard, Oppenheim (1966) contends that, “the purpose of the descriptive survey is to count; when it cannot count everyone, it counts a representative sample and then makes inferences about the population as a whole” (p. 8). In a similar fashion, Best and Khan (1993) postulates that descriptive statistical analysis limits generalization to the particular group of individuals observed and that no conclusions are extended beyond this group. Further, the design allowed the use of descriptive statistical tools such as percentages, frequencies and the mean in the analysis of data collected. McMillan (1996) agrees that descriptive study simply describes and provides an understanding of a phenomenon usually with simple descriptive statistics and it is particularly valuable when an area is first investigated.

However, the descriptive research design has some weaknesses. These include the difficulty in ensuring that questions to be reacted to during interviews, especially, are explicit and not misleading because survey results may vary significantly depending on the exact wording of the items. Also, data gathered could produce untrustworthy result because they may delve into private and

emotional matters in which respondents might not be completely truthful. Also, Frankael and Wallen (2000) point out that retrieving a sufficient number of questionnaires administered for meaningful analysis to be made is a problem of the descriptive survey design.

In order to reduce the effects of the weaknesses associated with the use of design, the questionnaire was pilot tested. This offered the researcher the opportunity to reframe and sharpen ambiguous items. Further, respondents were assured of their anonymity and the confidentiality of responses provided which enabled them to respond frankly and dispassionately. Also, in some instances after administering the instrument, the researcher was waited for respondents to fill in their responses and collect them in order to increase the retrieval rate.

Population

All headmasters and teachers teaching in public junior high schools in all nine (9) circuits in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis constituted the target population. That was the group of interest to the researcher, the group to whom the researcher wanted to generalize the results of the study. Since this group was rarely available, all headmasters and teachers in Armed Forces Schools and public schools in three (3) circuits which had no Armed Forces Schools were considered as the accessible population.

Table 1: Target population of teachers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis by circuits

Circuits	No. of teachers
Adiembra	70
Anaji	59
Apremdo/ Kwesimintsim	93
Effia/ Tanokrom	115
Essikadu	65
Ketan/ Kojokrom	117
Sekondi	112
Takoradi East	136
Takoradi West	120
Total	887

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were employed for the study.

Selection of Circuits and Schools

The lottery method of the simple random technique was used to select 3 circuits out of 6 circuits which did not have Armed Forces Schools (AMS). Two circuits were randomly selected out of the 6 circuits. Three public schools each were then be selected from the 2 circuits using the lottery method. However, the 12 Armed Forces schools were sampled purposefully for the study out of which 6

were selected. In all 12 schools (6 AMS and 6 other public schools) were involved in the study

Selection of Respondents

A total of 177 respondents, comprising 12 head teachers and 165 teachers were randomly sampled for the study using the lottery by replacement method. This constitutes 20% of the target population. Nwana (1992) supports this when he states that "...if the population...is many hundreds a 20% sample or more will do..."(p.72).

Research Instrument

Two sets of questionnaires were used to collect relevant data for the study, one for head teachers and the other for teachers. All items were generated from the research questions. The questionnaires consisted of mainly close ended-items which demands respondents to tick responses that best apply to them. It was anticipated that the caliber of respondents involved will supply true, genuine and reliable responses devoid of extraneous influence. The close-ended items were also aimed at ensuring uniformity in the response and thereby preventing subjectivity of any kind. Most of these were embodied in the likert-type scale. This was found suitable for gauging how strong respondents felt about a kind of motivation. Also, it will enable respondents to indicate the degree of their beliefs in a given statement (Best & Khan,1993).

The four point likert scale was considered more appropriate than the conventional five-point scale due to the recommendations of Casley & Kumar (1998). They explain that there is an increase in the tendency for respondents to select responses in the centre of the scale if an odd number response scale is used- respondents might use the “not sure” or “undecided” to avoid making a real choice. With an even number of responses, respondents are obliged to choose between favourable and unfavourable attitudes and perceptions.

Notwithstanding the lapse of close-ended items in restricting the responses of respondents, its adoption ensured effective editing and analysis of data. A few open-ended items were also included in the questionnaire to elicit free and unrestricted response from respondents on some of the issues in connection with the study.

Structure of Main Instruments

The main instrument that was used to collect data for the study was the questionnaire. The questionnaire for both respondents were divided into 6 sections (A-F). They are:

Section A: Biographic Data

Section B: How the school environment motivate teachers.

Section C: The extent to which school leadership influence teacher performance.

Section D: The rewards provided to motivate teachers

Section E: How the inter personal relationship among teachers affect performance

Pilot-testing of Instrument

The aim of pilot-testing is to sharpen and fine tune the instruments by correcting possible weaknesses and inadequacies that the items may have. Four head teachers and twenty teachers in basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the central region were used for the exercise. These schools were used because the researcher considered them as having similar characteristics with schools that were sampled for the actual study in terms of curriculum and tutors. Extra sheets of paper were attached to the questionnaires for respondents to comment on identified inaccuracies and inadequacies. Based on these comments, the items were scrutinized and evaluated in order to reward unclear, biased and deficient items.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

To establish the content validity and reliability of the instrument, the supervisor of the study reviewed the items. The cronbach co-efficient alpha, a measure of internal consistency was used in the determination of the reliability of the instrument. This generated alphas of .70 and .721 for head teachers and teachers respectively. The cronbach co-efficient alpha was deemed appropriate since the items in the questionnaire were multiple-scored especially on the likert-type scale. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1985) admit that “cronbach alpha is used when measures have multiple scored items such as attitudinal scales. For instance on the likert-type scale, the individual may receive a score from 1 to 5 depending

on which option was chosen” (p.235). However, as indicated earlier the researcher will use a four point scale.

Data Collection Procedure

To enable the researcher collect relevant data for the study, an introductory letter was collected from the Institute for Development Studies so that permission could be obtain from the education directorate to conduct the study.

Questionnaire administration

The questionnaires for both respondents were administered to them personally after the researcher has introduced himself and the purpose of the study explained. This allowed the achievement of a high retrieval rate.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the ordering and breaking down of data into constituent parts and performing of statistical calculations with the raw data to provide answers to the research questions which guide the research. First, the retrieved questionnaires were serially numbered and edited. The edited responses were then coded and scored. Since almost all the items were on a four point likert-type scale, they scored 4, 3, 2 and 1 for items with responses very true, true, untrue and very untrue or strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree respectively.

The Statistical Package for Services Solution (SPSS) version 17.0 was used to analyse all items in the instrument. According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1985) descriptive surveys do not typically require complex statistical analysis. Therefore, research questions 1 to 5 were answered by using frequencies, percentages and the means. Mean ratings (1.00-1.50 for strongly disagree; 1.60-2.50 for disagree; 2.60-3.50 for agree; 3.60-4.00 for strongly agree) were created for each table to provide ranges for the means. The mean of means of all the items were also computed to determine the direction of responses.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

Overview

This chapter is designed for the discussion of data gathered on the study. Presentations under this section have been put into two categories. The first part deals with the results of the analysis of background information of respondents. The analysis of the main data to generate answers for the research questions is covered in the second segment.

Background Information of Respondents

One Hundred and seventy-seven (177) respondents comprising one hundred and sixty-five (165) teachers and twelve head teachers from six (6) public schools and armed forces schools in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis were involved in the study.

Details of personal information of respondents have been presented in the table below.

Table 2: Sex Distribution of Respondents

Sex	Public schools		Armed forces schools		
	Heads	Teachers	Heads	Teachers	Total
Males	2 (33.3)	32(40.0)	1(16.7)	38(44.7)	73 (41.2)
Female	4(66.7)	48(60.0)	5(83.3)	47(55.3)	104(58.8)
Total	6(100)	80 (100)	6 (100)	85(100.00)	177(100.00)

Table 2 indicated that there were more female headteachers and teachers than males in both public and Armed forces schools. The female respondents constituted 58.8% while the males were 41.2%. Though this is not balanced since it is more skewed towards women, it may be considered a healthy development since it is an evidence of the response to the call for women empowerment.

Analysis of main data

The following interpretations have been presented from data gathered with the questionnaire.

How the school environment motivates teachers

Items 3 – 6 in questionnaire sought to elicit responses to answer research question one (1) on how the environment motivate teachers to teach.

Table 3: How the School Environment Motivate Teachers

Statements		Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Class size of students facilitates teaching and learning.	PS	33	(38.4)	39	(45.3)	9	(10.5)	5	(5.8)	3.16
	AMS	26	(28.6)	53	(58.2)	9	(9.9)	3	(3.3)	3.12
Teaching and learning materials provided in the school encourage me to teach.	PS	25	(29.1)	46	(53.5)	9	(10.5)	6	(7.0)	3.05
	AMS	20	(22.0)	53	(58.2)	13	(14.3)	5	(5.5)	2.97

Conditions in the classrooms and surroundings make me want to teach always.	PS	13(15.1)	53(61.6)	16(18.6)	4(4.7)	2.87
	AMS	11(12.1)	63(69.2)	15(16.5)	2(2.2)	2.91
Furniture provided for both teachers and students make me feel comfortable to teach	PS	20(23.3)	49(57.0)	13(15.1)	4(4.7)	2.99
	AMS	19(20.9)	58(63.7)	10(11.0)	4(4.4)	3.01
Mean of Means	PS					3.02
	AMS					3.00

Means Ranges: 1.00 – 1.50 Strongly Disagree; 1.60 -2.50 Disagree; 2.60 – 3.50 Agree; 3.60 -4.00 Strongly Agree.

It is evident from the data in Table 3 that in the respect to whether class sizes of students facilitate teaching and learning, the majority of public school teachers constituting 39(45.3%) agreed while only 5 (5.8%) strongly disagreed. Responses provided by Armed forces teachers reflected a similar pattern. The means generated by the responses suggest that both groups agree to the assertion. Slightly more than half of teachers of public (53.5%) and Armed forces schools (58.2%) again agreed that teaching and learning materials provided encourages them to teach.

As to whether conditions in the classrooms and surrounding make teachers want to teach always, the responses still followed a similarly fashion with both groups agreeing, thereby producing means of 2.87 and 2.91 respectively. The

means of 2.99 and 2.87 for suggest their agreement to the fact that teachers are comfortable with the sort of furniture they are provided with.

Summarily, it is evident from the foregoing that teachers of both categories of schools agree that the school environment motivates them to teach. This is confirmed by their mean of means that fall within 2.60 and 3.50. It however depicts that the school environment motivates teachers in the public school to perform more than their counterparts in the armed forces schools.

The Extent to which School Leadership Influences Teachers’ Performance.

Items 7–12 in questionnaire drew out reactions to research question two (2) on the extent to which school leadership influences teachers’ performance.

Table 4: The Extent to which School Leadership Influences Performance.

Statements		Very Large Extent	Large Extent	Some Extent	Not at All	Mean
		No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %	
Opportunities the Head teacher provides for me to depart of decision making in the school is encouraging.	PS	15(17.4)	6(70.9)	7(8.1)	3(3.5)	3.02
	AMS	17(18.7)	59(64.8)	12(3.2)	3(3.3)	3.99
The concern the Headteacher shows about my needs and welfare motivates me to teach.	PS	21(24.4)	53(61.6)	8(9.3)	4(4.7)	3.06
	AMS	14(15.4)	64(70.3)	9(9.9)	4(4.4)	2.97
I am motivated to teach because the Headteacher appreciates my effort and contribution.	PS	24(27.9)	52(60.5)	7(8.1)	3(3.5)	3.13
	AMS	13(14.3)	58(63.7)	15(16.5)	5(5.5)	2.87

My performance has improved because my head teacher always tells me what to do.	PS	14(16.3)	43(50.0)	20(23.3)	9(10.5)	2.72
	AMS	11(12.1)	42(46.3)	29(31.9)	9(9.9)	2.60
My performance has improved because my Headteacher provides me with the opportunity for professional development.	PS	17(19.9)	56(65.1)	12(14.0)	1(1.2)	3.03
	AMS	9(9.9)	60(65.9)	16(17.6)	6(6.6)	2.79
I am encouraged to work because my Head teacher assigns me with responsibilities	PS	2(24.4)	50(58.1)	11(12.8)	4(4.7)	3.27
	AMS	8(19.8)	55(60.4)	12(13.2)	6(6.6)	2.93
	PS					3.03
	AMS					3.03

Means ranges: 1,00=150 not at all ;1.60 – 2.50 to some extent, 2.60 – 3.50 to a very large extent
3.60- 4.00 to a very large extents.

Table 4 portrays that the majority of teachers from both public schools (70.9%) and Armed forces schools (64.8%) indicated that to a large extent the opportunities the head teachers provide for them to be part of decision making encourages them. Only as few as 3(3.5%) and 3(3.3%) of them replied “Not at all”. The means generated however suggest that more opportunities for decision making were provided for teachers in the armed forces schools (3.99) than teachers in the public teachers (3.02).

In a similar fashion the majority of both categories responded that to a large extent the concern Head teachers show about their needs and welfare

motivates them to teach. The responses engendered means of 3.06 and 2.97 respectively. Public school heads however showed more concern than head teachers of armed forces schools. The assertions “I am motivated to teach because my Headteacher appreciates my effort and contributions” also elicited responses that generated means of 3.13 and 2.87 respectively suggesting that respondents replied “to a large extent” but head teachers of public schools were considered to be more appreciative of teachers inputs than their counterparts.

Respondents further indicated that to a large extent their performance has improved because their head teachers always told them what to do. This was considered an unhealthy practice since it suggests that the head teacher was being autocratic and also did not have confidence in their teachers’ ability to do things on their own; It was more pronounced in public schools. With respect to whether professional development opportunities provided and responsibilities assigned to teachers by their heads motivate them, responses elicited from the majority of both public and Armed forces teachers indicate that both situations were more prevalent in public schools. A gleaning of the discourse amply reveals that to a large extent school leadership influences the performance of teachers in both public schools and Armed forces schools equally the mean of means 3.03 for both groups and or sees this position.

Rewards provided to motivate teachers.

Items 13 -17 sought to elicit responses to answer question three (3).

Table 5: Rewards Provided to Motivate Teachers

Rewards		Very true		True		Untrue		Very untrue		Mean
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Oral commendations from head teacher and colleagues motivate me to teach.	PS	17	(19.8)	53	(61.6)	12	(14.0)	4	(4.7)	2.97
	AMS	16	(17.6)	50	(54.9)	24	(26.4)	1	(1.1)	2.89
Monetary rewards from PTA or school have made me improve.	PS	5	(5.8)	29	(33.7)	30	(34.9)	22	(25.6)	2.19
	AMS	5	(5.5)	45	(49.5)	31	(34.1)	31	(34.1)	2.49
The gifts from the school and parents when I perform have made me improve	PS	6	(7.0)	26	(30.2)	34	(39.5)	20	(23.3)	2.21
	AMS	10	(11.0)	31	(34.1)	34	(37.4)	16	(17.6)	2.38
My desire to teach always has been my source of encouragement	PS	33	(38.4)	49	(57.0)	4	(4.7)	-	-	3.34
	AMS	33	(36.3)	57	(56.0)	7	(7.7)	-	-	3.29
My pupils performance motivates me to teach	PS	21	(24.4)	50	(58.1)	11	(12.8)	4	(4.7)	3.02.
	AMS	33	(36.3)	46	(50.5)	10	(11.0)	2	(2.2)	3.21
Mean of Means	PS									2.74
	AMS									2.85

Mean ranges: 1.00-1.50 very untrue; 1.60 – 2.50 untrue; 2.60 – 3.50 true; 3.60 -4.00 very true.

Table 5 demonstrates that with regard to the kinds of rewards provided to motivate teachers 53 (61.6%) and 50 (54.9%) constituting the majority of public and Armed forces school teachers respectively indicate that it is true oral

commendations from head teachers and colleagues motivate them to teach. Motivation as a result of oral commendation was slightly higher in public schools than armed forces schools as shown by their means (2.97>2.89).

On the other hand, with respect to whether monetary rewards from PTA or school improves teachers performance, whereas 30 (34.9%) public school teachers forming the majority responded “untrue” almost half (49.5%) of Armed forces teachers said it was true. The means of 2.19 and 2.49, however, imply that the claim was untrue but such rewards were more in armed forces schools than the public schools.

In response to the statements that the “gifts I am given by the school and parents when I perform have made me improve”. The majority of the teachers from public schools (39.5%) and Armed forces schools (37.4%) replied “untrue” thereby generating means of 2.21 and 2.36 depicting it as ‘untrue’. Again, the offering of gifts that improved performance was considered higher in armed forces schools than in public schools.

On the contrary, more than half respondents from both schools, 49(57.0%) and 51(56.0%) respectively, said it was true that their desire to teach always has been their source of encouragement. Surprisingly, this engendered the highest means of 3.34 and 3.29 respectively. This implies that teachers were more motivated intrinsically than the tangible things offered them. However, public school teacher were more self motivated as depicted by the mean.

In reaction to whether pupils performance motivated teachers to teach, more than half of both public school (58.1%) and Armed forces school teachers (50.5%) responded “true” with means of 3.02 and 3.21 respectively.

Summarily, though the mean of means of 2.74 and 2.85 for the two groups intimate that it is true that the various kinds of rewards offered motivate teachers in both public Armed forces school to perform, the data also revealed that reaction of public school teachers to monetary rewards and gifts were far lower than that of their counterparts. Armed forces school teachers were more motivated than public school teachers.

Interpersonal Relationship in School and Performance.

Items 18-21 in questionnaire draw extracted reactions to answer research question four (4)

Table 6: Interpersonal relationship in schools and performance

		Very true		True		Untrue		Very untrue		
Rewards		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	Mean	
Relationship with my head teacher encourages me to teach.	PS	15	(17.4)	59	(68.6)	9	(10.5)	3	(3.5)	3.00
	AMS	19	(20.9)	58	(63.7)	13	(11.0)	4	(4.4)	3.01
Relationship with my fellow teachers promotes teaching.	PS	19	(21.1)	64	(74.4)	2	(2.3)	1	(1.2)	3.17
	AMS	22	(24.2)	52	(57.0)	14	(15.4)	3	(3.3)	3.02
Cordial relationship that exists among teachers and students encourages me to perform.	PS	21	(24.4)	60	(69.8)	2	(2.3)	3	(3.5)	3.15
	AMS	18	(19.8)	63	(69.2)	10	(11.0)	-		3.09

my desire to teach	PS	33(38.4)	49(57.0)	4(4.7)	-	3.34
always has been my source of encouragement	AMS	33(36.3)	57(56.0)	7 (7.7)	-	3.29
Relationship between teachers and auxiliary staff encourages me to teach.	PS	17(19.8)	49(57.0)	16(18.6)	4(8.7)	2.92
	AMS	21(23.1)	51(56.0)	17(18.7)	2(2.2)	3.00
Mean of Means	PS					3.06
	AMS					3.03

Mean ranges: 1.00-1.50 very untrue; 1.60 – 2.50 untrue; 2.60 – 3.50 true; 3.60 -4.00 very true.

Data in Table 6 illustrate that 59(68.6%) of public school teachers and 58 (63.7%) of Armed forces teachers representing the majority intimated that their relationship with head teachers encourages them to teach. The means generated were almost equal, 3.00 and 3.01 respectively. In reaction to whether relationship with fellow teachers promote teaching, the majority of both public school teachers (74.4%) and Armed forces teachers (57.1%) said it is true. However, this was considered higher in the former than the latter as depicted by the means of 3.17 and 3.02.

Similarly, the majority of teachers of both categories of schools, 69.8% and 69.2% respectively, acknowledged it was true that cordial relationship that existed among teachers and students encouraged them to perform. This was however higher in public schools than Armed forces schools as the means of 3.15 and 3.09 suggest. It was also considered true by slightly more than half, (57.0%) and 56.0%, of teachers from both schools that relationship between teachers and auxiliary staff encourages them to teach.

In conclusion, the mean of means of 3.06 and 3.03 generated by responses of public school and Armed forces school teachers presupposes that interpersonal relationship among different parties within the school influences staffs' performance; the phenomenon was slightly higher in public schools.

Differences in Teachers Reaction to Motivation Variables

The Independent samples t-test was used to test the difference in reaction of teachers in public and Armed forces schools to the motivation variables.

Table 7: T-test Results

Motivation	No	Mean	SD	t	Df	p-values	
School environment	PS	86	12.07	2.21	-1.84	175	.854 ns
	AMS	91	12.01	2.05			
School leadership	PS	86	18.23	3.60	-2.153	175	.033*
	AMS	91	17.15	3.05			
Rewards	PS	86	13.73	2.35	1.591	175	.113ns
	AMS	91	14.26	2.09			
Interpersonal Relationship	PS	86	12.72	1.54	-1.496	175	.137ns
	AMS	91	12.12	2.21			

ns – not significant

* significant

The t-test results demonstrate that there was no significant difference in the reaction of teachers in both public and Armed forces schools to three of the motivation variables (school environment, rewards and interpersonal relations) this is because their p- values were more than the p-values of 0.05 which is the conventional marker of significant results. However, the means of public schools on school environment and interpersonal relationship were slightly higher than

that of the armed forces schools suggesting that their influence on performance were higher in the former. The mean of the rewards indicate that its influence on performance was higher in armed forces schools.

However, there was a statistically significant difference in staffs' reaction to school leadership since the significant value of 0.033 is less than the p-value of 0.05. Therefore the extent to which leadership offered in public and Armed forces school influences teachers' performance differs.

Summary of findings

Summarily, this chapter provided answers to four research questions. The investigation revealed that the environment in both categories of schools promote teaching and learning. The environment in the public school, however, was more motivating than that of the Armed forces schools.

The staff again disclosed that the democratic characteristics demonstrated by head teachers of both public and Armed forces school encouraged teaches to perform. The effect of the leadership style on teachers' performance was seemingly equal. It also came to light that the kinds of rewards offered, motivated teachers in both category of school to perform but teachers in Armed forces school were more motivated than their counterparts in the public schools.

It was also found that the interpersonal relationship among the different groups of people in both public and armed forces schools motivated the teachers to perform. Nonetheless, the level of cordiality was higher in the public schools as a result motivated the teachers better.

Finally, there were no significant differences in the reactions of staff in public and armed forces schools to school environment, rewards and interpersonal relationships in schools except leadership styles employed by head teachers.

Discussion of Findings

The study revealed that a conducive school environment motivates staff to perform. This is in agreement with Armstrong's (2005) assertion that people are more likely to be motivated if they work in an environment in which they are valued for what they are and for what they do. McHugh (2006) therefore advises that employees must be praised and recognized to add to a positive work environment.

That the kind of leadership demonstrated by Head teachers' influences teachers' performance has also been underscored by Blake and Moutton (1978) and Doyle (1986). They intimate that leadership style can determine the performance of a teacher. Stogdill (1974) however warns against the practice where head teachers always dictate or tell their teachers what to do as evidenced in public schools. He continues that in most cases school activities come to a halt when they (head teachers) are not around. Doyle intimates that democratic leaders who consider the needs, interest, rights and freedom of workers are likely to get them to cooperate. This would consequently increase work output.

Though staffs in the armed forces school were more rewarded and motivated than their counterparts in the public school, both indicated that rewards offered encouraged them to perform. This corroborates the submission of Etzioni (1961) and Rebores (1982) that a motivating and attractive reward will act as a

moral booster for workers to perform satisfactorily. They therefore support the relationship between reward and performance. The fact that the means for teachers in both school categories reactions to monetary rewards and gifts were below 2.6 presupposes that they are less promising tools to improve general teaching performance as intimated by Dechamps (1979).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This chapter is devoted to the summary of research techniques, conclusions and recommendation drawn from the study. Suggested area for further research has also been made.

Summary of Research Techniques

The investigation concerned itself with the effect of motivation on the performance of Ghana Armed Forces schools and selected public schools in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis. Four research questions relating to the school environment, leadership styles, kinds of rewards offered and interpersonal relationship in the school setup were posed to guide the study. Literature was reviewed under the concept motivation; theories of motivation; school and work environment and motivation; leadership and performance; reward and performance.

The descriptive survey design was employed in this regard to allow for the collection of data over a wide population to enable valid conclusions to be made. All basic schools in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis constituted the accessible population. However, only six public schools and six armed forces schools were involved in the study. A total of one hundred and seventy-seven respondents, comprising twelve head teachers and one hundred and sixty-five teachers were randomly and purposively selected.

In order to gather relevant data for the study, two sets of likert-type scale questionnaire with five sections were designed for head teachers and teachers. The instrument was pilot tested in two basic schools in Cape Coast by engaging two head teachers and eighteen teachers. The cronbach co-efficient alpha was used to measure the internal reliability of the instruments. This generated alphas of .741 and .783 for head teachers' and teachers' questionnaires respectively. Data gathered were analysed using frequencies, percentages and means. The independent samples t-test was also employed to test the differences between the reactions of respondents to the various motivation variables at a p-value of .05.

Main Findings

The study indicated that the environment in both public and armed forces schools promote teaching and learning. The environment in the public school, however, was more motivating than that of the Armed forces schools.

It also came to light that the leadership styles used by head teachers of public and Armed forces school encouraged teaches to perform. The effect of the leadership style on teachers' performance was seemingly equal. The investigation again demonstrated that the kinds of rewards offered motivated staffs to perform but those in Armed forces school were more motivated than their counterparts in the public schools.

It was also realised that the interpersonal relationship among the different parties in both public and armed forces schools motivated the staff to perform. However, the situation was better in public schools. More so, public and armed

forces school staffs' response to only leadership styles used by head teachers was not similar.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the study are that;

1. The school environment in public schools encouraged performance of staff than what exists in the armed forces schools.
2. The leadership styles of head teachers in both public and armed forces schools improved teachers performance equally.
3. The staffs of armed forces schools were more rewarded than their counterparts in the public school.
4. Interrelationship among the different parties in the school set up improved performance of staff of public schools better.

Recommendations

1. Schools must provide a lot of resources for teaching and learning both inside and outside the classroom to create a conducive and an enabling environment for teaching and learning.
2. Heads of institutions should be more democratic and also vary leadership style to suit a particular situation this will largely determine the kind of interrelationship that will exist between and among teachers, head, students and non teaching staff.
3. Occasionally, various kinds of rewards and incentives packages must be offered to teachers by the PTA, SMC and even the head to enable them give off their best. It should not necessarily be money.

Area for further Research

In order to further extend the literature on motivation and teacher performance in Ghana, a study can be carried out in the following area:

1. A nation-wide survey on the forms of incentives and teacher output in public and private schools in Ghana.

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teaching and learning.				
4. Teaching and learning materials and equipment provided encourage me to teach				
5. Conditions in the classrooms and surrounding make me want to teach always				
6. Furniture provided for both teachers and students make me feel comfortable to teach				

Section C: The extent to which school leadership influence teachers' performance.

This part concerns itself with eliciting responses regarding the extent to which teachers' performance is influenced by school leadership. Please, read the statement and tick the column that approximates your thinking.

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7. Opportunities the head teacher provides for me to be part of decision making in the school is encouraging.				
8. The concern the head teacher shows about my needs and welfare motivates				

me to teach.				
9. I am motivated to teach because the head teacher appreciates my effort and contribution.				
10. My performance has improved because my head teacher always tells me what to do.				
11. My performance has improved because my head teacher provides me with the opportunities for professional development				
12. I am encouraged to work because my head teacher assigns me with responsibilities.				

Section D: Rewards provided to motivate teachers

This segment seeks to find out about the kinds of rewards the school provides to motivate teachers. Please, read the statement and tick appropriately.

Statement	Very true	True	Untrue	Very untrue
13. Oral commendations from head teacher and colleagues motivate me to teach.				

14. Monetary rewards from PTA or school have made me improve upon my performance.				
15. The gifts I am given by the school and parents when I perform have made me improve.				
16. My desire to teach always has been my source of encouragement				
17. My pupils performance motivates me to teach				

Section E: Inter personal relationship in school and performance

This section seeks to extract responses with respect to whether teachers' performance are affected by their inter personal relationships. Please, read the statement and tick appropriately.

Statement	Very true	True	Untrue	Very untrue
18. Relationship with my head teacher encourages me to teach				
19. Relationship with my fellow teachers promotes teaching				
20. Cordial relationship that exists among teachers and students encourages me to				

perform.				
21. Relationship between teachers and auxiliary staff encourages me to teach.				

and equipment provided encourages teachers to teach				
5. Conditions in the classrooms and surrounding make teachers want to teach always				
6. Furniture provided for both teachers and students make them feel comfortable to teach				

Section C: The extent to which school leadership influence teachers’ performance.

This part concerns itself with eliciting responses regarding the extent to which teachers’ performance is influenced by school leadership. Please, read the statement and tick the column that approximates your thinking.

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7. Opportunities the head teacher provides for teachers to be part of decision making in the school is encouraging.				
8. The concern the head teacher shows about teachers’ needs and welfare motivates them to teach.				

9. The teachers are motivated to teach because they appreciate their effort and contribution.				
10. Teachers' performance has improved because I always tell them what to do.				
11. Teachers' performance has improved because I provide them with the opportunities for professional development				
12. Teachers are encouraged to work because I assign them with responsibilities.				

Section D: Rewards provided to motivate teachers

This segment seeks to find out about the kinds of rewards the school provides to motivate teachers. Please, read the statement and tick appropriately.

Statement	Very true	True	Untrue	Very untrue
13. Oral commendations from me and colleagues motivate teachers to teach.				
14. Monetary rewards from PTA or school have made teachers improve upon their				

performance.				
15. The gifts given by the school and parents to teachers when they perform have made them improve.				
16. My teachers have always been encouraged by their desire to teach.				
17. The pupils' performance motivates my teachers to teach				

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This section seeks to extract responses with respect to whether teachers' performance are affected by their inter personal relationships. Please, read the statement and tick appropriately.

Statement	Very true	True	Untrue	Very untrue
18. Relationship with teacher encourages them to teach				
19. Relationship with fellow teachers promotes teaching				
20. Cordial relationship that exists among teachers and students encourages them to perform.				
21. Relationship between teachers and auxiliary staff encourages them to teach.				