



**THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE REWARDS ON STAFF MORALE IN WESTERN
CAPE PUBLIC TVET COLLEGES**

by

ANDREW JEREMIAH

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**Supervisor: Prof AA RUST
Co-supervisor: Dr JG MARTIN**

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I, Andrew Jeremiah, declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on the job satisfaction and morale of educators in Western Cape Public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions. The study endeavoured to determine factors that contributed to public TVET educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape. In addition, the study investigated the job satisfaction of public TVET educators as well as the resultant morale, attrition and absenteeism brought about by educators' dissatisfaction with rewards offered. The study was also expected to present findings and make recommendations to public TVET institutions and the Department Higher Education and Training (DHET). Recommendations were supposed to be made to bring about an improvement in the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape.

A stratified purposive sampling procedure was utilised in drawing up the sample from some population of 1535 educators in the Western in 2013. The Research Advisors (2006) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970) Sample Size Tables were utilised. However, out of 308 JDI questionnaires that were initially distributed 265 were returned duly completed. The two hundred and sixty-five JDI questionnaires were processed using SPSS Version 23. As suggested by statistical analysis, the overall conclusion drawn from the research was that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards significantly predicted the job satisfaction and morale of educators in a sample of 308 derived from some population of 1535 educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions.

This study revealed that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards had a significant influence or impact on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape. It was discovered that beside extrinsic rewards such as pay and bonuses, intrinsic rewards such as the job itself were important in the job satisfaction and morale of educators. Beside the above it was also discovered that supervision, career progression opportunities and relationships among principals and staff, and among educators and learners were instrumental in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of educators. Beside the above mentioned, it was discovered that learners' grades after assessments also played a major role in the motivation of public TVET educators. It was confirmed that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards complimented each other in fostering and enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape.

The results of this study showed that job satisfaction among public TVET educators in the Western Cape could be explained by the type of rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) offered by public TVET institutions as previously indicated. In other studies, mentioned in this study it was confirmed that beside extrinsic rewards, intrinsic rewards such as the job itself and the educational institution enhanced the educator's job satisfaction and morale. When an employer fulfils the educator's intrinsic and extrinsic reward expectations, an educator's affective commitment, job satisfaction and morale is enhanced.

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GLOSSARY

CBD	Cape Town Central Business District
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
ETPD	Education, Training and Development Sector
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Scientific Organisation
EU	European Union
FET	Further Education and Training
HAPSS	Harmonised Public Service Salary Structure
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HNDE	Higher National Diploma in Education
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IT	Information Technology
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
LCIs	Low Income Countries
NCV	National Certificate Vocational
NAPTOSA	National Progressive Teachers' Organisation of South Africa
NATED	National Accredited Technical Education Diploma
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSSE	National Survey of Student Engagement
OBET	Outcomes Based Education and Training
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSD	Occupation Specific Dispensation
PGDE	Post Graduate Diploma in Education
PRP	Performance Related Pay
ROI	Return on Investment
SACE	South African Council of Education
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers' Union
SETA	Sector Education Training Authority
SPSS	Software Package for Social Sciences
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
USD	United States Dollar

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The employer and employee often argue and have heated debates on best intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for employees. These heated debates have been raging since time immemorial. The debates or arguments are endless. Sometimes the debates are very emotional and result in industrial actions. The argument on how much to reward an employee is often not resolved because the employee is always dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by the employer. At the same time the employer is not prepared to give away too much in resolving the issue (Nel, Hasbroek and Werner, 2008; Swanepoel, Erasmus, Schenk and Van Wyk, 2003; Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Hasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner, 2003:280).

Public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators are generally dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils representing the Department of Higher Education and Training (Buthelezi, 2018). Public TVET educators' dissatisfaction with rewards is a perennial problem. This problem results in public TVET educators' lack of job satisfaction. Lack of job satisfaction in turn contributes to public TVET educators' low morale. Thus, public TVET educators experience absenteeism and attrition resulting from lack of job satisfaction which negatively impact public TVET institutions efficiency (Buthelezi, 2018; Davids, 2010:8-9).

Besides the above, other factors also contribute to poor job satisfaction among public TVET educators. These factors are:

- poor leadership from South African provincial departments under whom public TVET institutions used fall under before resorting back to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) in 2012;
- lack of good support to educators from South African Department of Basic Education officers who oversaw public TVET colleges before they resorted back to the DHET in 2012;
- continuous changes in policy and teaching in the public TVET sector since 2002 (Please note that since 2002 educators were seconded to public TVET Colleges by the Department of Basic Education);
- poor communication between the Department of Basic Education and learning institutions inclusive public TVET institutions before the DHET took over the management of public TVET colleges in 2012;

- huge amounts of paperwork that educators had to deal with in the education sector in general;
- lack of resources in the classroom in the education sector in general;
- havoc created by the HIV/Aids pandemic in the education sector in general;
- undisciplined learners in the public TVET sector and the education sector in general (George, Louw and Badenhorst, 2008; Davids, 2010:9; Department of Basic of Education, 2005:7, 55, 66, 78, 82).

The aim of this research is to find out the impact of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by Western Cape public TVET institutions on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape.

Chapter One outlines the background of the study, the problem statement, the research questions and the research hypothesis. In addition, the objectives and the significance of the study as well as the outline of the chapters are discussed in this chapter.

1.2 Background

The debate or argument regarding the best intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to remunerate educators in general rages on. This debate is inconclusive because of the strong relationship between productivity, profitability (quality or efficiency in the public sector) and personal gain (Nel *et al.*, 2008; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003; Nel *et al.*, 2003:280; Foot and Hook, 1999:259; Bernadin, 2003:214-5; Bratton and Gold, 2003:276, 280).

The FET Round Table Report (2010) asserted that quality of teaching and learning, learner successes and completion rates are closely related to productivity. Quality of teaching and learning, learner successes and completion rates are generally accepted to be poor in the public TVET sector. In this case public TVET educators cannot expect good rewards if they are not efficient and effective. For example, the National Certificate Vocational (NCV), NATED (National Education Diploma) General Studies and Natural Sciences average pass rates for 2009 were 59.7%, 59.4% and 43.5% respectively (FET Round Table Report, 2010:48-49).

The Department of Basic Education which oversaw public TVET institutions before the DHET took over the management of public TVETs considered the above given results unimpressive. The Department of Basic Education looked forward to improved skills developed nation-wide and was eager to have the results improved. The Department

however felt that the statistics given above were supposed to be subjected to further scrutiny to be credible. Thereafter it would then be possible for interested parties to have a clear picture of the performance of students in specific subjects. Further scrutiny of results would help in clarifying how well the different public TVET institutions were performing (The FET Round Table Report, 2010:48-49).

Whenever the employer and employee engage in reward negotiations, they often both have hidden agendas. However, it is true that other factors beyond the employers' and employees' control affects agreements on rewards. These are factors such as the recession and high inflation in 2012. However, both parties to the employment relationship approach wage negotiations with hidden agendas as said before. During wage or reward negotiations employers and employees try to maximise their personal gains. Employers adopt such attitudes because no organisation can afford to put itself out of business by paying more than it can afford (Foot and Hook, 1999:259).

Related to the above is that in South Africa government departments are failing to utilise funds allocated to them in their annual budgets. Hence the Auditor General's Report of the 2003-04 Fiscal years revealed a major challenge that the government experiences at provincial level. At provincial level various departments were over-spending or under-spending their allocated budgets. Expenditure on key sectors such as Health, Social Development and Education exceeded the total budget of the national departments. As a result, the total number of audit qualifications rose to 62% for 2003-04 from 48% in 2002 (The Auditor General's Report, 2003-04:2). The Auditor General's preceding reports for 2007-08 fiscal years also revealed that some departments such as Education and Public Works took money back to the Treasury at the end of the fiscal year. The Department of Public Works recorded the highest levels of under-expenditure at 9.8% of total allocated funds. This type of under-expenditure implied denying the beneficiaries to allocated government funds the services they were supposed to enjoy (Skenjana, 2011).

The acceptable level of government under-spending is 2% of allocated funds. However, percentages of under-spending amounted to millions of rand that had a potential to improve lives of the poor. Although the Department of Basic Education was able to stay below the threshold of under-spending of less than 1%, it has continually under-spent on compensation of employees. (Please note that by 2011 public TVET Colleges were still under the Department of Basic Education and seconded public TVET college councils). This was attributed to high staff turnover. The under-spending was linked to

the inability of the Department of Basic Education to fill funded vacant positions before and after year 2009. However, with specific reference to the Department of Education, the Auditor General criticised the internal controls exercised. The Auditor General criticised the lack of a paper trail and misallocation between accounts of expenditure. The Auditor General also criticised high under-expenditure on transfers, subsidises and capital expenditure which impaired the performance of the department. Under-expenditure in the mentioned areas led to unreliable decision making and poor service delivery (Skenjana, 2011).

The Auditor General's report uncovered serious problems of under-spending in 2003-04 fiscal years. As implied before, under-spending or over-spending negatively impacts service delivery by the departments concerned. Under-spending or over-spending may mean that the beneficiaries were deprived of benefits intended from the allocated funds as said before. In addition to the above problem, the global recession in 2007 compounded the employers' and employees' problems. Under these difficult conditions employees constantly maximised their pay because of inflation and rising expectations. In addition, the employers were interested in sustaining the huge payrolls caused by salary increases necessitated by rises in inflation (the absolute cost of financial rewards) (Bratton and Gold, 2003:280).

To counter inflationary effects studies by The Hay Group (2008) and Raj (2006) suggested total rewards as the answer to inconclusive debates on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. It is claimed that total rewards models can be used to break impasses on extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Nel *et al.*, 2008; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003; Nel *et al.*, 2003:280).

Due to dissatisfaction with rewards offered by the employer, parties to the employment relationship continue to argue over the issue. As a result, employee lack of job satisfaction and lack of morale persists (Davids, 2010). Employees also experience low affective commitment. Due to this problem, public TVET institutions experience high educator turnover and low productivity (low efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector). In addition, messy labour disputes persist. All the above-mentioned problems have a negative impact on quality and productivity (efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector) (Buthelezi, 2018; Davids, 2010:8-9).

This study therefore seeks to investigate the socio-economic impact of public TVET educators' satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET

Colleges. The focus of this study is public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape. Satisfaction of public TVET educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards impact public TVET educators' job satisfaction and morale. The study focuses on this important dimension. Other factors contributing to the improvement of efficiency, productivity and quality in public TVET Colleges as well as in education in general are also considered (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009:3-4).

1.3 Problem statements

Problem statements were arranged and explained below as the Main problem statement, Sub problem 1, Sub problem 2 and Sub problem 3.

1.3.1 Main problem

Public TVET educators in the Western Cape experience dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and this has resulted in reduced or low job satisfaction of educators since 2002.

Explanation of main problem

Public TVET educators in the Western Cape have been experiencing dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. These rewards were paid by public TVET College Councils on behalf of the Department of Higher Education and Training. (The Department of Higher Education and Training has since taken over the role of paying educators salaries since public TVET institutions now fall under the DHET. Educators dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards resulted in educators experiencing low job satisfaction since 2002. One in every four educators in general (Be cognisant of the fact that educators were at this time seconded to public TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education) had a sense of job dissatisfaction towards the teaching profession. In addition, 33.7% of educators in general had lack of care, interest and concern about teaching. The educators in general did not also show the zeal and interest that teaching was a profession that they always desired to belong. In addition, a further 38.2% of the educators in general, inclusive of public TVET educators had negative morale towards teaching as they felt they were not deriving job satisfaction from the profession (George et al., 2008; Department of Basic Education, 2005:74).

1.3.2 Sub problem 1

Due to dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions on behalf of the Department of Higher Education and Training 38.7% of

educators in general inclusive public TVET educators in the Western Cape have been experiencing low morale since 2002.

Explanation of sub problem 1

Due to dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions including those in the Western Cape thirty-eight per cent (38.7%) of educators in general have been experiencing low morale since 2002. In addition, educators in general inclusive public TVET educators were not interested in teaching and psychologically withdrew from their work. Because of the above situation educators have experienced low job satisfaction and morale. Educators do not teach learners to the required levels of learning. As a result, learners are receiving sub-standard education and are performing poorly. This means that educators' dissatisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards negatively affect the quality of learning the learners should receive and hence the poor throughput rates of different cohorts of learners experienced in the public TVET Sector during the period under review (Davids, 2010:8; NAPTOSA, 2002).

1.3.3 Sub problem 2

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western Cape have contributed to the national increase of 5.6% educator early exits or turnover since 2006.

Explanation of sub problem 2

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western Cape contributed to the national increase of 5.6% educator in general early exits or turnover since 2006. The effect of this problem was that the South African government had to replace about 20 000 educators in general annually in the education sector in all provinces. Please note that since 2002 educators have been seconded to public TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education. In this respect, the figure 20 000 is inclusive of public and private TVET educators as well as educators in primary and high schools. Educators left the education sector in large numbers and the government was not training enough educators to replace those who left teaching for one reason or the other. Among other reasons there was a high turnover of educators in general as discussed above. Educators left the teaching profession because they were attracted to go and work in Europe. Conditions of service in Europe were perceived to be better than those in South Africa. Furthermore, general dissatisfaction with conditions of service as implied above drove educators out of the

teaching profession. Other reasons that were found to have contributed to educator turnover are lack of promotional opportunities and clear career pathing. In addition, rushed administrative processes to manage and control educator training capacity in the 1990s also contributed to high educator turnover. Young people also worsened the problem by showing no interest in joining the teaching profession. Due to above discussed problems the government had to replace approximately 20 000 educators annually from 2006 because of high educator turnover experienced in the education sector (Hall, Altman, Nkomo, Peltzer, and Zuma, 2005:1).

1.3.4 Sub problem 3

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape, public TVET institutions in the Western Cape contributed to increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other form) and eventually to an increase of 42% lost teaching and learning time in the teaching profession since 1995.

Explanation of sub problem 3

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western Cape contributed to increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other form) and eventually to an increase of 42% lost teaching and learning time in the teaching profession since 1995. The 42% teaching and learning time lost in teaching resulted from educator absenteeism in its many forms in all provinces in South Africa. For example, because of industrial action activities led by the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) and other trade unions in all the other provinces including the Western Cape, the effective and efficient operation of public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions and other institutions of learning were disrupted since 1995. In addition to the above educators inclusive public TVET educators also used teaching time to engage in activities such as selling of tape-ware to supplement their earnings. Teaching and learning in both the public TVET and the education sector in general was much disrupted by absenteeism in one form or the other during this period (Davids, 2010:8).

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are classified as shown below into Main objective, Sub-objective 1, Sub-objective 2 and Sub-objective 3.

1.4.1 Main objective

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in reduced or low job satisfaction of the educators.

1.4.2 Sub objective 1

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in 38.7% of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators experiencing low morale since 2002.

1.4.3 Sub objective 2

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in an increase of 5.6% early educator exits or turnover since 2006.

1.4.4 Sub objective 3

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase of 42% lost teaching and learning time since 1995.

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

The hypotheses for this study are arranged and described as shown below. Please note that the hypotheses are explained and discussed as shown below.

NB: H_1 mp = Alternative hypothesis for the main problem

H_0 mp = Null hypothesis for the main problem

H_1 sp1 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 1

H_0 sp1 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 1

H_1 sp2 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 2

H_0 sp2 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 2

H_1 sp3 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 3

H_0 sp3 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 3

1.5.1 Hypotheses for the main problem (H_1 mp and H_0 mp)

H_1 mp: A relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

H₀ mp: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

1.5.2 Hypotheses for sub problem 1 (H₁ sp1 and H₀ sp1)

H₁ sp1: A relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and educators experiencing low morale (dependent variable).

H₀ sp1: No relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and educators experiencing low morale (dependent variable).

1.5.3 Hypotheses for sub problem 2 (H₁ sp2 and H₀ sp2)

H₁ sp2: A relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase of educator early exits or turnover (dependent variable).

H₀ sp2: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase of educator early exits or turnover (dependent variable).

1.5.4 Hypotheses for sub problem 3 (H₁ sp3 and H₀ sp3):

H₁ sp3: A relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other form) and eventually an increase of lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable).

H₀ sp3: No relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other form) and eventually an increase of lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable).

1.6 Other reasons why educators leave teaching

Public TVET educators are dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils. Because of this, public TVET educators experience lack of job satisfaction which results in low morale. Lack of job satisfaction and low morale impacts public TVET educators' affective commitment. Public TVET educators end up leaving the teaching profession and psychologically withdrawing from work. Because of this, the argument on best intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to offer public TVET educators rages on. There has been no solution to this problem. As this debate continues, the morale of educators in general and that of public TVET educators is negatively impacted. (Please note that most educators were seconded to public TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education.). For example, in a sample of 20 626 educators in a study conducted by NAPTOSA (2002), 33.7% of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators were found to have an indifferent level of morale towards teaching (Hall *et al.*, 2005:1; George *et al.*, 2008). In addition, in a 2004 research conducted by the Department of Basic Education, 37% of male educators regretted their initial choices of becoming educators (Department of Basic Education, 2005:74).

In addition to the above discussion, low job satisfaction of educators is manifested through educator turnover. Educators in general inclusive public TVET educators leave the teaching profession for other attractive alternative jobs. Other factors that push educators out of teaching are the increasing numbers of educators dying of HIV/AIDS. Educators in general are also forced from their profession by emigration opportunities to Europe. General dissatisfaction and demotivation with conditions of service also drive educators out of the teaching field. Lack of promotional opportunities and clear career pathing are also contributing factors to educator attrition (Department of Basic Education, 2005:7).

Because of high turnover of educators, in a study on educator supply and demand, Crouch and Perry (2003:496) identified a looming huge shortage of educators in the teaching profession in general (Note that public TVET colleges educators were seconded to the TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education since 2002). Crouch and Perry (2003) attributed the looming educator shortage to factors such as the impact of HIV/AIDS. The other factors identified which contributed to the looming educator shortage were rushed administrative processes to control educator training capacity in the 1990s. Lack of interest in the profession among young people was also one of the factors that led to educator shortages. Crouch and Perry (2003:496) and

Hall *et al.* (2005:1) asserted that 20 000 educators had to be replaced annually from 2006 due to educator turnover.

To show the seriousness of educator turnover in South Africa, Figure 1.1 gives a summary of reasons why newly qualified educators opted to teach abroad in 2004.

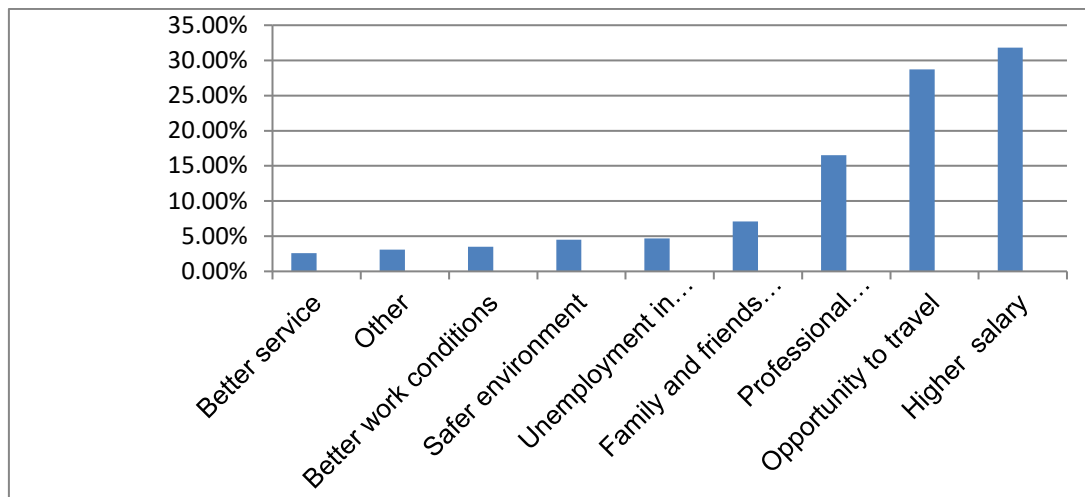


Figure 1.1: Newly qualified South African educators in general teaching abroad
(Adapted from South Africa: The Department of Education, 2005:66)

1.7 Research questions

The key research questions the study attempts to answer are listed below.

1.7.1 Does educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educator reduced or low job satisfaction?

1.7.2 Does educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educator reduced or low morale?

1.7.3 Does dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in increased early public TVET educator exits or turnover?

1.7.4 Does dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educators increased

absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase in lost learning and teaching time?

1.8 Proposed research design and method

To find answers to various questions posed this research an empirical study was utilised. The study was an empirical study that used quantitative measures to predict the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variables. The dependent variables such as the job satisfaction, morale, turnover and absenteeism of educators were verified empirically. The study investigated and analysed how the dependent variables were impacted by the independent variable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2011).

1.8.1 Research paradigm

The integrated research paradigm which was outlined by (Mouton and Marais, 2006:20-22) was utilised as a framework for the study as illustrated in Figure 1.2. To begin with, the research domain of social sciences could in general be perceived as applicable to all humankind in its diversity. This field or scope of sciences (social sciences) encompasses all human activities, characteristics, institutions, products and so on. It is therefore clear that diversity permeates different human activities, characteristics, institutions and products on the nature of the research domain. Scientific enquiry is conducted by individual human beings with vastly different personalities, cognitive styles, preferences and interests. This brings in diversity of thinking which enriches science (Mouton and Marais, 2006:11).

The integrated model depicted in Figure 1.2 follows research models articulated by (Mouton and Marais, 2006:20) with ideas borrowed from Radinsky (1973) (Contemporary schools of meta-science). The above-mentioned authors crafted paradigms of empirical research in which the social nature of science was taken as a point of departure in research studies. (Babbie, 2010:33), and David and Sutton (2011:85) and Corbetta (2003:9-10) argued that a paradigm is a model or frame of reference through which one can observe and understand phenomena. They based their arguments on the findings of (Radinsky, 1973). Paradigms are fundamental models or frameworks which one can use to organise observations and reasoning.

Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (eds.) (2006:6-7), Babbie (2010:4) and Corbetta (2003:12-13), claimed that paradigms included the entire systems of practice and thinking in research. This is the case because paradigms define for researchers the

nature of their enquiry along three dimensions. These three dimensions are namely, ontology, epistemology and methodology. In short, ontology specifies nature of reality to be investigated and what can be known about it. Secondly, epistemology specifies nature of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known. Thirdly, methodology specifies and clarifies how the researcher may go about practically studying whatever he/she believes can be known about phenomenon under study.

To this end, the integrated paradigm was developed solely for social sciences but could be adopted for studies in other disciplines (Mouton and Marais, 2006:20). (Mouton and Marais, 2006:20) claimed that Radinsky's (1973) model could be described as a systems theoretical model. Three systems are distinguished in this model. These three systems are the market of intellectual resources within each discipline; the intellectual climate of a specific discipline; and the research processes which are explained in detail in sections that follow. It is however also important to note that the three sub systems mentioned above interact with each other in a specific scope of knowledge and in a specific discipline (Mouton and Marais, 2006:20-21).

1.8.2 Intellectual climate

Intellectual climate is terminology utilised to refer to the variety of meta-theoretical values encountered in research. In addition, intellectual climate may also be used in reference to suppositions and assumptions held by those working within a discipline during a given time. Intellectual climate also alludes to groups of beliefs, values and assumptions. Because of their origination, these groups of beliefs, values and assumptions could be traced back to non-empirical backgrounds. However, the non-scientific contexts should not be misconstrued as being directly related to the theoretical goals of the practice of scientific research. Non-scientific contexts are in no way to related theoretical goals of the practice of scientific research (Babbie, 2010:4, 9, 33).

In addition, further distinguishing characteristics of the intellectual climate of a discipline are that the beliefs that appear to show-off qualities of postulations, claims, hypotheses held by researchers and scholars. These beliefs are usually neither open to being tested nor are they ever meant to be tested. The beliefs, however, constitute suppositions, claims or hypotheses that form the foundation of statements that could be tested according to an argument proffered by Radinsky (1973) and (Mouton and Marais, 2006:21).

1.8.3 Market of intellectual resources

Market of intellectual resources explains the notion of an amalgamation of convictions or belief which has a direct bearing on the epistemic status of scientific statements made by scholars. Market of intellectual resources means that the status of the researchers' knowledge claims is always questioned and tested by other researchers. The two major claims of the epistemic status of scientific knowledge are theoretical beliefs about the nature and structure of phenomenon on the one hand, and methodological beliefs concerning the nature and structure of the research process on the other hand (Babbie, 2010:4-10). The figure 1.2 on page 13 illustrates how the model works.

Theoretical claims or hypotheses are beliefs which can be subjected to some form of testing and can be tested. Theoretical beliefs or claims are claims, conjectures or hypotheses about social phenomenon that can be put to a test to prove or ascertain whether the claims initially made are close to the truth or reality. Theoretical beliefs, claims, or hypotheses could also be perceived or seen as claims that need to be tested and proven through an enquiry. This refers to the descriptive aspects of human behaviour. This may also refer to trying to find out or investing in for example, in what makes people behave the way they do in a specific setting. This may require an investigation to be conducted. The study is expected to provide answers to research questions posed. This process is a way of testing claims of a study previously conducted on a similar topic in a specific discipline. Theoretical beliefs may also be regarded as assertions of why phenomenon appears to be what it is like. This pertains to the interpretive aspects of human behaviour. In a study a researcher could be eager to establish or find out why some employees are often late for work to solve the problem of late coming. These theoretical assumptions or conjectures include much of statements formed as part of hypotheses, typologies, theories or models (Mouton and Marais, 2006:21).

Methodological beliefs concern essential characteristics of social science and scientific or empirical research. These methodological beliefs encompass a variety of different types of traditions in the philosophy of sciences such as positivism, realism, phenomenology, Neo Marxism and Marxism and hermeneutics among others. Not to be left out among the methodological beliefs are the most important methodological methods such as quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. In other words, methodological beliefs are more aligned to beliefs or claims that belong to the intellectual climate and meta-theoretical values of research. The intellectual climate

meta-theoretical values often refer to situations where researchers make claims in the form of hypotheses which may later have to be tested and are rejected or accepted. Often, methodological beliefs are no more than methodological preferences, assumptions, claims, hypotheses and presuppositions of what ought to constitute good research. It should be noted though that there is a positive correlation between methodological beliefs and the epistemic status of research findings. Methodological beliefs, such as for example the issue of scientific rigour can invariably be traced to the context of the accepted practice of scientific research in a practical sense as opposed to theory. These methodological beliefs are an important and fundamental component of intellectual resources (Mouton and Marais, 2006:23; Babbie, 2010:34-44; Corbetta, 2003:20-26).

1.8.4 The research process

Marais and Mouton (2003:23) and Babbie (2010) concur that in research projects researchers internalise specific inputs from paradigms they subscribe to. However, this internalisation is conducted in a selective manner. The internalisation enables researchers to interact with research domains in a fruitful way to produce scientifically valid research outcomes. In this context, the term 'selective' is used merely to convey the notion that individual researchers tend to incorporate only certain paradigmatic beliefs in their approaches by choice. Besides this, the term 'internalise' is used to indicate that researchers incorporate only beliefs, postulates, theories and research models they consider relevant to specific goals and research problems they are undertaking. Thus, the principle of selective internalisation may explain why researchers do not necessarily adhere to an indefinable paradigm in their research.

(Mouton and Marais, 2006:23) borrowed ideas from (Radinsky, 1973). They argued that the constraints which the phenomenon placed upon the researcher were frequently the determining factor influencing the researcher to adopt either the quantitative or qualitative approach. In this study the situation described above applied.

The above discussed situation occurred when focus was placed on how the research project was to be conducted. It also happened when a clear distinction was made between the factors that were utilised when determining research decisions on the one hand and how the decision-making process occurred on the other hand (Mouton and Marais, 2006:23).

1.8.4.1 Determinants of research decisions

Once again (Mouton and Marais, 2006:24) basing their arguments on ideas from (Radinsky, 1973) argued that determinants of research decisions could be described as tasks or problem-oriented beliefs that were derived from given claims or assumptions which were internalised. Determinants of research decisions would therefore include certain assumptions about the research domain and the specific social phenomena that a researcher may want to investigate. In addition, the paradigm can also include a specific theoretical framework or model or a specific research model, and the resultant methodological preference. The choice that a researcher makes regarding the specific inputs he/she chooses to utilise in a specific study from a given paradigm are inclined to be arrived at as illustrated in Figure 1.2. The theoretical and methodological demands posed by the research problem are usually the basis upon which the researcher selects or chooses the most appropriate and relevant methodology for the study. Further to the above, specific strategy and research goals to be implemented, are developed because of an interaction between the proposed project and elected beliefs about the phenomena.

(Mouton and Marais, 2006:24) further argues using ideas from (Radinsky, 1973) that it is essential to stress that the context of the task or problem-oriented beliefs culminate from an interaction between researchers and their conceptual framework. These beliefs are construed as the determinants of the research decisions. The determinants of the research process are also a result of the interaction between the researcher and the research domain or the discipline in which the study is conducted. This process is not chronological but ought to be viewed as dialectical. The researcher's perceptions of the domain phenomenon are antecedent to the researcher's conceptual frame of reference as is expected in this study.

1.8.4.2 The research process decision making steps

A researcher's framework of problem-oriented beliefs informs of his or her research decisions. An attempt is made to include the major common denominators to most types of research in a given model of the process. Most of the given steps are applicable to different types of research. In this context, the empirical research theory building (theoretical research) and conceptual analysis can be included among others. It should be borne in mind that the integrated model is not meant to imply that the stages of decision making necessarily follow a rigid sequence as implied before. Five typical steps of the decision-making process distinguished is the choice of a research topic or theme, are formulating a research problem, conceptualisation and

operationalisation, data collection, and analysis and interpretation of data. This study is expected to follow the steps described above (Mouton and Marais, 2006:23; Babbie, 2010).

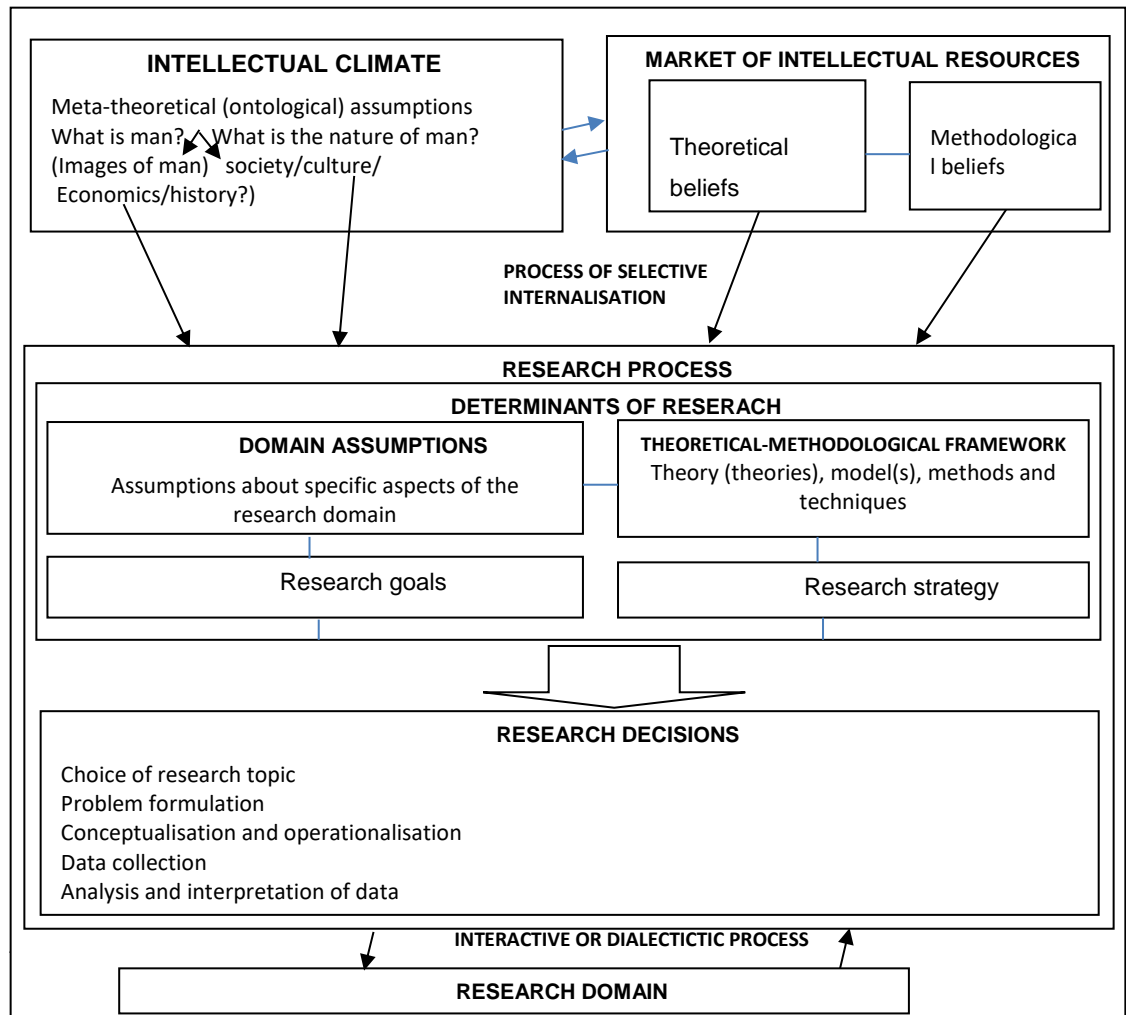


Figure 1.2: An Integrated model of social sciences research (Adapted from Mouton and Marais, 2006:22)

1.8.4.3 Hypotheses

Building on from discussions carried out so far, public TVET educators' satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and their impact on educators' job satisfaction and morale was investigated. The assumption was that lack of job satisfaction was due to dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and this influenced public TVET educators' job satisfaction and morale. If public TVET educators' job satisfaction and morale was low, public TVET educators ultimately psychologically withdrew from work. Thus, public TVET institutions experienced frequent absenteeism, loss of working time, educator turnover and increased and early educator exits. All the above mentioned was

experienced in the teaching profession in general (Public TVET college educators were seconded to public TVET colleges by the Department of Basic Education since 2002 but now fall under the DHET) (Mwamwenda, 1995).

In the previous section on hypotheses, the hypotheses to be tested were firstly, the hypothesis for the main problem (H_1 mp). The hypothesis stated that a relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable). The null hypothesis (H_0 mp) of the main problem was that no relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

Secondly, the hypothesis for sub problem 1 (H_1 sp1) stated that a relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and educators experiencing low morale (dependent variable). On the other hand, the null hypothesis of sub problem 1 (H_0 sp1) stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and educators experiencing low morale (dependent variable).

Thirdly, the hypothesis for sub problem 2 (H_1 sp2) stated that a relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase of educator early exits or turnover (dependent variable). The null hypothesis (H_0 sp2) stated that no relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase of educator early exits or turnover (dependent variable).

Fourthly, the hypothesis for sub problem 3 (H_1 sp 3) stated that a relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other form) and eventually an increase of lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable). On the other hand,

the null hypothesis (H_0 sp 3) of sub problem 3 stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and other forms) and eventually an increase in lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable).

1.9 The design of research

The relationship between public TVET educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and its impact on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators was under scrutiny. The steps listed below were utilised in the investigation.

1.9.1 Step 1: Population and sample

A population N is defined as including "... the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which a researcher wishes to draw conclusions or generalise about," (Babbie, 2010:199; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:240; Quinlan, Carr, Griffin and Zikmund, 2015:170-1). The population of this research is found in the six public TVET institutions in the Western Cape. In these public TVET institutions there were approximately 1535 educators in 2013. Therefore, using figures shown in Table 1.1 the population (N) of public TVET educators in the Western Cape in 2013 was 1535 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32).

The total number of educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape in 2013 was 1535. Female educators were 54.59% of 1535 which is equal to 838 female educators who dominated male educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape. Male educators were 45.41% of 1535 which is equal to 697 male educators. Figures and percentages in Table 1.1 show that female educators were the majority educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions. For example, 67.71% of South Cape public TVET college educators were female and 32.29% were male.

Female educators at Boland public TVET College were 64.82% of educators while males were 35.18% of the educators. At College of Cape Town 53.51% of educators were female while 46.69% of the educators were male. False Bay public TVET College was dominated by male educators who consisted 56.31% of educators while female educators consisted 43.69% of the educators. Northlink public TVET College was also male-dominated (53.86%) whereas 46.14% of educators were female educators. It is only at West Coast public TVET college where neither males nor females dominated

the other gender. Fifty percent (50%) of educators were male and 50% of educators were female (See Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Total number of educators in Western Cape public TVET Colleges in 2013

College	Lecturers		Total Number of educators (Male and female)
	Male	Female	
Boland	140 (35.18%)	258 (64.82%)	398 (25.93%)
College of Cape Town	106 (46.49%)	122 (53.51%)	228 (14.85%)
False Bay	125 (56.31%)	97 (43.69%)	222 (14.46%)
Northlink	230 (53.86%)	197 (46.14%)	427 (27.82%)
West Coast	34 (50.00%)	34 (50.00%)	68 (4.43%)
South Cape	62 (32.29%)	130 (67.71%)	192 (12.52%)
Totals	697 (45.41%)	838 (54.59%)	1535 (100%)

(Adapted from Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32)

NB:

Figures in parenthesis in Table 1.1, indicate percentage comparisons between male and female educators. Figures for management and support staff were not given prominence and were deliberately excluded since the study focused on public TVET college educators.

Tredoux and Durrheim (2013:110-113) and Sekaran and Bougie (2016:245-256) claim that sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population. This is done so that a study of the sample can reflect an informed understanding of the properties and characteristics of the population elements. The population of 1535 public TVET educators was expected to be representative of all public TVET educators in the Western Cape available to take part in this research.

1.9.2 Stratified purposive sampling

There were approximately one thousand five hundred and thirty-five (1535) public TVET educators in the six (6) Western Cape Public TVET institutions in 2013 (The Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). Three hundred and eight (308) educators were targeted for this study through a stratified purposive sampling design. Using the Sample Size Tables from (The Research Advisors, 2006; Krejcie and Morgan, 1970) a stratified purposive sampling procedure was carried out on 1535 educators (the population) to produce a sample of 308 educators from some population of 1535 educators at a confidence level of 95% with a confidence interval or margin of error of 5% (The Research Advisors, 2006; Krejcie and Morgan, 1970).

1.9.3 Step 2: Questionnaire

The instrument used for gathering data, which is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was discussed below.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job in General (JIG)

The instrument is used to measure job satisfaction in terms of specific identifiable characteristics of a job. The factors that are measured are relationships with co-workers (People in your present job), pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and work-life (Work on present job) (Smith, Kendal and Hullin, 1969).

1.9.4 Step 3: Data gathering

The data gathering instruments were sent out to research participants through emails. Respondents were advised of specific dates on which to return completed questionnaires indicated on the Job Descriptive Index (JDI).

1.9.5 Step 4: Instructions to participants

Letters explaining the nature of the study as well as requesting participants for permission to use the data supplied in study were provided. Details of how to complete and return the questionnaire was provided (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

1.9.6 Step 5: Data processing

For the purposes of testing the hypotheses, a number of statistical techniques were employed. Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were utilised. Statistical techniques such as the following were used to process the data; graphs, diagrams and tables, measures of central tendency, including the mean, median, mode and standard deviation. In addition, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient

to measure the size or strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables was utilised, as well as multiple regression analysis to measure the coefficients between the independent and dependent variables.

1.9.7 Step 6: Comparison of research findings to hypotheses

The results were compared to the given hypotheses to determine or identify patterns or relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

1.9.8 Step 7: Discussion of statistical results

Results were displayed in a compressed format in tables and figures that allowed for easier interpretation.

1.9.9 Step 8: Formulation of conclusions

This was done as per specific aims of the research and the research hypothesis.

1.9.10 Step 9: Formulation of the limitations of research

Limitations of the study were drawn from the literature review and what was gathered on the ground. Through a comparison of previous studies (the literature review) and the research findings, the researcher was able to determine the limitations of the study.

1.9.11 Step 10: Formulation of recommendations

Recommendations were made after the researcher identified from the results and the literature review some knowledge gaps or areas that were felt still needed to be researched on to provide answers to the research problems.

1.10 Significance of the study

This research is important. It provides insight and understandings into the ongoing debate on the best or effective intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for rewarding public TVET educators. The study also provides answers on how Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators' job satisfaction and morale is affected if they are dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils. The employer, the South African Department of Higher Education and Training (represented by public TVET College Councils) is investing heavily in public TVET and education in general. The Department of Higher Education and Training expects a good return on its investment in higher education and training in the form of critical skills development. Education in South Africa in general inclusive the DHET was sponsored by 5.3% of GDP and got 20% of the national budget in 2006. This was the

lion's share of the national budget. This was one of the highest rates for public investment in education in general in the world (GCIS, 2006:208). Secondly, the research endeavoured to discover new insights on the topic under investigation that could ignite further debate and research in future.

1.11 Structure of the study

This thesis is structured into chapters stated below.

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter includes the background to the study, the problem statement and research questions. The research hypothesis, the research objectives and the significance of the research, and outline of the study are also included in this chapter.

Chapter 2, 3 and 4: Literature review

Using previous literature works, these chapters (Chapter Two, Chapter Three and Chapter Four) first provide an overview of the current reward management situation in South African public TVET colleges. The situation at regional and international level on educator in general intrinsic and extrinsic rewards is included. The chapters carry out a literature survey and evaluation of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered to educators in general for their services. Motivation theories employed, problems encountered, and arguments between employers and employees on best intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are also discussed under this section.

Chapter 5: Research methodology

The research design adopted for this study, the data collection method, the target population, sampling, procedure, data collection and analysis for the research are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Presentation of results

The results from the questionnaires were displayed and presented in this chapter.

Chapter 7: Discussion of results

In this chapter the researcher presented a synthesis and analysis of what was learnt. The researcher also related the findings of the study to previous research.

Chapter 8: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

In this chapter the entire project's purpose, methods and results are summarised. The researcher affirms his reasoning throughout the dissertation and the evidence gathered.

1.12 Summary

Chapter one provided a general overview of the whole study. The background of the study was discussed and shed light on the dissatisfaction of public TVET educators with monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by public TVET Colleges. In this case it is public TVET educators and educators in general who are dissatisfied with rewards. The employer and the employee are always arguing over this perennial problem and there seems to be no end to the argument.

The problem statement which consisted of the main problem and sub problems was crafted, discussed and explained in this chapter. In addition to this, the main objective and sub objectives of the study was also formulated and discussed. After formulating the main objective and sub objectives, research questions and hypotheses related to the main objective and sub objectives were formulated. Thereafter, the researcher crafted the research hypotheses of the study which were congruent to and spoke to the research objectives and the research questions.

After the above discussions critical areas of the study were addressed. The proposed research design as well as the research paradigm was discussed. An integrated research paradigm proposed by Mouton in 2006 was adopted for this study and explained fully. In addition to this the population of study was discussed. The population of study which consisted of public TVET educators excluding management and administrative support staffs in the Western Cape was estimated to be 1535 according to statistics gathered in 2013. The sampling method utilised in this study (the stratified purposive sampling technique) was also discussed. A stratified purposive sample of 308 educators was utilised for this study.

Furthermore, the instrument used for gathering data was discussed. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which is a well-tested and a popular instrument for gathering data was discussed. The JDI was used for data collection. It was also explained that data gathered using the JDI would be processed using the Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23. After that the significance of the study was discussed. Finally, the structure or outline of the study was laid out.

CHAPTER TWO

FACTORS INFLUENCING PUBLIC TVET EDUCATORS MOTIVATION

2.1 Introduction

An interesting question one may ask oneself is whether pay is the main factor that drives public TVET educators. A naive response would be that public TVET educators and educators in general go to work to collect a pay-check and that money is their main motivator. For most of public TVET educators, money is an important motivator. This is a common phenomenon because money helps satisfy an individual educator's basic needs. For example, money fulfils human basic needs (e.g. food and shelter); money also provides higher education for one's children and is a means for a retirement which is stress free. However, people seek more than a pay-check when they go to work. For example, people may want to work in an environment of trust and respect. People may want to work in a place where they can have fun, develop relationships with others and do meaningful and interesting work. People may also seek for work opportunities where they are able to balance their work and home lives. It is therefore necessary for public TVET College Councils (Please note that public TVET have resorted back to the DHET since 2012), as representatives of the Department of Higher Education and Training, to be cognisant of the fact that pay is just one element in a set of management practices that can either improve or reduce employee commitment and satisfaction, teamwork and performance. Yes, it is true that people do work for money and that an organisation's pay level and pay structure affects productivity and employee satisfaction. On the other hand, people may also seek meaning in their lives and may seek leisure time to pursue non-work interests.

After realising that there were several factors that influenced job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators, the Department of Basic Education (Which managed Public TVET institutions and basic education before they reverted to DHET in 2012) introduced initiatives intended to improve conditions of service for educators in general inclusive public TVET institutions in 2002. These were initiatives such as policy changes, the occupation specific dispensation (OSD) and the teacher laptop initiative to mention a few examples. It is important to discuss the transformation brought about by the rapid policy changes. This discussion sheds light on efforts the South African Department of Basic Education initiated to some rewards to improve public TVET educators' job satisfaction and morale.

In this study the words “school” and “college” are used in reference to general education issues which apply to both the public TVET sector and the Basic Education sector. Both levels of education used to fall under the Department of Basic Education before year 2002 even though as from 2012 the public TVET sector reverted to the DHET. To support this argument, TVET educators’ technical qualifications and years of experience were afforded the same status for remuneration purposes using scales applicable to school educators. It should also be noted that most of public TVET college educators were seconded to these colleges by the Department of Basic Education (Papier, 2008:6; FETI, 2009; Papier, Needham and McBride, 2012).

Retention of public TVET educators and educators in general in their profession has always been a huge challenge (Department of Basic Education, 2005:78). The educator attrition rate in 2005 was estimated to be between 5 and 5.5%. To this end, the gross attrition rate fluctuated between 1997 and 2004 (The Department of Basic Education, 2005). In 1997 the national attrition rate was estimated to be around 6.9% but rose to 7% in 1998 before declining to 5.6% in the same year. The natural attrition rate of educators was caused by the fact that a significant number of South African educators in general inclusive public TVET educators left the teaching profession with the hope of getting alternative employment elsewhere. This movement of educators for greener pastures could have been a result of dissatisfaction with rewards among other reasons (Department of Basic Education, 2009:81; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011:31).

2.2 Factors influencing public TVET educators’ morale

From the discussion above it is evident that South African public Technical Vocational Education and Training educators were specifically affected by a barrage of policy changes from 1994 (Papier, 2008:6). A Government White paper in 1998 articulated the rationale for transforming the Technical Vocational Education and Training college sector. South Africa adopted a developmental route which was just the same as the one used in TVET institutions in England in the 1990s. First to be undertaken was the rationalisation and merging of 152 technical colleges in the year 2000. The result of the rationalisation process was the establishment of 50 public TVET institutions. The 50 public TVET institutions were expected to cater for the wide-ranging needs of South Africans seeking employment. The public TVET institutions were also expected to

provide higher education vocational training opportunities to those who wished to return to college.

The Further Education and Training (FET) Colleges Act (RSA 2000) transferred the responsibility for the recruitment and selection of public TVET educators to College Councils but this responsibility has since reverted to the DHET since 2012 (McBride, Papier and Needham, 2009:22). In addition, earlier research revealed that before the year 2006, public TVET educators were employed by the state (McBride *et al.*, 2009). During this period, public TVET educators were employed in what was termed 'non-establishment' positions. This meant that these positions were college appointments. The public TVET colleges were at this time able to hire staff additional to those allowed for by the state's budget since the early 1990s.

The major recapitalisation of public TVET colleges much needed infrastructure refurbishment was implemented in 2006. This was done through extensive curricular reforms and the phasing out of college outdated curricula. The outdated curriculum better known as the NATED curricula was replaced by the National Vocational Certificate (NCV) in 2007 (However, it should once again be noted that public TVET institutions have also reverted to the outdated NATED curricula). Due to these several changes public TVET college educators were given the option of remaining Provincial Department of Education employees subject to redeployment or transfer to College Councils in 2007. These public TVET educators were now under the control or authority of college council conditions of employment after an initial 12 months period with effect from 31 October 2007. However public TVET institutions have since reverted to DHET since 2012 and one can imagine how much these changes affected public TVET educators. These transformations were geared towards affording public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges more autonomy and public accountability (McBride *et al.*, 2009:22). However, the changes created more confusion for public TVET educators. In 2002 public TVET educators did not have an idea of where they stood and belonged in terms of whether their employers were the college councils or the Department of Higher Education and Training. The educators also did not know what the future held or what the future had in store for them. The colleges themselves and the Provincial Governments did not yet fully comprehend the import of the new governance issues. These policy changes created new dynamics in staff recruitment and retention in the public TVET sector (Wedekind, 2010:6).

Public TVET institution educators and the generality of educators were affected by the conditions of work in the South African education sector. When educators, inclusive public TVET educators are not satisfied with their working conditions they seek better teaching conditions elsewhere. Educators leave the teaching profession altogether and seek employment opportunities elsewhere. Educators' in general inclusive public TVET educators' levels of job satisfaction are directly influenced by the South African teaching and learning conditions. However, it should be noted that educators' attrition from the education sector is not only confined to South Africa. Other neighbouring African countries inclusive their technical vocational education and training sectors are also affected by educator attrition (Department of Basic Education, 2005:79-81). For example, the attrition rate of educators in Botswana in 2001 was 14%, and in Swaziland it was 12%. In the United Kingdom the attrition rate of educators was 15% in 2000. These statistics indicate that educators' job satisfaction in these countries was poor. Effects of poor teaching and learning conditions have generally been overlooked to a large extent in African countries. The implications of overlooking the effects of poor teaching and learning conditions in the education sector inclusive the public TVET sector are enormous in South Africa. For example, school security and violence in urban schools and colleges especially in high density suburbs is open to conditions that are prone to violence, poverty, prostitution, drugs and delinquency. The above-mentioned factors have also influenced the job satisfaction and morale of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators. Educators themselves have not been spared of the above-mentioned effects of poor learning conditions (ELRC, 2005:36).

For example, educators in general and inclusive public TVET educators are expected to engage their students for at least 1800 hours per annum. This can be narrowed down to a 7-hour day long for educators which would translate to at least 257 days. This would also mean that educators almost worked for the whole year without a rest or a break since a year is 365 days long. This is also commonly squeezed into 200 days per year. In addition, educators are expected to perform multiple duties in school beside extra-curricular activities. Extra-curricular activities utilise up to 80 hours of professional development time per annum (ELRC Collective Agreement 1 of 2013). This leaves educators with no time to develop their careers, or to be with their families (Department of Basic Education, 2005:79-81).

In addition to the above difficult conditions under which educators operate, educators' workload was a possible cause of educators' high attrition rate. Educators are perceived to have favourable working hours as well as the benefits of long college holidays by those who do not fully understand the vagaries of the teaching profession. However, letters from educators in the newspapers have shown that in addition to tutoring, educators were expected to be available after hours and over weekends for extra-curricular activities such as sports, parents' evenings, college activities and training sessions. Educators in general inclusive public TVET educators also spent long hours while at home crafting lesson plans, marking and labouring through administrative work related to their work. Administrative work that educators must fulfil after work and in their homes related to marking, setting of tests and examinations among others. This leaves educators with little or no time to spend with their families and could be another reason why educators ended up shunning their work (Department of Basic Education, 2005:80; Soudien, 2010:58).

Although the ELRC Collective Agreement 1 of 2013 stipulates the normal workload of educators, increased educator workload in public TVET institutions partly resulted from increased administrative tasks because of different curricula introduced since 1996. In addition, the location of the learning institutions, whether rural, urban, and semi-urban also influenced the nature of educator responsibilities. Because of this educators' responsibilities differed considerably. There were also historical challenges institutions faced as well as challenges that related to the location of the institution that had to be dealt with by individual institutions. In addition, the time public TVET educators spent at educational institutions during the day also depended on historical differences of schools. What occupied educators' time most was also influenced by the historical aspects. For example, some urban public TVET institutions have always insisted that educators go the extra mile in working extra hours for the good of the learners. Public TVET college sizes and class size in terms of overcrowding, shortages of learning materials and resources and increased administrative tasks for staff was another problem stressing educators. Gender based differences and bias focusing on what educators do were still prevalent in some institutions. For example, female educators are still discriminated against in terms of promotional opportunities and decision-making involvement. This discrimination and gender bias relates to lack of opportunities for females to be promoted as principals and heads of departments. Different cohorts of learners also spent different amounts of time on specific activities. This is sometimes caused by the nature of the learning disciplines offered. As a result, educators find it

difficult to meet demands of Outcomes Based Education and Training (OBET). The above-mentioned problems were compounded by an acute shortage of teaching and learning resources, and the effect of the requirements of the implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (Adedeji and Olaniyani, 2011:7; Department of Basic Education, 2005:81).

IQMS is perceived as an effort by management towards encouraging or motivating educators to plan and chart their own career development in collaboration with their peers and other stakeholders. IQMS as a tool and process was designed to provide a reliable instrument to assist in the evaluation of educators for developmental purposes. The IQMS system was considered effective for encouraging and motivating educators to be authors of their own career development. Anything to do with employee career development is the sole responsibility of each individual employee it is argued. The employer only offers support in helping the employees to make sound choices as well as support in the form of financial and advisory support. However, there was a possibility of differences in interpretation of the criteria to be applied when using the IQMS instrument. It has been observed that the implementation of IQMS has been ineffective. Many problems and inconsistencies have been highlighted in the implementation of the system. There have been many complaints indicating that the system has been afforded insufficient time to test it. The implementation process of IQMS has not been effective as it has been affected by organisational lack of development and support. The IQMS process is also viewed as time consuming and with too much bureaucratic controls or bottlenecks (Department Higher Education and Training, 2013:98-99; Moghli and Azizi, 2011).

2.3 Uniqueness of public TVET colleges

There are 50 public TVET institutions in South Africa. There are 50 public TVET institutions nation-wide. In the Western Cape there are six (6) public TVET institutions altogether. Three of the colleges are located and operate in small farming towns outside Cape Town Central Business District (CBD). These colleges are West Coast, South Cape and Boland. The other three colleges are in Cape Town. There are 17 campuses in the six (6) public TVET institutions in the Western Cape (McBride *et al.*, 2009:3-4).

The three-urban public TVET colleges are False Bay, College of Cape Town and Northlink. In total urban public TVET institutions have twenty-one (21) campuses. Individual campuses differ in magnitude and size in terms of staff compliments and

student enrolment. In these institutions educator complement per college varies from about 60 educators to over 240 full-time educators (McBride *et al.*, 2009:3).

Since 2010, the public TVET sector has been under the ambit of the Department of Higher Education and Training. In 2009 the Department of Education was split into two, the Departments of Basic Education and Higher Education and Training. The TVET band was placed under the Department of Higher Education and Training. However, the Department of Higher Education has now totally taken over from the College Councils. But before the DHET took over from College Councils a lot of confusion and frustration were caused among public TVET educators. Public TVET educators were keen to work under the Department of Higher Education and Training. The educators looked forward to this arrangement with high expectations that their conditions of employment would improve. Public TVET educators had uncertainty and anxiety in what the future held because of these anticipated new developments (SACE, 2011:5-6).

2.4 Stability of the public TVET sector

The public TVET sector must maintain stability, efficiency and effectiveness due to its strategic importance in skills development and artisan training in South Africa (Akoojee, McGrath and Visser, 2011). The public TVET sector must be stable because it is critical to South Africa's strategy for skills development and artisan training. In this regard, the Department of Higher Education's aim was to introduce salaries and work conditions that could attract and retain highly qualified educators (Sapa, 2010). The urgency with which the Department was trying to address these issues showed that there were problems in this sector which merited urgent attention and correction to bring about stability.

The TVET sector offers technical vocational education and training which leads to the attainment of National Qualifications Framework (NQF) Levels 2, 3 and 4 certificates. This new institutional model of public TVET colleges was established through the FET Act of 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998). The NQF levels 2 to 4 are equivalent to Grades 10 to 12, and the National Technical Certificate 1 to 3 in public TVET institutions. These levels are integrated within the NQF provided by the South African Qualifications Authority Act of 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995) (Department of Basic Education, 2005:32-33).

Because of the above-mentioned legislation, students in public TVET institutions are awarded the National Certificate Vocational (NCV) and Technical (engineering), Business and Management Studies diplomas and other related disciplines. Public TVET institutions are intended to cater for youth who are not attending school or have since dropped out of school. Youths and adults are expected to be equipped with skills that will make them self-reliant (GCIS, 2006).

As indicated previously, public TVET colleges have been undergoing transformation since 1996. The state of transformation was put into motion and propelled by both external intellectual and aid influences. The transition culminated in public TVET colleges becoming more focused on responsiveness to the needs of industry. In addition, the transformation also assisted in promoting employability rather than unemployment of graduates. This idea was linked to a number of changes in the management and governance issues of the institutions at institutional and national levels (Akoojee and McGrath, 2008:209). Public TVET institutions were and are expected to operate as private companies. They were expected to focus on fulfilling government expectations of contributing in a big way to the development of skills nationwide (Wedekind, 2010:6).

Further to the above discussion, the key legislation regarding public TVET institutions in South Africa was the FET Act of 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998). The above-mentioned Act was backed up by greater detail in the Further Education and Training (FET) White Paper (RSA, 1998b). However, the FET Act of 1996 (Act No. 98 of 1998) was replaced by the FET Colleges Act of 2006 which has also been since replaced by the Further Education and Training Colleges Amendment Act of 2012 (Act No. 3 of 2012). For public TVET institutions (there are also private TVET institutions in South Africa now referred to as private colleges) the subsequent major process is detailed in the Further Education and Training Colleges Amendment Act of 2012 (Act No. 3 of 2012). The Further Education and Training Colleges Amendment Act of 2012 (Act No. 3 of 2012) which replaced the FET Colleges Act of 2006 was crafted with the sole aim of replacing all references to provincial authority to the Minister of Higher Education and Training. In this Act the authority to run and manage TVET institutions was vested in Minister Higher Education and Training instead of a member of the provincial executive council (MEC) as was the case in the past. In addition, all references pertaining to the head of department (HOD) were now under the control of a Director General (DG). It therefore

meant that Minister of Higher Education and Training has since retained direct control of TVET institutions. The Act further provided details of how committee members of a college council and staff in public colleges were supposed to conduct themselves in their dealings with members of the public and other stakeholders. In addition to the above the Act also provided policies and procedures of how business in public TVETs was supposed to be carried out. Furthermore, the Act provided procedures and policies on appointment of staff and how institutions were to be transformed from being managed by FET College Councils to the new dispensation of being under the direct control of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) (Further Education and Training Colleges Amendment Act Number 3 of 2012).

For public TVET institutions, the above discussed regulations brought about the transformation of previous state aided technical colleges into large, multi-site and partially autonomous institutions. These institutions were expected to be run on more business-like lines. In addition, public TVET institutions were to be more responsive to the needs of the business community and the nation at large (Akoojee and McGrath, 2008).

In response to the above-mentioned challenges and the South African government expectations, starting in May 2011, the 50 public TVET institutions started offering practical skills training in the fields of Electrical Engineering and Road Maintenance. Carpentry and many other courses were also offered. Students at West Coast College (Atlantis Campus) for example, are participating in the programmes on a six (6) month basis in partnership with the Department of Works–Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). More than 32 000 learners are expected to receive this training and to be prepared for the job market (*The Skills Portal*, 2010).

The public TVET sector is strategic for skills development and help to meet skills shortages in technical and business disciplines in South Africa. The South African Government invested 5.3% of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on basic education and further education and training in 2006. The South African education system was allocated the largest portion of the national budget as compared to other countries in 2006. The given statistics on funding of education in general was evidence of considerable progress made in education and the seriousness with which the South

African government considered the issue of skills shortages and development (GCIS, 2006:208).

Out of 1.1 million learners in all education sectors in South Africa in 2013, a total of 639 618 learners were in public TVET institutions (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:5, 22). The above-mentioned statistics showed that the public TVET sector is a critical further education and training component which the Government believes it can use to improve skills shortages among South Africans. Therefore, the South African government would like and prefers a stable, efficient and effective public TVET college sector. This sector is strategic to the country's achievement of strategic goals for skills development and artisan training (Holm and Vollman, 2012:4-5).

Because of the above-mentioned expectations, the Republic of South Africa hopes that public TVET institutions are to cater for 1 million students by 2014. However, stability, efficiency and effectiveness in this sector are being hampered by problems of high attrition of educators (DHET VCET, 2013:3; Department of Basic Education, 2011/2012:161). Out of a total staff compliment of 452 971 educators in general nationwide, and cognisant of the fact that most educators in public TVET institutions were seconded to the colleges by the Department of Basic Education, 36% of educators in the public TVET colleges left the sector partly due to confusion in salaries and other related factors (OECD, 2008:59). The other reasons why educators left the teaching profession were the conditions of service and confusion in terms of ever-changing legislation in the public TVET sector (Pitsoe, 2013:310).

Enrolment figures in public TVET institutions as of 2013 were 639 619. The enrolments at private TVET institutions was 154 632 learners during the same period under review. This gave a combined total of 794 250 in the whole of TVET sector which was far short of the projected one (1) million students by 2014 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:5,22).

2.5 Reward improvements in the South African public TVET sector

Under this heading discussions on reward improvements in the public TVET sector were carried out. Conditions of service and improvements on compensation in general

were discussed. The OSD and the teacher laptop initiative which also benefitted public TVET educators are some of the improvements on rewards touched on.

2.5.1 Introduction

Before year 2006 prior to public TVET College Councils assuming responsibility of managing the colleges, public TVET educators were employed in 'establishment'. This meant that public TVET educators were state appointed. Due to this state of affairs educators in public TVET institutions were state appointed. Under the employment of the state, educators in public TVET institutions enjoyed public service conditions of work. Public TVET institutions were allowed by the state to hire extra educators on non-establishment. These were college appointment posts under employment conditions decided upon by the respective public TVET College Councils.

The above-mentioned conditions of employment in which public TVET educators operated or worked under have since changed. The public TVET College Council approved the conditions of employment of college employees. However, the conditions of employment varied from each of the 50 public TVET institutions, but the South African Labour Act was taken into consideration in whatever conditions of employment an individual public TVET institutions came up with for its educators and other employees. The determination and review of salaries for lecturing and support staff also varied from each of the 50 public TVET colleges. In the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) Collective Agreement 1 of 2013, a generic contract of employment for Post Level 1 lecturers was crafted. The agreement was binding on all parties including public FET colleges (Now referred to as public TVET institutions) represented by a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) as an employer. In addition, educators in Post Level 1 were supposed to be members of a trade union party to this agreement. However, a note of interest is the fact that members of the ELRC confirmed that different public TVET colleges developed their own different contracts of employment. This resulted in different public TVET colleges offering educators different and varied contracts of employment with different conditions of work. The ELRC categorised the contracts of employment used by different colleges into three. Firstly, there was a contract of employment for educators who were formerly employed by the state and were seconded to the colleges. Secondly, there was a contract of employment or letter of appointment which applied to educators appointed by a college after 1 January 2008 but remunerated through the Persal System. Thirdly there was also a contract of employment who was remunerated by the College Council. Because of the above-mentioned challenges, the ELRC Council found it prudent to come up with a generic

contract of employment that was supposed to apply to all Post Level 1 educators in public TVET colleges (Please note that all the above discussed and mentioned have since changed since the public TVET colleges reverted back to the DHET in 2012) (ELRC, 2013; McBride *et al.*, 2009:67).

2.5.2 Conditions of service for public TVET educators

This section endeavours to highlight efforts the South African government made to improve the conditions of service in the public TVET sector. It is important to discuss the FET Colleges Act of 2006 (Act No.16 of 2006) as it governed the running of public TVET colleges at that time. Therefore, the study would have been incomplete without this discussion.

FET Colleges Act 16 of 2006 stipulated or prescribed that public TVET College Councils were supposed to employ all educators and supporting staff although most educators were seconded to the colleges by the Department of Basic Education. Subject to this Act, the Labour Relations Act (LRA), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA), the Employment Equity Act (EEA) and any other applicable laws were applied accordingly. Public TVET College Councils had the duty to establish posts for lecturers and supporting staff. As a result, public TVET College Councils were supposed appoint and remunerate staff from funds allocated by Provincial Governments.

However, public TVET educators in the old dispensation before 2002 were not required to have specific teaching qualifications. Their technical qualifications and years of experience were given equivalence for remuneration purposes using scales applicable to school educators. The new dispensation from 2002 therefore started making the public TVET colleges contemplate the implications with regards to the new employee conditions of service and employer responsibilities (Papier, 2008:6).

The problem that researchers face when they want to compare educators' rewards in different third world countries is that there was no comprehensive cross-country analysis of educators' pay in Low Income Countries (LICs) for well over a decade. The evidence which is available suggested that educator pay was generally very low in South Africa as well. Educator pay is declining in real terms in most of the Low-Income Countries (LICs). Educators in most of Low-income Countries earn less than three

United States dollars a day. This was the main source of household income for most educators. In addition, the overall structure of educators' pay share most of the pervasive characteristics of public sector pay systems in Low Income Countries, South Africa included. Formal education and professional qualifications determine salary levels. Please note that as said before public TVET educators in South Africa were seconded to public TVET by the Department of Basic Education. The salary scales for educators in general were often very flat with very small salary increments awarded because of seniority and experience. This had little or no link with actual job performance of an educator (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007:7; Hussain, Yunus and Daud, 2013).

2.5.3 Improvements on educators' compensation

This section is important for this study in that it sheds light on what efforts the Department of Education made towards improving intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in the education sector in general. Public TVET educators and educators in general are dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards though. This affects public TVET educators' morale as well as their output. The literature on government's efforts to improve rewards in the education sector in general provided the researcher with new insights on rewards management in the public TVET sector. The literature also answered questions why public TVET educators behaved the way they did despite efforts made by the South African government to improve rewards in the public TVET sector.

The South African government is aware that educators are a key enabling factor in improving the quality of education and skills shortages. The government is also cognisant of the fact that education is a labour-intensive profession. Without adequate numbers of high quality and motivated educators it is impossible for the South African population to gain access to quality education. It is suggested that to meet its commitment of quality education for all by 2015, the state must influence young people into joining the teaching profession. The government also has to provide adequate teacher education and retain qualified teachers in the profession. All these three suggestions can only be fulfilled through improving working conditions of public TVET educators (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). Among educators in general aged 25-34 in South Africa, resignations accounted for 80% of terminations. The main reason given for the above-mentioned developments was that younger educators were giving the

education profession a try while waiting for better employment opportunities elsewhere (ETPD SETA, 2005-/2010: 32; ELRC, 2005:38; Ngambi, Maina, Kibet and Njagi, 2013).

2.5.4 Improvements on educators' conditions of service

The Department of Basic Education realised that it was losing several educators due to poor employment conditions. The department designed several policies to deal with the problem including the use of exit interviews. The efforts the department was making to reduce educators' dissatisfaction with the rewards offered were highlighted in this section. It was important to include this section as it showed what efforts the government was making to improve educators' rewards. However, public TVET educators and educators in general remained dissatisfied. It was also important to find out why educators in general remained dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards when the government was making concerted efforts to improve their conditions of employment.

In a bid to improve educators' conditions of service the Department of Basic Education budget for 2005 was R 6.9 billion. This figure was for improving educators' salaries. There was a further R 2.7 billion for 2004/05 set aside to pay outstanding promises and undertakings the government made which had to be honoured. Four billion rand (R4.2billion) was allocated towards ensuring that career progressions were supported by ensuring that good performance by educators was rewarded. This allocated amount (R4.2 billion) was also meant to ensuring that employees who excelled in their work were rewarded by utilising targeted incentives. Attention was also geared to creating career paths for educators who were experienced as well as towards the improved conditions for school principals. The government also set aside funds for the revamping of school infrastructure, equipment and resources. All these efforts were made in a bid or an attempt to improve the conditions of school infrastructure. The government was trying to improve for the better working environments in different parts of the country (Department of Basic Education, 2005:83).

In addition to the above-mentioned and discussed efforts to improve conditions of service for educators, the Department of Basic Education tried to introduce a range of incentives designed to retain educators. These incentives were also intended to entice and encourage educators in general inclusive public TVET educators to remain in the teaching profession. The financial incentives introduced by the Department of Basic

Education were in the form of bonuses for educators who had worked for the department for ten (10) years, fifteen (15) years and twenty (20) years or more. Induction or orientation sessions which ensured professional development as a continuous process throughout one's teaching career was also introduced. The competencies or standards identified for induction developed further upon the competencies that one gained during the initial teacher training stages (Department of Basic Education, 2005:83-96).

Clear career-pathing is one of the strategies that were used to retain educators. Clear career-pathing was expected to enable educators to progress either through assuming added responsibilities that exposed educators to more facets of the job and gain more experience (lateral moves). Educators could also move up the organisational ladder through promotions and assume management positions (vertical movements) in the education system. As implied above, career-pathing was expected to keep the educators in the classroom by providing teaching and learning-related progression opportunities on all salary levels up to director level. For a while, the career-pathing of educators in South Africa had three distinct paths. These paths have catered for those educators who opted to work in offices (Administrators and managers), those who preferred and enjoyed continuing working as educators in the classrooms, and those who preferred to be confined to lecturing in TVET institutions. It has however been not easy for most of the educators to get promoted into higher positions in the Department of Basic Education. Promotional opportunities have been highly limited (Department of Basic Education, 2005:96).

A further weakness of this system since 2002 has been that the entry levels were different from each other based on formal qualifications alone. No salary progression movements were made by the system. As a result, there was no movement among educators because several educators remained on the same levels for many years. This is one of the factors that contributed to low job satisfaction and motivation for educators seeking better paying optional jobs. In most cases educators have sought better paying alternative employment in other occupations outside the education system. The other problem was that, in most situations, most educators remained on the same on the salary scale. An individual educator was placed onto a specific point of the scale on appointment and remained at the point for several years. This was done cognisant of individual educators' previous point on the salary scale. In some cases,

educators would then progress upward the scale annually until they reached the ceiling or apex of the scale that is assigned to that post. Now, the new Post Salary Structure, ensures that educators are free at any given time to choose where they desire to be as far as promotional opportunities are concerned. Educators can either be managers or be based in the classroom in their entire work life. This is the option that has always been missing and unavailable in the education sector as implied earlier on. Because of the above discussed it is no longer necessary for one to seek a management position to progress in the teaching profession in terms of salary increases. An educator can now opt to remain a classroom practitioner as compared to a manager but an educator who makes such a choice is still able to progress upwards in terms of salary increments (Department of Basic Education, 2005:96).

In conclusion, the salary structure introduced around 2005 made a clear distinction between Post structure and Salary structure. The authority that one held and exercised was reflected by post structure while the complexity in the job that one held was reflected by the salary structure. Progression that an educator for example had made in terms of promotions had until now been nominally based on satisfactory performance. However, it has been extremely rare for an educator not to be granted any due annual increment irrespective of how they performed (Department of Basic Education, 2005:96).

2.5.5 The occupation specific dispensation (OSD)

The Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) is one of the methods the Department of Education introduced to improve intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. It is important to discuss the OSD under this section to shed light on what the Department of Basic Education tried to do to improve conditions of employment for educators in general inclusive public TVET educators.

The 2007 strike resulted in the ELRC Collective Agreement Number 3 of 2008: Framework for the establishment of an Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) for educators. The Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) focused on ensuring a fair, equitable and competitive remuneration structure for identified classes of employees. It was projected towards providing for larger salary bands and substantial overlaps between salary levels. The provision of quality education was or is further recognised through career path opportunities and additional remuneration. Educators who

performed their duties well are rewarded through the Occupation Specific Dispensation strategy (ELRC, 2009; Davids, 2010:9).

In conclusion the Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) was expected to ensure that a fair and equitable remuneration structure for educators was in place. It was also a forward-looking plan to systematically increase salaries after pre-determined periods based on specific criteria. Pre-determined criteria such as performance, qualifications, competence, scope of work, and experience was used. Thus, the Occupational Specific Dispensation strategy enhances the quality of education in the process in that educators are motivated to do their work or go the extra mile for the benefit of learners (Davids, 2010:9; ELRC, 2007/8:4).

In addition, the Department of Basic Education (Please note that the Department of Basic Education was seconding educators to public TVET colleges as from 2002) proposed to introduce for the first time, a performance evaluation system. This performance management system considered learner performance as part of educator evaluation. This meant that in the future, good educators would be well rewarded for good performance. Salary scales were lengthened considerably ensuring more favourable retention of staff. There was no need for the salary scale to move into a management level as specialist teachers would be earning considerably more by staying in the classroom. All this ushered in a dramatic new era for education in general inclusive the public TVET sector (Davids, 2010:9; Ngambi *et al.*, 2013).

2.5.6 The teacher laptop initiative

It is also important to discuss the project in which educators received laptops under this section. This helps to illustrate that even though educators in general inclusive public TVET educators were dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, the department was trying to improve the situation. This also shows that the government was aware of the reward problems in the education sector in general, hence the need for improvement.

The Teacher Laptop project which applied to educators in all sectors of education (inclusive the public TVET sector) was introduced by the Department of Basic Education to try to address South Africa's need for quality education as said before.

This strategy was part of a comprehensive and holistic plan by the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders in the education sector to improve the overall quality of education. This could only be achieved by making resources available to learners and educators. It was hoped that this new strategy and initiative motivated and encouraged the educator to stay longer in the teaching profession. The strategy also formed part of the Department of Basic Education's objective to improve information technology (IT) in teaching and learning (Davids, 2010:2, 5).

2.5.7 Current regional and international trends

This section endeavours to shed light on how other countries with similar problems concerning intrinsic and extrinsic rewards managed the contentious issue of rewards management. The current situation on reward management at regional and international levels is discussed in this section.

In Zimbabwe the situation on reward management is intense and produces heated debates. This happens every year around July when salary collective bargaining is underway. Debates on salary increments and improvement of work conditions are highly emotional and often unresolved (Ngwenya, 2015; Chikukwa, 2017). In Zimbabwe salary adjustments are based on the general cost of living or inflation rate, and the poverty datum line. The cost of living or inflation rate is the rate at which the general level of prices for goods or services rises over a period. Subsequently, the purchasing power of the consumers falls due to inflation and workers would like to be cushioned against inflation. Hence salary and wage increment demands made by employees (Lieberman and Hall, 2010).

To add to the above discussion, poverty datum line is the most popular way of measuring poverty. Poverty datum line is defined as a standard of comparison or point of reference about poverty. A poverty datum line can be used to measure both absolute and relative poverty. This is done by measuring the median income of people living below a certain income quintile (The Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation, 2012).

In South Africa, the inflation rate in 2010 was at 4.6% (*Statista, 2018*). Please note that the inflation rate never stopped its upward trajectory trend. In 2016 it was measured at 6.34%; in 2017 it was measured at 5.43%; in 2018 it is measured at 5.33% and

projected to be at around 5.5% in 2019 according to (Statista, 2018). In 2010 the Department of Education offered educators a 7% salary increment. Educators were dissatisfied with the salary percentage increase and did not accept it (Vermeulen, 2015). In South Africa the inflation rate has since risen to higher levels as figures given above indicate. In April of 2012 it was recorded at 6.10 percent. The South African inflation rate rose by 2.04 percent from 2011 levels (Statista, 2018; Rangasamy, 2010). The COSATU General Secretary, in 2011 threatened that labour was going to turn against the bosses. This was because bosses had awarded themselves salary increases of 30-40% above inflation and were offering the workers' salaries below the inflation rate of 4.6% in 2010. The situation in South Africa was not different from that in Zimbabwe. In Zimbabwe the highest paid executive was earning a monthly salary of between US\$ 8000.00 and US \$ 10 000.00 in 2011. In July 2011 civil servants earned an average monthly salary of US \$ 253. This salary for the lowest paid civil servant in Zimbabwe was below the poverty datum line of US \$500 (Uzhenyu, 2015).

Due to problems discussed above, several economists have suggested that Zimbabwe should endeavour to increase productivity. When increase in productivity is achieved workers should be rewarded for their efforts (Uzhenyu, 2015). However, South African employers may argue that in Zimbabwe, although the salaries of employees seem to be very low, they could be very high as compared to those in South Africa or regionally. It can further be argued that if productivity (quality, effectiveness and efficiency in the Public Service Sector in South Africa) is considered, Zimbabwean salaries are higher than those in South Africa. Production or capacity is different from productivity. Companies may record good results but fail to record significant gains in productivity. This may be used as an argument by employers in wage negotiations in the public TVET sector.

At international level, Brazil has 5 561 educators, twenty-six states and one federal district each with its own education system and regulations. The situation in Brazil is highly heterogeneous and complex regarding educators' careers and salaries. Salaries differ according to region, population characteristics, regional and local productive systems, financial capacity, federal or state funds and political and cultural tradition. In the public-sector career structures, there is differentiation of jobs and functions. Differentiation of jobs and functions has implications on how to fill vacancies and for salaries. Differentiation of jobs is also reflected in the diverse options at each level of

government when it comes to incorporating educators into the system as well as in career progression (Gatti and de sa Barreto, 2011:225, 227).

In Brazil to a certain extent the representation of teaching as a vocation and mission has distanced the profession socially from the idea of a professional class of workers who fight for survival and with the concept of selfless dedication (Gatti and de sa Barreto, 2011:225). Gatti and de sa Barreto (2011:225) says that in many cases educators find it very difficult to fight for salaries in the social and political sphere. However, in Brazil, the education sector has the largest volume of jobs thus generating a considerable burden on public authorities. Generally, the starting salary of educators in Brazil is very low when compared to other similar professions where a degree is required. Recently established starting salary for educators is at R\$ 950.00. An improvement in the remuneration of educators is expected though (Gatti and de sa Barreto, 2011:228).

2.6 Reward system appropriate for the public TVET sector

Under this section a reward system appropriate for the public TVET sector is proposed. This is done cognisant of the discussions conducted so far and insights gained from regional and international reward systems of what may constitute an appropriate reward system.

2.6.1 Introduction

The reasons for public TVET educators being dissatisfied with rewards offered by public TVET College Councils could be attributed to their unhappiness with poor salary packages and poor working conditions. Other causes of public TVET educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards is work overload and frequent changes in curriculum (Hall, Altman, Nkomo, Pelter and Zuma, 2005; The Department of Education, 2005). Public TVET educators also experience dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils due to other factors such the type of relationships they have with principals to mention a few examples. The low morale the public TVET educators experience ultimately results in lack of job satisfaction. Employee lack of job satisfaction leads to high absenteeism. It also leads to high staff turnover. The above-mentioned negative effects compromise the quality of education offered to learners by the educators.

Total rewards encompass everything that the employee perceives to be of value to him or her in exchange for the labour that he/she provides to the employer. This results from the employment relationship. The Total reward model is therefore the most ideal or suitable for the public TVET sector to adopt. This suggestion is based on the discussions carried out so far (Bussin, 2014; Shields, 2007:31).

From the discussions carried out so far in this study, it was concluded that job satisfaction of public TVET educators was mostly determined by intrinsic motivation factors. The Total Reward Model developed by the WorldatWork group was proposed a suitable reward model for the public TVET sector. This reward model provides for both the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The other part of the reward in the Total Reward model, the relational or intrinsic reward can be provided at no cost to the organisation most of the time.

2.6.2 Total rewards

Total rewards mean or pertain to a reward strategy that an organisation can adopt to have competitive advantage over its competition. The total reward strategy includes other additional components that may appeal to employees such as learning, and development opportunities offered to employees. The Total Reward strategy includes aspects of the working environment like quality of work life infused into the benefits package. Total rewards are all the incentives at the disposal of the employer which he/she can use to attract, retain, motivate and satisfy employees (Raj, 2008/2010).

In addition, Total rewards include everything the employer offers the employee in exchange for labour provided. This is true on condition the employee believes and considers the reward is of value and benefit to him/her. This means that the definition of total rewards encompasses traditional quantifiable elements like salary, variable pay and benefits. Total rewards also include more tangible non-cash elements such as welfare, work-life balance, performance, appreciation, recognition and development or career development opportunities. Non-cash elements such as scope to achieve and exercise responsibility, career development opportunities, learning and development are also elements of the total reward. The intrinsic motivation provided by the work itself and the quality of work-life provided by the organisation are also part of non-cash elements of the total rewards strategy. The above-mentioned total rewards suit the public TVET institutions well. These institutions are learning organisations with

educators who can be motivated by a wide range of rewards the Total Reward Model offers (Shields, 2007:31; Zhoutao, Jinxi and Yixiao, 2013:63).

Educators who are stimulated by interesting work and opportunities to grow on the job are more likely to be satisfied with the rewards in this regard their employer offers. These employees are less likely to leave the organisation in the short term. Public TVET College Councils can realise several benefits from adopting and utilising the Total Reward Model. Firstly, turnover is reduced drastically since the Total Reward Model has a variety of elements in it that are capable of motivating employees. Secondly, employees are more likely to contribute ideas that assist the organisation to remain more competitive. Consequently, it is becoming more and more critical for organisations to present employees with opportunities to improve their skills on a regular basis. In this case, both the public TVET College Councils and the DHET now that it has resumed control of the public TVET institutions, and public TVET educators are expected to benefit immensely from the introduction of the Total Reward Model (Moore and Bussin, 2012).

Total rewards include all types of rewards that can appeal to an employee and can be looked at as a package of different rewards in one. Total rewards can be indirect as well as direct, intrinsic as well as extrinsic. All aspects of the reward such as base pay, contingent pay, employee benefits and non-financial rewards, including the job itself are combined and treated as an integrated and coherent whole. This is what is required in the public TVET sector to stimulate the motivation of the educators. Total rewards constitute the impact of two categories of rewards. These two categories are transactional rewards which are tangible rewards arising from the transactions between the employer and the employee related to pay benefits. Second are relational rewards which are intangible rewards concerned with learning and development, and work experience and are considered to have a lasting effect on the employee in terms of motivation (Manus and Graham, 2003; Shields, 2007:31).

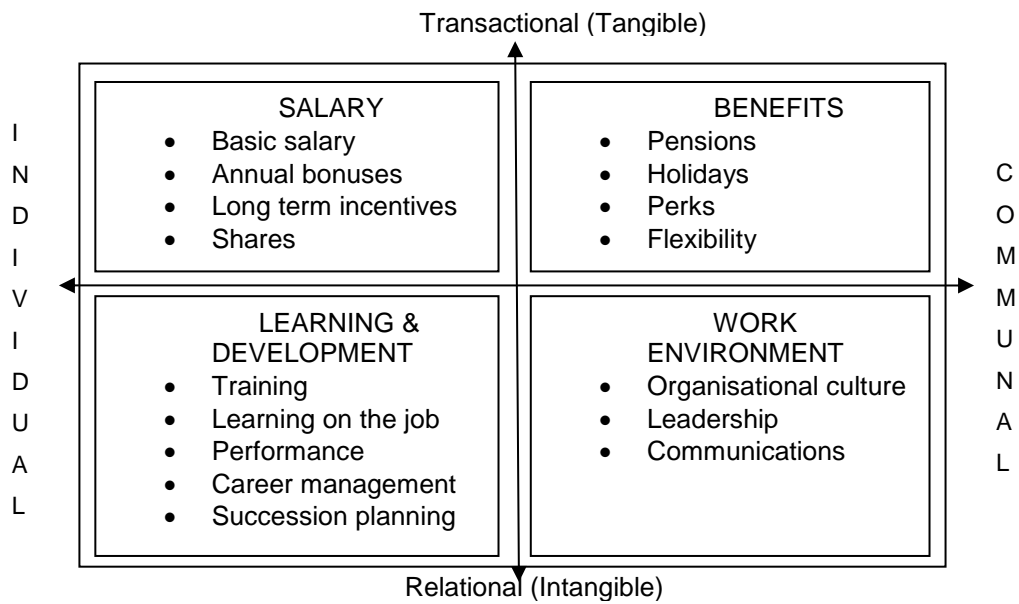


Figure: 2.1: **Total Reward Framework**

(Adapted from Armstrong and Cummins, 2011:47)

Total rewards are an all-encompassing standard remuneration system which embraces the employee's culture in the reward system. Because of utilising the Total Reward Model, the employer in return receives an engaged employee's performance (Raj, 2008). The Total Reward Model consists of several elements which cannot be considered in isolation as shown in Figure 2.1. The Total Reward Model is a holistic approach. This model does not rely on one or two reward mechanisms operating in isolation. The model considers every possible way in which public TVET educators are rewarded to obtain job satisfaction and morale from their work. The aim is to maximize the combined impact of a wide range of reward initiatives on motivation, commitment and engagement. Total rewards model embraces everything that the employee values in the employment relationship and as such it solves problems being encountered in the public TVET sector (Zhoutao *et al.*, 2013:63).

The Total Reward Model focuses on three elements. The model focuses on compensation, benefits and the work experience of individual employees as illustrated in Figure 2.1 (WorldatWork, 2006; Raj, 2008). However, the Hay Group (2008) says the model exists as a larger part of a framework. For example, a campus manager needs to look at what public TVET institutions are trying to achieve in terms of the strategic plan and then come up with incentives that can motivate educators to positively contribute to the realisation of the strategic plan. There is also a need to

consider public TVET institutions' cultures and values. Therefore, one must consider what this represents in relation to public TVET institutions Human Resources strategies.

The Total Rewards strategy leverages five elements to attract, motivate, and retain employees. These five are compensation, benefits, work-life, performance, recognition, development and career opportunities. The above-mentioned elements of the total reward can be tailor-made to suit the unique needs and circumstances of each public TVET institutions and their teaching staff. This means that each college can look at its budget and come up with a total reward package that suits its unique conditions and the needs of its staff. There is no need to come up with a "one-fits-all" remuneration system as is the case now in South Africa. The above-mentioned elements of the total reward model are the 'toolkit' from which the organisation chooses what best suits its reward requirements. It can however be argued that some organisations do already implement rewards strategies this way, and perhaps compensate in one area for the non-inclusion of another element (WorldatWork, 2006).

The question from the above discussion is whether one element carries more weight than another element. Issues could be clarified when one points out that in business more time is spent on compensation than any other area. A further argument to arise is whether compensation is the most important function in an organisation. However, at the baseline, one needs to have competitive compensation programmes in order to have competitive advantage over rivals in business. The best work-life strategies would not get you anywhere without the compensation element prioritised. It can be further argued that people could stop working for an organisation if their pay was taken away. This implies that public TVET College Councils must strike a balance between and among all the compensation elements involved in the Total Rewards Model. This must be done if public TVET colleges choose to go this route in their reward systems (WorldatWork, 2006).

2.6.3 The benefits of the total rewards system

This section discusses the benefits accruable to public TVET institutions can benefit from implementing the Total Rewards Model. There are several benefits to be enjoyed by both the public TVET educators and public TVET institutions.

The proposed Total Reward Model for a public TVET colleges have a greater impact on the motivation of educators. The combined effects of the various types of rewards found in a Total Rewards Model make a deeper and long-lasting impression on the motivation and commitment of employees. Total rewards enhance the employment relationship between the employer and the employee. The Total Reward Model creates an employment relationship which makes maximum use of relational as well as transactional rewards and is therefore expected to appeal more to individual employees. Total rewards enhance flexibility to meet individual needs of individual educators. Relational rewards also bind individuals more strongly to the organisation because they answer individual needs. Total rewards assist in winning the war of talent because if they are superior to those of rivals in business, they help attract the best talent and retain it. Relational rewards help to deliver a positive psychological contract. This serves as a differentiator in the recruitment market, which is much more difficult to replicate than individual pay practices. The organisation becomes an employer of choice and a great place to work, thus attracting and retaining the talented people it needs (Hay Group, 2008).

2.6.4 Summary

It can be summarised that inclusive of public TVET College educators there was a relatively high staff turnover rate of 13% during 2012/2013. During this period staff members and those from the TVET sector included left the service in large numbers for various reasons. As discussed before high staff turnover rates in the public TVET sector and education sector in general could be curtailed by introducing the Total Reward Model. The combined effect of a concoction of the various types of rewards found in the Total Rewards Model are likely to make a deeper and long-lasting impression on the motivation and commitment of public TVET educators (The Department of Higher Education, 2012/2013:37).

CHAPTER THREE REWARD MANAGEMENT

3.1 Introduction

The issue of rewards is without doubt among one of the most contested and difficult issues faced by practitioners in the discipline of Human Resource Management. For most organisations, the cost of pay and total reward packages represents a significant proportion of their total budget. Reward costs therefore need to be managed effectively to ensure that they remain within acceptable limits. Further, reward specialists need to ensure that employees are paid fairly and adequately. However, reward specialists must avoid over-rewarding of employees and compensate employees within means of what can be afforded by the organisation and according to how much the employee deserves to be paid. This approach ensures that organisations remain viable and competitive (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:2; Salie and Schlechter, 2012).

This chapter provided a comprehensive discussion of how reward management in general affected public TVET educators' affective commitment. To begin with, the meaning of reward was discussed followed by an international overview on reward management development. Thereafter related literature on reward management systems in general was discussed. Next was the discussion on how rewards affect the affective commitment of public TVET educators. In conclusion, an appropriate summary for this section was provided.

3.2 Meaning of reward

It was important to discuss the meaning of reward from the beginning for clarity since the term reward is used throughout the study. This research project analysed rewards used in Western Cape public TVET institutions and their effect on public TVET educators job satisfaction and morale which are both related to employee affective commitment. The objective of rewards is to attract prospective employees into the organisation. Rewards are also utilised as a tool for attracting, motivating and retaining employees in an organisation. Rewards increase frequency of employee actions in given work situations. In other words, rewards increase the repetition of specific behaviours and results. Rewards also induce employees to engage in new behaviours that help to produce better and desired results in work situations. However, for rewards to produce the desired effects on employees they must be meaningful to employees and not awarded arbitrarily. In addition, praising and recognising employees for a job well done are more powerful rewards as compared to monetary rewards. However,

praising and recognising employees for a job well done may not be considered as rewards if they do not motivate employees to perform very well in future (Aguinis, 2013:273).

Organisations may reward employees with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards satisfy the basic needs of security and recognition. Extrinsic rewards are derived from factors associated with the job content. Intrinsic rewards also referred to as psychological enjoyment; satisfy challenges that employees encounter. Intrinsic rewards satisfy higher levels of needs of self-actualisation and individual employee development. Intrinsic rewards emanate from factors inseparable in the way in which work is designed. Some work is designed in such a way that it is interesting and has no monotony. Employees look forward to doing their work daily because they are afforded opportunities to learn new methods of doing their tasks. They may also have some degree of latitude on how they do their work, and this has a motivating effect. Intrinsic rewards are therefore related to the job content (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012).

The term reward is also a broad concept. Reward is a concept which has undergone several changes in recent years. Traditionally, a reward was thought of as pay and other contractual type benefits. These contractual benefits were holidays, sick pay and pensions. However, the aim of rewards has always been to attract, motivate and retain employees (Martin *et al.*, 2010:187). All rewards are paid for a completed service, but some rewards are different in that they are directly linked to performance. These are rewards such as performance related pay (PRP) and competence related pay. Performance-related pay (PRP) provides an individual employee with financial rewards in the form of increased basic pay. Performance-related pay could be cash bonuses. These rewards are often offered in relation to the achievement of agreed objectives between the employer and the employee. Hence the reason of utilising competence-based pays as a method of rewarding employees. This is done wholly or partly by using the level of competences employees display in their work. Some organisations combine performance and competence-based pay by rewarding both performance (outcomes) and competences (inputs). This is referred to as a contribution-related pay scheme (Joseph, Emmett and Louw-Potgieter, 2012).

3.3 International overview of reward development

3.3.1 Introduction

The attractiveness of any profession one may think of is often determined by salaries and conditions of work offered to prospective or potential employees by an employer. The teaching profession in general inclusive public TVET institutions is no exception to the above given assumption. However, one may choose to join the nursing, medical and social work professions and the teaching profession for other reasons better known to the individual. For example, one may end up choosing teaching as a profession because of the unavailability of suitable better jobs or second career options. Despite the above, a plausible assumption could be that the attractiveness of the salary offered is an important or strategic factor for attracting and retaining competent teachers in the teaching profession in Europe. This implies that if one perceives the salary and conditions of work offered as being good and fair, one is most likely to join that profession or extend one's tenure (Berger and Girardet, 2015:108; European Commission, 2013:53).

In England educators in the Further Education (FE) sector take up teaching jobs as a second or third career option. Only a few FE teaching practitioners can mention a desire to teach in the FE as their main motivation of choosing such a career. The choice to end up teaching in the FE is given as coincidental. This may also apply to the South African public TVET sector. It can be argued that the choice to take up a teaching job in the FE sector in Europe could be related to other lifestyle changes that include career breaks, redundancy, divorce and relocation. The terms "sliding" and "accidental transition" are used to explain why individual FE educators find themselves teaching in the FE sector in England. Several FE educators also find themselves in the FE sector due to a variety of part-time and sessional contracts over a few years (Hutchinson, Neary, Marriot and Jackson, 2014:1).

3.3.2 Salary levels in Europe

It is assumed that the shortage of educators in general is more pronounced or acute in European countries offering lower salaries in terms of purchasing power parity. Purchasing power parity is a term used when the price of identical goods and services are equal in one country and another when one considers the different exchange rates of different countries concerned. For example, if the exchange rate is 0.67 USD against the Euro (0.67/1 Euro, or 1.5 Euro to 1 USD, a set of goods or services that cost US\$ 1000, would cost 1.500 Euros if considering the exchange rate of 1 USD to 1 Euro

(Keegan and Green, 2015:84-85). Therefore, there is need to analyse the current situation on educators' salaries and the evolution of educator salaries among European countries as compared to the South African situation in public TVET institutions. This strategy is recommended to perceive similarities and differences in salaries in the correct perspective. The importance of such factors as holidays and free time are also discussed.

In this study "school" and "college" are used synonymously in reference to general education issues which apply to both the TVET sector and the Basic Education sector. Both levels of education used to fall under the Department of Basic Education before year 2002 but now the public TVET institutions fall under the DHET. To support this argument, public TVET educators' technical qualifications and years of experience the period under review, were given equivalence for remuneration purposes using scales applicable to school level educators. It should also be noted that most of public TVET educators joined these TVET colleges from the Department of Basic Education on secondment (Papier, 2008:6). Besides the above important points, employment status of educators is discussed as well.

In Europe when educators are employed, they are offered open-ended contracts which are controlled by general labour legislations. In the public sector, educators in general are employed by local authorities or schools themselves just what was happening in the public TVET institutions where some educators were also employed directly by college councils. In other European countries, educators are civil servants employed by the central governments, regional authorities / governments or local authorities. In countries such as Ireland newly qualified educators do not qualify for permanent status as soon as they are engaged. However, after working for several years as educators they qualify to be awarded contracts of indefinite employment as educators. In countries such as France, Greece and Spain, in the TVET sector, educators seek and prefer to be afforded and rewarded civil servant status. They appreciate more the status of being a civil servant because of the benefits attached to this status. To TVET educators, civil servant status is a factor that attracts several educators into this sector. The situation described above is the same as what prevails in Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Turkey, and Germany. In these countries public contractual status is preferred by most educators and it comes with the same rights and benefits enjoyed by educators with civil servant status (European Commission, 2013:54).

3.3.3 Educators salaries in European countries

In England pay became the second major reason for motivating one to consider teaching as an attractive career by 2006 as compared to 2003 when teaching was ranked 4th. In a study conducted using thirty-nine (39) OECD countries it was illustrated that educators in general were paid 4 times more in comparison to how other countries paid their educators using purchasing power parity. There was evidence that higher salaries and quicker salary advancements facilitated the recruiting of higher ability educators and guaranteed higher learners' learning outcomes on average. At the same time educators who received higher salaries and incentives had less likelihood of leaving their jobs as compared to those who received unattractive and low salaries and were subjected to poor conditions of service (European Commission, 2013:14).

Increasing salaries of educators in general was technically easy to implement but budget constraints often rendered it rather difficult to implement. This was the reason why some European countries reached consensus to raise only the salaries of early career educators. Another option has been to quicken the salary progression of educators during their first year in the teaching profession. Making quick salary progressions for educators in their first year of teaching has been judged to be a more effective alternative than others. However, quick salary progressions for educators were vociferously opposed by trade unions which were aversive and hostile to the development of merit-based salaries. Assessment of educators' performance was also considered in determining educators' salary progressions. However, within the current context in which most countries faced budgetary constraints and appealed for budgetary discipline, certain governments decided to reduce the number of educators they employed. The governments expected this move or strategy to help to improve the salaries of the educators who remained in the education system. In addition, scholarships were awarded to trainee educators who chose teaching as a career and if trainees promised to remain in teaching for several years (European Commission, 2013:14).

The rewards and conditions of work for educators have been relatively different among European countries. The rewards and conditions of work have been related to the provision of classrooms of different sizes. Office space, access to information and communication technology (ICT) and multi-media equipment, the quality of catering at work, and the possibility of finding accommodation compatible with a teaching salary were also offered to educators. It is doubtless that poor rewards and poor conditions of work may act as a hindrance and in a huge way may lower the image, prestige and

social status of teaching as a profession. In 2003, UNESCO pointed out that poor working conditions were one of the factors that discouraged educators to join technical colleges, hence the acute shortages of educators in technical colleges. A recent European study confirmed this finding. Salary levels, supplemented by the award of possible additional allowances, incentives and good working conditions could have been two of the major incentives that could have ensured high motivation of educators. These incentives made the teaching profession more attractive to prospective educators. For example, in Finland and Ireland, the teaching profession in general has a very positive image. In the countries mentioned above there is hardly any shortage of qualified educators (Hutchinson *et al.*, 2014:10).

Early career support in the form of induction is considered very important and a must. Less attention has been paid to the design of effective induction programmes that support educators from their initial teacher education into a working life in the European Union's education sector. Induction of educators is of great importance in that it equips them with teaching skills and affords them the opportunity to settle down as quickly as possible on their jobs. However, irrespective of these measures being put into place, in some European countries many young educators are leaving the teaching profession in large numbers. In South Africa as well, youths are not eager to join the teaching profession (European Commission, 2013:16).

In addition, in the education sector, when one takes up employment, lifelong learning and acquisition of new skills is a must. Therefore, there is a need for one to engage in continuous professional development (CPD). Continuous professional development is required because of the evolution of knowledge as well as information and communication technology (ICT), the evolving behaviour of pupils, and expectations of various stakeholders. The focus is now on remaining relevant by taking the onus of overseeing one's career development. Developing one's career with the support of the employer enables one to be effective in one's work and improves the image of the teaching profession. Through CPD one also stays up-to-date in as far as new trends in teaching are concerned and can also take on new challenges and be able to manage change. However, irrespective of budget constraints, it is worth noting with appreciation the efforts made in this regard in Europe and in South Africa to improve rewards and conditions of work educators are awarded (European Commission, 2013:16).

In Europe it can be assumed that the diverse rewards educators were awarded such as degree of autonomy, involvement in tailoring reforms and margin of innovation,

contributed to the teaching profession's attractiveness (for competent candidates). The above-mentioned rewards also contributed to a favourable image of teaching among the society at large (European Commission, 2013:17).

The teacher-pupil ratio is also a major factor that seriously affects perceived educators' conditions of work. In most European nations trade unions have demanded a reduction in class sizes. However, the teacher-pupil ratio has been very easy to calculate as compared to the pupil average per class and enables comparison of situations in various European countries. The teacher-pupil ratio is a representation of an average figure while educator expectations (and difficulties of their working conditions) vary according to contexts in which educators find themselves. This situation is dependent to a large extent on the level and attitude and behaviour of the learners. The countries involved in this study were Iceland, Turkey, Portugal, Latvia, Ireland, Greece and Lithuania (European Commission, 2013:23).

As implied to earlier on, salaries and conditions of work are essential and salient dimensions that can be used by an employer to show how important and attractive a job is. To this end salary levels are also important for inducing prospective student teachers into joining the teaching profession. Attractive salaries, rewards and incentives can also be used as a strategy for retaining talented and skilled educators in the teaching profession. This claim was confirmed by research conducted by McKinsey and Company in 2010. However, it could be argued that teaching is chosen as a profession by people for other reasons, for example, as a vocation or for the rewards that it offers. The education sector is always in competition with the business sector in terms of attracting the best qualified young graduates into the teaching profession in terms of offering salaries and conditions of work which are deemed attractive. In this competition the education sector loses out since its remuneration policies are controlled and determined by legislation whereas in the business sector there is leeway to come up with budgets that are specific to the needs of that specific business. Once again salaries and working conditions are decisive elements in the choice of a career. Policies that affect the earnings of educators in general can therefore not be overlooked (Tucker, 2012:8).

In Ireland new qualified educators are delighted to have permanent status granted on them after working for several years. As mentioned earlier on, the educators' dreams are to be afforded or offered contracts of employment of indefinite duration. In France, Greece and Spain, educators prefer and appreciate to be granted lifetime civil servant

status more than anything else. Many students entered the teaching profession because they were attracted by the salary scales offered as well as the conditions of work they would enjoy after joining the teaching profession. Rewards offered, and conditions of work are factors of attractiveness to the teaching profession for many students. The situation in France, Greece and Spain was like the one that obtained in Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Turkey, and Germany. In these countries public contractual status came with the same rights and benefits as civil servant status (European Commission, 2013:54).

In this study figures in Table 3.1 reflect educators' salaries at international level. To start with, "school" and "college" are used in special reference to general education issues which apply to both the Higher Education and Training sector (Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and the Basic Education sector. Both sectors of education used to fall under the Department of Basic Education before year 2002. To support this argument, TVET educators' technical qualifications and years of experience were given equivalence for remuneration purposes using scales applicable to school level educators. However, in 2012 the public TVET sector reverted to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET).

It should also be noted that most of public TVET educators in South Africa joined TVET institutions from the Department of Basic Education on a secondment basis (Papier, 2008:6).

As has been noted, Table 3.1 presents statutory salaries in public education institutions at starting level and at the top level of the scale per annum in Europe. Also presented in Table 3.1 are salaries of educators in general by level of education in equivalent US dollars using purchasing power parity. Please note that the information stated below is important in understanding information given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 illustrates that in columns R1 and R2, the salary progression that an educator could look forward to in his/her teaching occupation differed from nation to nation. In Austria, France, Luxembourg and Ireland, educators based on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level expected their salaries to be doubled. Countries where the ratios of top-level starting salaries for educators were higher than the EU mean of 1.60 were Belgium (Fl. and Fr.), Hungary, Poland and Portugal. Opposite to this, an increase in salary during a teaching career was very low

at (R1<1.30) in Denmark, Iceland, Norway, Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Turkey, among other examples. From the statistics in Table 3.1, it can be deciphered that educators whose salaries rose significantly throughout their careers were less likely to leave their jobs (European Commission, 2013:63).

Table 3.1: Educators salaries among European countries in 2009

Country	Primary School Level			Upper Secondary School Level		
	Starting	Top level	R1	Starting	Top level	R2
Austria	30 998	61 390	1.98	32 883	67 135	2.04
Belgium (Fl)	32 429	55 718	1.72	40 356	70 382	1.74
Belgium (Fr)	31 545	54 848	1.74	39 415	69 579	1.77
Czech Rep.	17 705	25 965	1.47	18 167	28 039	1.54
Denmark	46 950	54 360	1.16	47 664	62 279	1.31
England	32 189	47 047	1.46	32 189	47 047	1.46
Fin land	32 692	50 461	1.54	35 743	61 089	1.71
France	24 006	49 221	2.05	27 585	52 150	1.89
Germany	46 446	61 787	1.33	55 743	77 628	1.39
Greece	27 951	41 625	1.49	27 951	41 265	1.49
Hungary	12 045	19 952	1.66	13 572	25 783	1.90
Iceland	28 767	33 753	1.17	26 198	34 178	1.30
Ireland	36 433	68 391	1.88	36 433	68 391	1.88
Luxembourg	51 799	113 017	2.18	80 053	139 152	1.74
Nederland	37 974	55 440	1.46	39 400	66 042	1.68
Poland	9 186	16 221	1.77	11 676	21 149	1.81
Portugal	34 296	60 261	1.76	34 296	60 261	1.76
Scotland	32 143	51 272	1.60	32 143	51 272	1.60
Slovak Rep.	12 139	15 054	1.24	12 139	15 054	1.24
Slovenia	29 191	37 274	1.28	29 191	37 274	1.28
Spain	40 896	57 067	1.40	46 609	65 267	1.40
Sweden	30 648	40 985	1.34	32 463	44 141	1.36
Turkey	25 536	29 967	1.16	26 173	30 335	1.16
EU average	30 150	47 883	1.60	33 553	53 956	1.61
OECD average	29 767	48 154	1.62	33 044	53 651	1.62

(Adapted from European Commission, 2013:54-55)

NB:

R1: ratio top level/starting salary in primary education.

R2: ratio top level/starting salary in upper secondary school.

However, an important aspect to consider was the number of years required to reach the top salary notch. In most of countries, the maximum basic statutory salary could be reached after 15 to 25 years. In Austria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Romania, Slovakia and Spain it took more than 30 years to reach the statutory basic maximum salary. But in Denmark, England, and Estonia it took 10 years. It was however difficult to assess the implications of one system to another on the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Considering it from another angle, the choice of relatively high salaries for beginners and of their quick increases over a space of or a period of between 10 to 15 years was of strategic and fundamental importance for attracting good educators into the teaching profession in general. Some educators were frustrated to reach their top-level salary grades at a relatively early stage of their work life and when they found themselves with no prospects of a better income. The situation educators found themselves confronting could have motivated them to search for other better paying jobs when they reached the stage where they were aware that their salaries remained at the same level until retirement (European Commission, 2013:63).

In Britain the public sector and the further education (FE) sector are wholly dependent on state funding. Each learning institution of higher learning is however an independent corporate body. In addition, teaching staff members in the teaching profession in Britain are remunerated according to a harmonised pay spine of 68 points. This harmonised pay spine ranges from learning support members at the lower levels (points 4-26) to unqualified educators (points 15-22) and leadership and management posts (points 37-68). The salary ratio also starts from the entry level to the unqualified educator (point 15) to the highest point on the scale (point 68) which is under the ration scale of 1:5. These salary scales differ in Scotland, Wales and Northern Island, with each of the three systems negotiating scales through different mechanisms (ILO, 2010:38).

A Single Spine Pay Policy is based on the results gathered from a job analysis and job evaluation processes. A Single Spine Pay Policy is the basis for establishing an equal pay for all jobs in the organisation. A single spine pay structure tries to place all public service jobs on a common structure with 25 grades (levels) that include in turn, 7 to 15 steps. In a standard single spine pay model, after determining the relative worth of all jobs, in all grades, money values are assigned to the single pay spine to determine pay for everyone (Cavalcanti, 2009; Ankomah, 2010).

Provinces in Canada are responsible for managing education institutions. This was once the same situation in South Africa in the case of public TVET institutions (Papier, Needham, and McBride, 2012:1). This situation created variations in the remuneration of educators as well as among public institutions within a given province. As a result, and in general, the salary scales and benefit packages for teaching staff were established through negotiations. These negotiations were held between teacher associations and representatives of the government for the specific province or territory. The point on which educators belonged on the salary scale was determined by qualifications and experience that educators possessed as well. For example, hourly wage ratios in the province of British Columbia were between low and high categories approximately 1.6 (Average = 2.6+). However, in remote northern parts of the province it might have been 50 percent more. In a French speaking province of Quebec, the wage ratio of between low and high categories was less pronounced, roughly 1:4, average wage 2.8. The benefits package in several provinces included insurance (dental, supplementary medical, long term disability and life assurance, leave, maternity, sick, compassionate, sabbatical/study leave), and retirement contributions. The benefits were managed either by the Federal Government or the province / territory and the government with the appropriate contributions from individual educator salaries (ILO, 2010:38).

In Nigeria the delivery of TVET education has been the sole responsibility of tertiary technical institutions. In Nigeria there are 110 technical institutions as well as 159 technical colleges. All the technical institutions fall under the ambit of the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). The NBTE is an agency of the Federal Ministry of Education. Eleven (11) of the tertiary technical institutes and three private technical colleges are privately owned and do not belong to the government. Some of the public training providers are controlled by the Federal Government and some by state governments. This arrangement as previously discussed in the case of the Canadian situation also affected the remuneration of educators in several ways. Specifically, the regularity of salary payments was severely affected. As a tradition, educators in each state belonged to one salary structure. This was once again based on a harmonised public service salary scale (HAPSS). The HAPSS applied uniformly to all educators as well as other public service employees. Entry salaries for educators in Nigeria are determined by the qualifications of a new educator and trainer holds across a 16 points scale. In Nigeria, if an educator goes the extra-mile in terms of extra duties performed by educators, overtime remuneration is paid to motivate them. Studies conducted in 2004 revealed a difference between entry level graduates and end of career salaries

of approximately 1:3.5 for educators. Other salary differentials were also revealed depending on the type of institution under consideration. However, civil servants and educators had entitlements to a range of fringe benefits. The most attractive of the fringe benefits that educators had was a right to and could enjoy related access to transport loans. However, how much of a loan an educator could gain access to relate to one's grade. This also applied to housing, free medical services and pension benefits. From this discussion it is evident that salaries play a big and major role on public TVET educators' affective commitment. This is collaborated and illustrated in the discussions that follow in the incoming section on organisational commitment and reward management (ILO, 2010:38).

3.4 Organisational commitment and reward management

Organisational commitment explains how much a staff member identifies with an organisation and lengthens tenure. Organisational commitment also explains how much involved an individual is with organisational operations. It is also a way of doing things that shows how much one identifies with the company. Organisational commitment can be described as a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with an organisation. Organisational commitment can be well understood if it is categorised into three groups, namely; normative, continuance and affective commitment. Each of the three types of organisational commitment is fully explained for clarity in parts that follow. Firstly, normative commitment describes employees' perceived feelings of subservience and feelings of obligation to stay in the organisation. If ever an employee feels the need to leave the organisation for any other reason, the employee may feel he/she is betraying the organisation maybe because of how well he /she was treated by the organisation at one point in time. This is irrespective of how badly other employees may paint the organisation. Secondly, employees with continuance commitment may choose to stay in the organisation because they have no other choice. There is no other organisation that appears to be better than the current organisation where they belong. The employee may have to stay put in this organisation until such a time that organisations that appear to be better than the current organisation are available. In contrast, employees with affective commitment have a strong or intense emotive bond and great attachment towards the organisation because of the rewards they obtain. Affective commitment is an employee's strong bond which is accompanied by high emotions, close identification with the organisation and involvement with an organisation because of favourable perceptions of tangible and non-tangible benefits or rewards accruable to the individual employee. The aim of this study was to find out the effect of the intrinsic and extrinsic

rewards on the morale and job satisfaction of public TVET educators in Western Cape institutions, hence the importance of discussing organisational commitment. When public TVET Colleges fulfil educators' monetary and non-monetary expectations, educators' affective commitment is expected to be increased or reinforced (Cao, Chen and Song, 2013:64; Herzberg, Mauser and Synderman, 1957).

3.5 The essence of reward management

This sub-section deals with reasons why it is necessary to manage rewards efficiently to ensure that public TVET educators' affective commitment is not negatively influenced. Reward management deals with strategies, policies and processes for managing rewards. Reward strategies ensure that contributions of public TVET educators are rewarded using both financial and non-financial means to motivate them. The overall objective of reward management is remunerating people fairly, equitably and consistently. Employees must be rewarded in accordance with their value to the organisation. Employees are also rewarded in a bid to ensure that organisational strategic goals are attained (Salie and Schlechter, 2012:3).

Reward management acknowledges that the motivation to improve job performance is supposed to be extended to all employees. It is not only high fliers who are supposed to be motivated because everyone in an organisation contributes to organisational success in different degrees. Therefore, reward systems are supposed to be flexible and not tied rigidly to salary structures and job evaluation systems. There should be both the implicit and explicit assumption that all employees are the key factor to organisational success. Therefore, reward management is the channel / medium through which the business achieves individual and organisational milestones that a company needs to meet if business goals (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:41).

Thus, it can be concluded that the reward management process is not just about pay and employee benefits, it is more than meets the eye. Reward management is also about how well to utilise non-financial rewards such as recognition, learning and development opportunities for the benefit of the organisation and the individual employee. The above point does not imply that monetary rewards are not important, they are important as previously affirmed. Reward management is also about increased job responsibility. In addition, reward management is concerned with the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies. The objective of reward management is to reward people fairly, equitably and consistently. Reward management is there to help the organisation to achieve strategic goals and individual employee needs.

Reward management therefore deals with the design, implementation and maintenance of reward systems (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:41).

3.6 Importance of effective reward management

As pointed out previously, it is fundamental for the public TVET College Councils to manage rewards efficiently in order to maintain educators' affective commitment. Public TVET College Councils need to do this to meet both organisational and individual public TVET educator's needs. It is assumed that if rewards are properly managed in the public TVET sector, educators could be motivated and encouraged to stay longer in the colleges. Rewards are a basic element of the employment relationship which if missing in the relationship, the relationship is rendered untenable. Rewards play a critical and influential role on the job satisfaction, morale and commitment of employees with the organisation that they work for. Organisations that do not recognise and understand the fundamental relationship described above, are likely to be less competitive and successful than those that do. Put simply, employees who are frustrated and dissatisfied with rewards, express their dissatisfaction through their behaviour and performance in their jobs. Employees behave and perform their jobs in ways that are not in the interest of the organisation. The above discussion can be concluded as meaning that reward management is not simply about the basic issues of paying people fairly in relation to market rates. Rewards are also not only about the job performed, and how well it was performed. Reward management extends beyond just paying a reward. Reward decisions impact on recruitment, retention, training, flexibility, and performance practices of an organisation. In addition, reward management influences employee affective commitment, job satisfaction and morale (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:41; Herzberg *et al.*, 1957).

3.7 Summary

In conclusion, reward systems need to be aligned to Human Resources Management and Human Resources Development strategies. It makes more sense to view reward management as a process which attempts to reconcile the interests and expectations of different organisational stakeholders to achieve organisational and individual goals. This could be undertaken in the knowledge that these interests and expectations can never be fully met and reconciled but there is a need to meet people's expectations to a certain degree (Moore and Bussin, 2012).

From the foregoing debate, it is evident that without a satisfactory reward system, an organisation could neither attract nor retain talented employees. If this happens the

organisation fails to attain its goals. In fact, it is not an understatement to suggest and conclude that rewards have importance that pervades almost every aspect of employment and work relationship one can imagine.

3.8 Aims of reward management

In this section reasons for reward management are discussed. To this end, the purpose of having a reward management strategy is to reward people according to contributions they make towards the achievement of organisational objectives. The purpose of reward management is therefore to align business practices with business goals, and with employee values and needs. Reward management is there to reward the right employee behaviours and attitudes. This is done to convey the right messages about important behaviours and outcomes employees should focus on in carrying-out tasks. Reward management is also there to help to attract and retain highly skilled people the organisation requires to meet its strategic objectives and remain competitive. Reward systems motivate people and help obtain people's engagement and commitment. Additionally, reward systems are also in place to develop a high-performance culture in an organisation. It is also emphasised that the purpose of reward management is to attract a sufficient number of qualified workers with critical skills, knowledge and attitudes. These qualified and competent workers need to fill critical positions in the organisation. The other reason for effectively managing a reward system is to retain employees in the organisation so that turnover of talented employees is held to acceptable levels. A reward system is also there to motivate employees to perform fully of their capabilities (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:41).

3.9 Reward philosophy

The rationale behind rewarding employees is articulated in this and preceding sub-sections. The objectives of reward systems include the attraction of the right talent with relevant skills and attitudes as previously articulated. Rewards are also meant to enhance employee motivation and the retention of talented employees at all organisational levels. The employer needs a clear understanding of the reward philosophy to properly manage rewards in the workplace. Reward management is supposed to be based on a sound articulated philosophy. Reward management can be based on a set of beliefs and guiding principles consistent with the values of the organisation. The reward philosophy is expected to inculcate in the top executive mind-set that Human Resource Management focuses on investing in human capital. At the end of the day it should be emphasized that a reasonable return on investment must be realised from the activities and projects that Human Resource Management

personnel undertakes. Due to the above arguments and philosophy, it sounds proper and rational to reward people differentially according to the contributions they make in pursuit of achieving organisational goals (Aguinis, 2013:265).

3.10 Fundamental principles of reward management

The four principles of distributive justice, procedural justice, fairness and equity are of fundamental importance in reward management and therefore need to be fully addressed in this study. For example, equity is related to the concept of pay fairness and is an important aspect of managing rewards. Equity is about employees' perception of how they are treated when compared to other individual employees or referent groups in the distribution of rewards. However, equity is not to be confused with equality. Equality means treating everyone the same in reward distribution and which may not be possible in reward management. The term equity describes emotive feelings and perceptions that people especially employees may hold over certain issues that they experience in the workplace in how rewards are distributed. Thus, equity is not necessarily used to explain instances where people compare situations; it can be used to explain a situation where comparisons are not necessarily the bone of contention. In this regard, equity may be said exists in a situation where employees perceive the ratios of how much effort they put into their work compares to how much they get in return in terms of rewards as simple as that. However, this may be compared to perceived outcomes of inputs of other employees. But the argument in this case could be that this comparison may be a bit difficult because of measures such as the official secrecy act that the employer may have put in place to suppress such comparisons in terms of how much salary individual employees could be earning. However, comparisons could be made in situations where it could be blatantly clear that other employees are being favoured in terms of the rewards they are getting as compared to other employees in the same circumstances. For example, if it is perceived that employees' inputs are more-or-less the same but other employees are getting fairer deals than others, then it can be concluded that inequity exist. For example, inequity could occur in situations where other employees are working in better equipped offices than others when their inputs are perceived to be the same. When inequity exist employees experience tensions as they try to restore equity, and it is apparent that the public TVET sector is not immune to this phenomenon as there are so many cases of inequity that were brought forward by educators (Coetzee and Botha, 2012:5).

To fully understand the philosophy behind reward management, one needs to fully comprehend the four principles that explain what equity all about is. The four principles that help explain what equity all about is and will be briefly discussed under this section are distributive and procedural justice, fairness and equity. Thus, the concepts of distributive justice, procedural justice, fairness, and equity are discussed in sections that follow.

3.11 Distributive and procedural justice

Procedural justice examines how the reward management process is managed in the organisation. Distributive justice asks questions such as, 'Are decisions made according to clear standards?'; 'Can one appeal the decision?' and 'Can one get an opportunity to give input in decision making?' In addition, distributive justice examines only the outcome of a decision or a policy. For example, these are questions which need to be answered with to a reward system's perceived fairness, 'Did I receive the promotion?' and, 'Did I get the increase?' Public TVET educators may also ask questions referred to above. Answers to the above questions determine whether educators work harder or extend their tenure or decide to leave a public TVET College which employs them (Coetzee and Botha, 2012:5).

A few things destroy an individual's motivation faster than the feeling that someone is getting a better deal from the employer than themselves. It should therefore be noted that organisational distributive justice principles state that in addition to being fair, people who make decisions must be perceived as fair. To this end, distributive justice focuses on, 'what was distributed to whom?' and, "Who got what?" Procedural justice is concerned with such questions as "were there procedures, processes or systems in place for determining what was distributed to whom?" If the answer to this question is 'No', feelings of injustice among the workforce are likely to be ignited, intense and may result in job dissatisfaction (Lathan, 2012:98).

The more public TVET educators feel that procedures are fair, the more they positively evaluate and trust management. In addition, employees are less inclined to leave their jobs because they experience affective commitment. Two key factors that affect feelings of procedural justice are prior criteria for making decisions and employee voice. Employee voice advances the concept of participative decision-making. If there is employee voice, employees may perceive that their viewpoints are seriously taken into consideration before final decisions are made. Where employees feel their voice

is heard, they are likely to support decisions that are not in agreement with their earlier view-points (Lathan, 2012).

3.12 Summary

In conclusion, people feel justly treated if rewards are apportioned or divided amongst employees in accordance to how much they contributed to the achievement of organisational goals. Employees also feel satisfied and fairly treated when they receive rewards which they perceive as commensurate with their inputs without comparing their inputs and outputs with those of co-workers. However, where inequity is overt, comparisons can be made against a co-worker's inputs and outputs.

Procedural justice therefore refers to the way in which management decisions are made and reward policies are implemented in an organisation. Five factors that help to determine whether procedural justice is practiced in an organisation are whether the viewpoints of employees are given due consideration. It is also important to ensure that personal biases towards employees are avoided as much as possible. In addition, it is also important that the organisation is consistent in how it applies policies and procedures to all employees. For example, in the case of discipline management, what happens to A under the same circumstances should not be different to what happens to B under the same circumstances. It is also important to find out whether employees are provided with timely feedback about the outcome of decisions. It is also important that all decisions that are made are carried out in a transparent and open manner.

3.13 Fairness

In the context of the current analysis of reward system, fairness is an important concept to discuss. Most employees have a desire for fair treatment by management in the workplace. They expect to get fair treatment when they perform their jobs well as well as when they have infringed company rules. For example, employees believe that there must be fairness in how rewards are distributed among them. The same feelings are found among public TVET educators in public TVET Colleges. If there is perceived unfairness, employees react negatively. However, under these circumstances, senior employees often decide that they have worked and invested in the company for many years to risk creating a disturbance. Senior employees instead may decide to perform marginally at lower levels of the expected standard of performance until retirement. Employees who are still young may feel that since they are still young and strong, they may adventure into other jobs which appear more attractive with other companies or organisations. In this case, because of the reasons given above, it is most likely that

an organisation or a company may lose more skilled young employees as compared to the elderly. Younger employees often quit their jobs for better opportunities elsewhere. For these reasons, there is no way the concept of fairness cannot be discussed in full since it very important (Van Zyl, 2010:2).

From the discussions so far made, it could be argued that a fair reward could be perceived as the one that satisfies the principles of distributive and procedural justice. A fair reward should live up to the 'felt-fair' principle. This principle can only be confirmed that it exists in reward management by the employees themselves who bear the brunt of unfairness or are directly affected by it. The 'felt-fair' principle is underpinned by the fact that if people are asked for their opinion on how fair they perceive and believe they are remunerated for their services they are able to state facts as they are. In other words, they can honestly tell whether they are fairly or unfairly remunerated. Therefore, payment must be matched to the level of employee performance. In other words, employees must be paid according to how much effort they put into their performance. In this regard, to avoid problems of negative affective commitment among employees, no employees should receive less pay than they deserve (Banks, Patel and Moola, 2012:2).

3.14 Equity

Equity is another concept that relates to the concept of pay fairness and is important to be discussed in this study. Public TVET educators' perceptions of fair treatment when they compare themselves to other public TVET educators prompted this discussion (Van Zyl, 2: 2010; Banks *et al.*, 2012:3).

There is a close relationship between the terms equity and fairness. Employees strongly feel that resources in the workplace should be equitably distributed. If not, some employees feel unfairly treated and could decide to leave the organisation concerned. The equity theory primarily deals with money issues in the form of rewards and pay (Lathan, 2012:45-46). To further elaborate on the foregoing discussion Adam's (1965) theory states that people maximise the ratio of their outcomes (numerator), relative to their inputs (denominator) in comparison with fellow employees. Outcomes in this instance include money, recognition, and working conditions. Inputs include the person's effort, education, and experience. In the event of unfair treatment in terms of perceptions of unfair distribution of rewards, an employee may decide to leave or quit the situation, or to change the inputs. For example, one could decide to increase or decrease the effort or quality of one's contributions compared to other employees who

seem to be getting a better deal in terms of rewards. The popular solution often used to reduce inequity is the one that a person perceives to have the least costs (Lathan, 2012:45-46).

3.15 Implications of equity theory

Important implications of equity theory are that it shows that motivation cannot flourish unless employees perceive rewards as fair and equitable. Where rewards are awarded unfairly, employees perceive inequality. Where there is no direct relationship between what one receives in terms of pay and the performance one exhibited, inequality is perceived to be present. Perceived inequality is also prevalent where favouritism or bias characterise the reward system. Due to all the above-mentioned perceived inequalities, employee de-motivation occurs. Motivation can only occur in a climate of perceived equity, it is argued (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:3).

The elements which show equity of reward systems are firstly, consistency. Consistency implies that when dealing with reward issues, the public TVET sector must stick to agreements made between the employer and the employee. The organisation cannot unilaterally change an agreement to suit its vested interests. The organisation should first consult the employee or employee representatives on any anticipated changes to any agreement. If reward management is consistent in terms of sticking to procedures and policies, decisions made on rewards and pay may not have any variations without special reasons being given why there is a difference in remuneration between two people. Differences could be there because the other person did not perform to the required standard as compared to the other, or the other employee did not work overtime as the other employee (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:3).

Rewards cannot be unreasonably being far away or far from the mark of what is generally agreed to be fair and equitable in the public TVET sector if consistency is applied. Secondly, there should be transparency. Transparency means that there is openness in reward management. Transparency exists in an organisation when people have full knowledge and understanding of how reward processes function and how they are affected by reward processes. Furthermore, employees must have a say or must be involved in the development of reward policies, procedures and practices. Thirdly, there should be strategic alignment of reward initiatives. This is very important as it ensures that rewards are designed in such a way that they support the attainment of business goals as well as the implementation of business strategy. Fourthly, reward systems must be contextualised and fit the organisational culture. The design of reward

processes should be linked to the business context (characteristics of the organisation, its business strategy and the type of employees in the organisation). The design of reward processes must also be linked to the organisation's culture (its values and behavioural norms). In a bid to craft good reward processes, organisations can borrow ideas from organisations that have performed well on reward management processes. However, organisations should be cautious when borrowing ideas from elsewhere. Organisations should be cognisant of the fact that best fit could be more important than best practice. This is so because best practice could have been good because the company was copying "best practice" ideas from could have been operating in a totally different environment as compared to one's environment. Therefore, organisations are advised to come up with reward processes that suit their unique circumstances and meet their specific needs (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:3).

The Fifth and last point on a reward system pertains to its relatedness to purpose. In essence is the fact that rewards offered to employees should be linked to the business strategy and employee needs. The crafting of a reward strategy and its designing is supposed to be based on a full comprehension of the strategic objectives of the specific reward management process and must be developed to achieve the stated purpose (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:3).

3.16 Components of a reward system

This section seeks to elaborate on what a reward system is composed of. A reward system is composed of monetary rewards which are extrinsic and non-monetary rewards which are intrinsic. Intrinsic rewards appeal to the inner person and have a more long-lasting motivational effect as compared to extrinsic rewards. Once money is finished its motivating effects diminishes. However, the motivating effects of an intrinsic reward like praise for a job well done are long lasting it has been proven (Moore and Bussin, 2012:4; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

Combinations of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards provided by the employer are more effective in motivating employees. The monetary or economic elements of the reward system are called pay. Reward systems thus consists of integrated policies, processes, practices and administrative procedures. The policies, processes, practices and procedures ensure the implementation of the reward system within the framework of the human resources (HR) strategy and the total organisational system. The management of rewards must meet numerous economic and behavioural objectives. However, in real life situations, there are no reward systems that are purely extrinsic or

intrinsic. A reward system is usually a combination of monetary and non-monetary rewards. The only difference is how much of each element are introduced into and found in the combination (Moore and Bussin, 2012:4).

3.17 Elements of a reward system

Under this section, the elements of a reward system are discussed and clarified. The elements of a reward system are business strategy, reward strategy and policy. Base or basic pay, contingent pay, employee benefits, and allowances are also part of these elements. In addition, total earnings, total remuneration and job evaluation are discussed under this section. Market analysis, grade and pay structures, performance management, and non-financial rewards are also discussed. These discussions are carried out to clarify the composition of reward system elements and how they influence the morale and affective commitment of public TVET educators.

Firstly, when crafting a reward system, the first thing one does is carefully analysing the business strategy of the organisation. From the business strategy one can identify the business drivers and the set business goals. Business drivers are unique to any organisation but often include items such as high performance, profitability, productivity, innovation, customer-care, quality, and price/cost leadership. Business drivers pertain to what makes the business tick. In the case of public TVET Colleges, business drivers could be effective and efficient performance and high performance of the college among other issues of importance. Also included in the list above is the need to satisfy the stakeholders, investors, employees (educators) and local authorities (Mafini and Poee, 2013).

Secondly, 'reward strategy' defines the long-term goals of the business. Business long term goals are in areas such as structure of pay and contingent pay. Pay structure is a method of administering the pay philosophy in an organisation using two methods. The two methods used are internal pay equity method and the market pricing method. In addition, contingent pay is linked to measures of individual, group or company performance (Aguinis, 2013). Employee benefits are the steps that are utilised to increase employee engagement and affective commitment. The need to adopt total reward approaches are included in long term goals of the organisation. The reward strategy flows from an analysis of the business drivers such as high performance, profitability, productivity, innovation, customer-care, quality, and price/cost leadership. The question management should ask themselves is how these business drivers could

be supported by a reward strategy in order to achieve set business goals (Cao *et al.*, 2013:41).

Thirdly, reward policy, for example, covers matters such as levels of pay. It also covers matters such as achieving fair pay status among employees. Approaches to how best contingent pay can be utilised in an organisation are discussed openly. A discussion of the use of job evaluation and market surveys are also included. Reward policy as a guideline lays-out how the above-mentioned matters are carried out (Banks *et al.*, 2012).

Fourthly, base or basic pay is the amount of fixed salary or wage that constitutes the rate for the job. Base or basic pay varies according to the grade of the job or the level of skill required in the job. Base pay is influenced by internal and external relativities. Job evaluation is used to measure the internal and external relativities. Going rates, which are what the job currently pays in terms of a salary or wage in the job market, are assessed by tracking market rates. Alternatively, levels of pay can be agreed through collective bargaining with trade unions or individually between the employer and employee. Base pay is sometimes referred to as payment according to how much time an employee put into the job or given task. The employee could be paid on an hourly basis. The rate of base pay could be adjusted to reflect increases in the cost of living or market rates by the organisation unilaterally or by agreement with a trade union. Understanding of base pay is very important as it clarifies to public TVET educators, factors that are considered when calculating their annual salaries (Moore and Bussin, 2012:4).

Fifthly, contingent pay is an additional financial reward that is provided by the employer. Contingent pay is related to performance, competence, contribution, skill or experience exhibited by individual public TVET educators. Contingent payments may be added on to base pay to consolidate it. If such payments are not consolidated, and are paid as cash bonuses, they are described as variable pay. It is also important to describe the concept "contingent pay" clearly so that public TVET educators understand how they end up with end of year bonuses and notches which are different from one educator to the other. Public TVET educators must be aware that their individual performance is considered to arrive at specific contingent pay and that there is fairness in the whole process (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:43).

Sixthly, employee benefits include pensions, sick pay, insurance cover, company cars and several other perks. Some of these rewards are also awarded in public TVET Colleges. Employee benefits consist of elements of remuneration additional to the various forms of cash pay. They also include the various forms of cash pay and provisions for employees that are not strictly remuneration. These benefits include annual holidays, lunches and dinners to mention a few. These perks are used to attract and retain prospective employees in an organisation. The benefits can also be used to retain the services of an employee who is in possession of special skills that an organisation wants to keep. It is important to note that in an organisation, not all perks apply to all employees. There are benefits for management, especially skilled individuals and those that apply to the generality of employees (Moore and Bussin, 2012:4).

Seventh, allowances are paid in addition to basic pay for special circumstances. For example, allowances are awarded for working during unsocial hours. Allowances can be determined unilaterally by the organisation but are often the subject of negotiation. The main types of allowances are location allowances, overtime payments, shift payments, working conditions allowances and standby or call-out allowances. Call-out allowances are made to those who must be available to come to work when required outside normal working hours. In public TVET colleges, educators in some colleges receive allowances when they take out students for sporting activities, and when they offer revision classes during college vacations (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:43).

Lastly and eighth, total earnings consist of the total value of all the elements of reward so far discussed under this section. To this end, total earnings include base pay, contingent pay and allowances. Total earnings are also referred to as total rewards. It is important to discuss the concept of total earnings since it is practised in the public TVET institutions to a certain degree. Perhaps the question one can ask is to what extent this is practised in the public TVET sector to ascertain how effective it is (Wilton, 2011:238).

3.18 Performance management

Performance management is the continuous process which involves identifying, measuring, and developing the performance of individual employees and teams. Performance management is also about the aligning of performance with strategic goals of the organisation. It is very important to discuss performance management because it plays a major role in determining the types of rewards public TVET

educators could be awarded. The performance management system utilised in public TVET Colleges is the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). This quality management system is intended to ensure quality in the public TVET sector. The IQMS affords the public TVET sector a performance management system with which to measure and appraise the performance all staff and educators. Hence, it is important to understand the relationship between performance management and reward management in the public TVET sector (Aguinis, 2013:2; Cuthbert and Piotrowicz, 2011).

Furthermore, individual performance and individual contribution expectations are explained and defined using performance management processes. Performance management is defined as a continuous process that assesses individual job performance. Individual employee jobs are measured against their expected and actual contributions. Performance management provides for regular constructive upward performance feedback to individual public TVET educators. Performance improvement, learning and personal development plans result from the constructive feedback. Non-financial motivation is also provided through performance management. Performance management can therefore inform contingent pay decisions as discussed previously (Aguinis, 2013:2).

Performance appraisals are a very important component of performance management. Performance appraisals are defined as the ongoing, systematic evaluation of how well an individual is meeting the expectations of the employer in terms of performance or individual contributions towards the achievement of business goals. Performance appraisals provide feedback on how well an individual employee is carrying out his/her duties and responsibilities on his or her current job. Performance appraisals are also vehicles that permit an employee to progress from one specific salary to another within an established pay range (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:44).

3.19 A formalised reward system

It is important to discuss a formalised reward system. By developing and implementing strategies, policies and practices an organisation can create a formalised reward system. A formalised reward system must be utilised in accordance with the principles of distributive and natural justice. In line with the principles of distributive and natural justice, the strategies, policies, processes and practices are to function in a fair, equitable, consistent and transparent manner. In addition to the above discussed, the strategies, policies, processes and practices employed need to be aligned to the

business strategy. Strategies, policies, processes and practices also must fit the context and culture of the organisation. Finally, the strategies, policies, practices and processes must be well aligned and fit the purpose to help in the development of a desired performance culture (Chanza *et al.*, 2013:3).

In conclusion, this section elaborated the nature of a formalised reward system. With regards to this issue, this chapter highlighted that the public TVET institutions must be informed about how a formalised reward system is established. A formalised reward system is created by developing and implementing reward strategies, policies and practices that apply specifically to the whole organisation. A formalised reward system must meet the specific needs of the organisation. One proceeds to discuss a high-performance culture below as it resonates with the reward system.

3.20 A high performance culture

An organisation that has a high-performance culture has employee consciousness. This means that the organisation is always checking whether the welfare of employees is not compromised so that they remain motivated. This implies that the organisation is always looking for ways and means to enhance its need for employees to perform well and behave accordingly to meet or exceed expectations. Employees can only perform well and exceed expectations when they perceive equity in how rewards are managed in the organisation. In a high performing organisation, employees know what is expected of them. Employees are clear about their goals and accountabilities and have the skills and competencies to achieve their goals. Employees' high performance is recognised and rewarded by the organisation in an organisation with a high-performance culture. In some high performing organisation employees are motivated with their jobs and feel that their jobs are interesting to do. Employees also have a feeling that there is a strong relationship between the jobs that they perform and their competences. Managers in high performing organisations are supportive leaders and coaches who provide regular feedback, performance reviews, and training development opportunities to their subordinates. In a high performing organisation, there is always a reserve pool of talented and skilled personnel that guarantees the organisation a continuous supply of performers in key roles if ever there is a need. In a high performing organisation, there is also a climate of trust and teamwork aimed at delivering a distinct service which gives the concerned organisation competitive advantage (Azeem, 2010:295).

In such some organisation employees are highly involved in their work and actively participate in organisational activities such as decision making. As a result, employees closely identify with and are committed to the organisation. In addition, a high performing organisation's culture encompasses several interrelated processes that together make an impact on organisational performance through its people as implied in the above discussion. Employees' superior performance is shown through high productivity, quality, and high levels of customer service, growth and good profits. At public TVET sector level, high performance could be manifested through excellent efficiency rates which are an indication of how efficient the colleges are performing in terms of learners' performance (in terms of pass rates) and throughput rates (Casser, Netshitangani, Twalo, Rogers, Mokgate, Mncwango, Juan, Taylor, Garisch and Spies, 2011:34).

3.21 Customised reward systems

It is suggested that organisations customise reward systems to suit their special needs and circumstances. There is no universal right way to reward people though. This means that there is no way a standard reward system can be proposed for all public TVET institutions. This is the case because public TVET institutions operate under different conditions, experience different needs and demands. This implies that each public TVET College could come up with rewards which suit its own unique circumstances and needs (Cao *et al.*, 2013:63). Rewards based on employee performance could be met by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This implies that reward methods that different organisations can use as models to meet their different needs are available. These reward methods can be used as bases on which to build reward methods customised to suit an organisation's unique circumstances (Van Zyl, 2010).

3.22 Employer / employee reward maximisation

The argument regarding best reward methods is linked to the close relationship between productivity (quality and efficiency in the public sector), efficiency rates and throughput rates. Efficiency rates (achievement of strategic objectives in the public sector) and personal gain are important (Casser *et al.*, 2011:34).

Each of the parties in the employment relationship often wants to maximise his/her selfish advantages for greater personal gain. Employees, public TVET educators are constantly maximising their opportunities for personal gain because of rising expectations and inflation. Whenever there is a rise in inflation, educators usually

expect to get a raise in their salaries for example. On the other hand, public TVET College Councils (employers) (Note that management of Public TVET institutions reverted to the DHET in 2012) are keen on frugal reward management for two reasons. Firstly, they are interested in the absolute cost of the financial reward due to its bearing on cost effectiveness. The importance of this idea varies with the type of the organisation and the relative cost of employees. Secondly, public TVET College Councils view a reward system as a determinant of employee attitudes and behaviours at work. In other words, a reward system also affects an individual's decision to join an organisation as discussed previously. The reward system affects an individual's decision to work to his or her maximum potential. It affects the individual's decision to exhibit special behaviours that benefit the employer. The special behaviours often extend beyond one's contractual obligations. This phenomenon is referred to as 'organisation citizenship' behaviour. Organisation citizenship involves the willingness of the employee to take on additional responsibilities and remain within the same organisation (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4).

Compensation is a major contributor to the job satisfaction and morale of an employee. Compensation or remuneration also contributes to the building of an employee's organisation citizenship. It also gives the employee the impetus to perform. However, it is important to understand that compensation has a different value for each employee. Different employees may perceive compensation as being meaningful and acceptable (Chanza, Snelgar and Louw, 2013). At the same time, employee satisfaction and motivation are the primary purpose of offering employees pay. This is the case since satisfaction with pay leads to employees exhibiting desirable behaviours such as increasing their effort and reducing avoidance practices like absenteeism and turnover (Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

Following the discussion on the importance of relational rewards, the discussion now tries to establish the functions of money in a reward system. Financial incentives can motivate employees since people need money to meet their basic needs. Firstly, it is possible that money can act as a goal that educators generally strive for although to different degrees. Secondly, money can also act as a driver that provides valued outcomes for an employee. Thirdly, money can also be perceived as a symbol that indicates the recipient's value to the organisation. Fourthly, money can also act as a general reinforcing agent since it is associated with valued rewards so often that it takes on the reward value itself (Chanza *et al.*, 2013:3; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

Money can also satisfy the need for self-esteem since it is a visible mark of appreciation and status. Money could lack intrinsic meaning, but it acquires significant motivating power because it symbolises so many tangible goals. Because of this, pay is often the dominant factor in the choice of an employer. Money is also an important consideration when one decides whether to stay in an organisation (Moore and Bussin, 2012:5).

However, doubts have been harboured on motivating effects money as an effective motivator. While lack of money could cause dissatisfaction, money does not result in lasting satisfaction. For example, people on fixed salaries, which do not benefit directly from an incentive scheme, could feel good when they get an increase since it is highly effective in making people feel valued. However, the feeling of euphoria can rapidly fade. It is therefore emphasised that different people differently feel motivated by money and have different needs. Some people are much more motivated by money than others. What cannot be assumed is that money motivates everyone in the same way and to the same extent. Therefore, a careful study of what motivates individual employees in the workplace is necessary. Armed with this knowledge, the employer is able to know exactly what motivates an individual employee (Moore and Bussin, 2012:5).

People work for money, but it can be argued that employees work even more for the meaning they derive from the work that they do in their lives. Following on from the foregoing argument, people also work to have fun, thus refuting the claims that money is the only employee motivator. It is further argued that organisations that ignore the argument expressed above essentially bribe their employees into working for them, and ultimately pay the price in lack of loyalty and commitment to the organisation by the employees. Therefore, it can be argued that pay cannot be a substitute for a working environment high on trust, fun and meaningful work (Cao *et al.*, 2013:64).

3.23 Summary

In conclusion, in this section the instrumental and symbolic meaning of money is emphasised. The instrumental meaning of money refers to what employees perceive they benefit out of it. People get better houses, clothes and cars if they perceive that they have good salaries. Money is perceived as a means of acquiring all the things that upgrade one's standard of life. Money also signals one's status in and worth to society.

In addition to the above, the basic behaviourist argument on money is that when certain behaviours are followed by monetary rewards, they are more likely to be repeated. This

means that employees would do the things for which they are rewarded with money and ignore the things for which they are not rewarded (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:2).

Based on arguments given above, it is recommended that public TVET College Councils adopt reward systems in which both money and relational (non-monetary) rewards are used. An assumption that argues that only financial incentives motivate employees to perform better could be considered too simplistic. A more realistic assumption or argument is that other alternative rewards that motivate employees could also be considered. On the same vein, it can also be equally simplistic to assume that money can never motivate employees to perform better. It is a fact that some people are more motivated by money than others and this must be considered as well when making decisions of what to use to motivate employees (Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

If managed properly, a reward system can be utilised to encourage employees to perform more effectively and to work smarter and harder. This would occur in a situation where people compared the efforts they put into their jobs to the reward to be given, and feel the reward is worth striving for. Sometimes cash rewards are more effective because they are immediately converted into material things people need in life. However, other employees could be less interested in money and more in tangible rewards. These employees may respond more favourably to intrinsic rewards than extrinsic rewards which could be provided for in a total rewards package (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:2).

3.24 Efficiency rates

Efficiency rates are indicators that provide an indication of how efficient a public TVET institution is in terms of student performance (Casser *et al.*, 2011:34). Productivity and quality (efficiency and effectiveness in the public TVET institutions in South Africa) relates to output in relation to the quantity of resources used to produce quality graduates. Often in this case the employer is interested in calculating the return on investment (ROI) of a given project.

With reference to public TVET institutions, being productive is being able to produce students of high performance or calibre. A public TVET college is expected to maximise the way it uses resources, manpower, facilities. This is expected to be done in a scientific way and in a way that provides access to economic opportunity and education for over 200 000 young adults who need skills to gain employment and a promising future career in South Africa (Holm and Vollman, 2012:5).

As indicated earlier, the quality standards of a public TVET college are judged by the academic performance of its students. For example, a public TVET college is expected to produce good throughput rates every year. A throughput rate is calculated by dividing the total number of students who passed an examination by the total number of students who enrolled for a programme and multiply the result by 100. The throughput rate is calculated for an examination which students wrote and is considered a summative assessment. The throughput rate also includes students who dropped out of a specific programme or course during a trimester or year. For example, in 2002 (NCV was not yet offered) the throughput rate for N3 (N = NATED) was 57% which was marginally higher than that of 2009 which was 45% (Casser *et al.*, 2011:35).

With the above definitions of efficiency rates and productivity in mind, it is important to discuss these concepts. Public TVET educators expect to be rewarded well if public TVET colleges are operating efficiently and meeting the required quality standards in terms of high pass rates of students. The government also expects public TVET educators to be efficient and effective in-service provision. It is asserted that productivity is concerned with how efficiently a certain output of goods and services are produced. In the public TVET sector productivity could be achieved by overcoming the challenges of the endemic underperformance. Red tape (Bureaucracy), financial mismanagement, corruption and poor corporate governance are supposed to be done away with if efficiency or productivity is to be encouraged in the public sector. Since 1994, several measures were put in place to root out underperformance in public institutions to improve service delivery, but still problems of underperformance persist (Mafini and Poee, 2013:2).

From the above discussion, efficiency or productivity mean efficient and effective performance, absence of underperformance (although underperformance cannot be completely ruled out in every situation), and improved service delivery at public TVET Colleges. Also related to this line of thinking are how employees are motivated to work harder and the motivation methods used. These two factors have a great bearing and impact on productivity or efficiency. If public TVET educators are productive, their service delivery is expected to be good and their performance efficient and effective (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:42).

3.25 Summary

Principles of efficiency rates (productivity) espoused in public sector institutions are expected from public TVET colleges. Using the Integrated Quality Management

System (IQMS), public TVET educators who are efficient and effective are expected to achieve and uphold set IQMS standards. Public TVET educators are expected to achieve set percentage pass benchmarks for their subjects if they are to be considered efficient. For clarity's sake, if for a specific year the set pass percentage per subject is 70%, educators who manage to meet this requirement are awarded a certain percentage salary increment as a reward. In the process, the educators concerned are expected to help in the improvement of service delivery and elimination of employee underperformance.

CHAPTER FOUR

AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, TURNOVER AND ABSENTEEISM

4.1 Introduction

Public sector organisations in South Africa including public TVET institutions face immense pressure to excel in their performance. However, the environment under which public organisations operate is highly unstable and competitive. The environment in which public sector organisations operate is characterised by factors such as increased globalisation, more demanding stakeholders, shortages of critical skills, increased workforce diversity as well as ever changing technological innovations. The above-mentioned factors make it mandatory for public sector organisations to develop and implement strategies for improving their performance. Some of these strategies help in enhancing employee high satisfaction with their work. The challenges mentioned above demand that organisations place more emphasis on recognising and enhancing all components of work processes linked to higher levels of employee job satisfaction and performance. In addition, organisations need to identify and lessen effects of factors associated with high employee job dissatisfaction (Mafini and Poee, 2013).

This section starts with a discussion of international and regional overview of work process components linked to higher levels of employee job satisfaction and morale. Secondly, public TVET educators' affective commitment is discussed. After that job satisfaction, staff turnover and absenteeism (loss of working hours for any reason in their varied forms) in general are discussed.

4.2 Overview of international and regional work process components linked to higher levels of employee job satisfaction

At international level, sound technical and vocational educator and trainer recruitment depends on sound remuneration packages and the availability of the right training infrastructure to induce educators' job satisfaction. In this section "trainer" is used as a synonym of "educator" to describe educators who instruct learners in technical subjects such as engineering. Trainers can also mean educators responsible for training educators who teach at technical vocational education and training institutions. Educators in the TVET sector have often received poor remuneration as compared to educators in the general education sector. Because of this most of TVET educators have been dissatisfied with their jobs (ILO, 2010:6, 10). It is therefore worth noting that job satisfaction and morale has always been an issue of great concern for many

researchers, hence the attention it has been given. The attention given to job satisfaction is mainly because of its connection with important organisational phenomena such as organisational commitment, turnover, absenteeism and organisational effectiveness (Gkolia, Belias and Koustelios, 2014:322).

Related to the above, in Mauritius, problems of failure to attract TVET educators into the TVET sector has been due to low salaries. To solve this problem, special allowances were introduced to raise salary levels of TVET educators and trainers in Mauritius. In Burkina Faso, similar problems faced in Mauritius existed. Good professional conditions of work and career structures had to be introduced and implemented. In addition, in Burkina Faso there was a request for more public-private sector collaboration to solve the problems mentioned above. Collaborative initiatives of the public and private sector organisations were expected to assist in offsetting the pay differential levels between TVET educators working in the public sector and those of private enterprise employees. On the other hand, in the Central African Republic, concerns raised by educators were about better job guarantees and lower salaries for TVET educators. This showed that the problem of failure to attract TVET educators was not confined to Europe, it is universal (ILO, 2010:7).

In contrast to the above discussion, in several Organisations for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, educator in general turnover or attrition was mostly due to the ageing workforce and limited workplace experience. The educator and trainer workforce faced two closely related challenges. Firstly, as mentioned before, the workforce was ageing. Secondly, many OECD countries faced critical shortages of vocational educators and trainers in TVET institutions. Some of the countries which may not have been in this danger were expected to experience the same problem soon. In Sweden, for example, more than half of vocational educators and trainers in upper secondary TVET schools were over the age of 50. The ageing TVET workforce was also a challenge in Australia. Because of this problem, several countries found it a big challenge to compensate for the growing wave of retirements. In a bid to recruit more vocational educators and trainers, TVET institutions have had to compete with industry. TVET institutions were often unable to offer competitive salaries, particularly in fast growing professions where trainers were more in demand (Fields, Hoeckel and Kuczera, 2009:48-49).

In addition to the above argument, in the Philippines, there was a talent drain to private enterprises than in other countries once TVET trainees were qualified. A suggested

solution to this problem was offering job security, involving educators in policy development and establishing reward and incentive programmes that provided recognition. Furthermore, linkages with local government authorities for recruitment and professional development programmes through dedicated institutions were also considered. International cooperation was also recommended as another good option to resolve the talent drain in the Philippines. To this end, in the Philippines, good staff development programmes were established in collaboration with Singapore and Japan. On the same issue of job security, Spain underlined it as a policy issue to avoid shortages in public TVET institutions to ensure job satisfaction. Although vocational training educators received professional satisfaction from having their students getting jobs after qualifying, continual investment in up-to-date professional development in line with the needs of enterprises was needed to ensure success (ILO, 2010:8).

In Finland, TVET institutions have found it difficult to attract educators into TVET institutions because of higher salary levels offered in private organisations. The above-mentioned challenge is compounded by the fact that educator career structures in Finland are not broad (There are less opportunities for promotion). The salary increases from the initial starting salary to the maximum salary after 20 years of service in Finland is the lowest in Europe. There are also limited promotional opportunities for educators in Finland. Lack of attraction to teaching has also been mainly because the teaching profession offered few or limited opportunities for advancement. In addition to the above problem, over 40% of all TVET educators in Finland were aged 50 or over in 2006. To avert the problem of ageing staff retiring, and educators leaving the VET sector because of poor salaries, reforms were introduced. Educators became more autonomous and were granted considerable opportunities to influence their work. In addition to the above, to reinforce the above given strategies, educators were offered the opportunity to influence curricula and course design. Educators were also free to take and contribute decisions with regards to teaching methodology, learning materials and student assessment. Educators could also actively participate and be involved in decision making on budgets and the allocation of resources within the institution. Planning and designing the learning environment was also made the responsibility of teachers as this required familiarity with teaching. To this end, the major characteristic of the Finish educational system has been the giving of decision-making powers to institutions and educators since the 1980s. The rationale of conferring more decision-making powers to the institutions and educators was a good gesture meant to strengthen the institutions' readiness to meet the needs of their surrounding communities. It was also meant to motivate educators and the institutions in the sense

that they were now making decisions that affected them. The institutions were also supposed to take decisions as close as possible to those affected by the decisions made. All the above measures taken were reflected in the autonomy and power of both principals and educators (Ministry of Education, 2006:24-25).

Another challenge that TVET institutions faced in Finland was the issue of excessive workloads. The heavy workloads were due to lack of resources and funding. In Finland the teaching load varied from 17 to 25 lessons per week. To make matters worse, educators were permitted to give extra lessons to increase their salaries. In addition to this, TVET institutions were at the interface of government policies focused on employment and education which were constantly changing because of government and the changing nature of the workforce as was the case in South Africa in the public TVET sector (ILO, 2010:8; Ministry of Education, 2006:25).

The TVET sector in Finland, just like in South Africa, is often challenged to play a leading and crucial role in helping the nation to recover economically. This resulted in the government exerting a lot of pressure on TVET educators. For the TVET sector to retain the best and highest qualified educators, it was important that remuneration was fair, decent and competitive with comparable industries. There was an argument that merit pay schemes were not the answer as they would be difficult to administer, inequitable and ineffective, and therefore divisive. In most cases, budget allocations to TVETs have been too small or the economic conditions have been too tight to offer large salary increases to high performing staff. Surprisingly, employees preferred more time for leisure and professional or other forms of non-monetary rewards. Educators also preferred some reward criteria based on equity, seniority or other non-merit incentives as opposed to merit incentive schemes (ILO, 2010:8; Ministry of Education, 2006:25).

In Finland, career management and development were manifested in one assuming more senior positions in the workplace. To show that one is advancing in one's career, one should climb up the hierarchical ladder into more senior administrative positions such as Head of Department, principal, and/or to posts in planning or developing training or educational administration divisions of the institution as illustrated in Table 4.1 (ILO, 2010:8; Ministry of Education, 2006:25).

Besides the above, educator salaries were agreed upon nationally through collective bargaining agreements conducted at 1 to 3-year intervals. This meant that educators

salaries were determined according to individual educator responsibilities and qualifications. However, the workload of educators in the TVET sector was considerably higher than those in basic education. The minimum salary for a senior secondary TVET principal was 4 197 Euros per month (variation 3 000-5 000) and 3 411 Euros per month (variation 3 000-3 900) for adult education institutions. As of 2006, the salary system within the education system was restructured and redesigned considerably. The main purpose was to craft a system where the ultimate salary an educator received was based on the level of demand and responsibilities that one carried. In future, personal achievements and competencies of educators would also be reflected in salaries as Table 4.1 illustrates (Ministry of Education, 2006:26).

Studies of educators in public schools in Greece however indicated that educators were satisfied with the job itself and how their supervisors managed them. However, educators were also dissatisfied with pay and lack of or limited promotional opportunities. Added to this, in a study conducted in Greece, it was discovered that autonomy that educators enjoyed was correlated to the job itself as well as to supervision received and the educational organisation. On the other hand, other studies carried out in Greece showed that there was a negative correlation between a high level of stress in the teaching profession and the emotional engagement of educators with their learners (Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327).

Table 4.1: Examples of salaries in Euros per month as of 1st March 2005

Title	Starting salary	5 years of experience	10 years of experience	20 years of experience
Vocational institution				
Full-time educator, vocational subjects	2.540	2.930	3.170	3.680
Full-time educator core subjects	2.540	2.720	2.940	3.400
Healthcare institution				
Full-time educator, vocational subjects.	2.530	-	-	2.700
Business& administration				
Full-time educator, vocational subjects.	2.650	2.840	3.060	3.545

(Adapted from Finland: Ministry of Education, 2006:26)

Related to the discussion in Table 4.1, from an African perspective, in a study carried out by Olaita in 1987 cited in (Bassak, 2014), it was discovered that academic staff in higher education to which most TVET educators belong, were dissatisfied with their living and academic growth opportunities. Other issues that contributed to Nigerian educators' dissatisfaction with their jobs as compared to other professions were the salary structures in place in Nigeria. In addition, job dissatisfaction of educators was brought about by their low status in society. Coupled with the above discussed educators experienced job dissatisfaction and low morale because of lack of promotional opportunities and lack of career advancement opportunities. Low allowances also played a major role in academic staff job dissatisfaction. In Zimbabwe high and overwhelming workloads played a major role on most educators' job dissatisfaction in general. Inadequate and low salaries and allowances, and the inability of educators to access loans to purchase houses and cars were also responsible for educators' high job satisfaction. The Human Science Research Council (HSRC) conducted a survey which involved 21 358 educators in general in South Africa in 2005. More than 1 714 selected schools with a 97% participation were involved in the survey. The study revealed that educators in general left their organisations because of poor remuneration, increased and overwhelming workloads, and lack of career advancement, lack of professional recognition, bad work policies and job insecurity fears. High volumes of work, inadequate salaries, poor allowances and lack of access to loans to facilitate purchases of properties were cited as other reasons for educators' dissatisfaction with their jobs. Finally, in Uganda in 2005 in a study which involved 182 participants by Ssesang and Garret (2005) cited in (Bassak, 2014), it was discovered that educators were dissatisfied with issues pertaining to remuneration, governance, promotion and the work environment (Bassak, 2014:104-105).

4.3 Organisation commitment

The concept of organisation commitment is defined as the likelihood of an individual sticking with a job or an organisation and feel psychologically attached to that organisation and in general. There are three forms of organisation commitment. The three types of organisation commitment are normative, continuance and affective. Normative commitment refers to an employee's perceived duty to stay put with the organisation. This could be so because one may feel obliged to stay put in a position or in the organisation because of the good things that the employer could have done for the employee in the past. For example, the employer might have supported the employee in the building up his / her career through financial support. On the other hand, employees with continuance commitment may make a choice to stay put with

the organisation because they have no other choice. This may mean that the employee has no other choice which is better than the current employer and has to stay in the job even if the conditions could be unfavourable. In contrast, employees with affective commitment may choose to remain in the organisation because they are emotionally attached to it. These employees closely identify with the organisation and are very loyal towards the organisation. These employees might have been pioneers of the organisation and might have joined it when it was established and have witnessed its growth and might have also experienced the difficulties it went through. Affective commitment is closely related to occupational outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee turnover, absenteeism and employee retention to mention a few examples (Salie and Schlechter, 2012:3; Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4).

4.3.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment can also be described as an employee's sentimental attachment, sense of belonging and participation in an organisation because of favourable perceptions of tangible and non-tangible benefits that one can enjoy. Emotional attachment, belongingness and involvement in the organisation constitute affective commitment. Affective commitment is an individual's belongingness and sentimental affection with the organisation and its goals and objectives. Affective commitment pertains to a situation in which an individual employee wishes to be with the organisation and continues his/her association with that organisation. Affective commitment can also be defined as an optimistic fondness towards the organisation, reproduced in a longing to see the organisation succeed in its aims and objectives. It also involves an emotional satisfaction with one being part of the organisation (Imam, Raza, Shah and Raza, 2013:272; Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4).

It can further be argued that when an organisation meets employees' monetary and non-monetary expectations and needs, their affective commitment is increased. Pay and bonuses contribute to employee affective commitment, but intrinsic non-monetary rewards are more powerful predictors of affective commitment than monetary rewards (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4). Further to the above, affective commitment can be looked at as a situation where an employee has a strong belief in the organisational goals and values of an organisation. Because of this, the individual has a willingness to go the extra-mile and exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation to meet its objectives (Chien-Hung and Wen-Cheng, 2012:89).

Affective commitment can also be considered as a psychological bond characterised by loyalty to and identification with the purposes and goals of the organisation. The bond is more psychological or emotional in nature. If employees consider their needs are met and satisfied by the organisation and perceive that the organisation value and treat them with respect and dignity, an emotional attachment is formed between them and the organisation. The emotional attachment reflects the employee's sense of belonging, loyalty, pride, and identification with and the internalisation of the core values of the organisation. Affective commitment makes employees choose to stay with their organisations because they genuinely feel like to doing so (Lambert, Kim, Kelly and Hogan, 2013:2).

4.3.2 Lack of educators affective commitment

It is very important to discuss the effects of lack of public TVET educators' affective commitment as it affects the public TVET college sector in several ways. It can be argued that lack of affective commitment leads to low job satisfaction, high staff turnover, low commitment and high absenteeism. This illustrates how important it is to always gauge and monitor the levels of staff affective commitment in an organisation. This must be done at each given moment and opportunity in the public TVET sector to monitor job satisfaction, morale, commitment and turnover of employees (Masigibiri and Nienaber, 2011:3).

Given the above arguments, the direct costs associated with employee lack of affective commitment are that employees leave the organisation. Because of this the organisation must recruit and train new replacements at a big cost. Efforts must be made to retain talent but if employees are not satisfied, they can leave the organisation, and this is a huge cost to the organisation. Direct costs because of lack of affective commitment also include training and development costs, as well as severance packages or dismissal costs if wrong employees were employed. Indirect costs pertain to loss of tacit knowledge employees take away with them when they leave the organisation. Losing tacit knowledge inhibits the organisation's achievement of long-term competitive advantage, operational objectives and high performance. The organisation therefore loses a lot in the process (Masigibiri and Nienaber, 2011:3).

In conclusion, literature revealed that there is a close relationship between job satisfaction, morale, absenteeism and turnover. It can also be argued that internal cohesiveness presented in a group of workers with high morale increases job satisfaction. Internal cohesiveness also reduces absenteeism and turnover. At the

same time low morale negatively impacts employee performance and contributes to high attrition. However, employee turnover itself can be responsible for the high morale of employees who remain in the organisation. This is attributed to the fact that those who remain in the organisation may hope to get better jobs left by those who would have left the organisation due to promotional opportunities they got. Low morale can also contribute to the results of the effects of employee turnover such as the disruption of performance, social networks and communication patterns. Low affective commitment may also lead to more or high employee turnover (Lambert *et al.*, 2013:3).

4.4 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is another dependent variable in this study which requires close monitoring in the workplace. Job satisfaction is closely related to morale, affective commitment, turnover or career mobility, absenteeism, productivity and job security (Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:323). If public TVET educators experience low job satisfaction their affective commitment is negatively impacted upon. Therefore, job satisfaction of public TVET educators must be discussed to find out how it is linked to affective commitment, absenteeism and turnover (Gkolia *et al.*, 2014).

4.4.1 Meaning of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is regarded as an emotional state of happiness which clearly explains how an employee feels about his/her obligation to report for work daily. Job satisfaction also explains how employees feel about their compulsion to perform well in the workplace to get what they expect from a specific job. Job satisfaction is also perceived as an abstract concept that means different things to different people. However, in general job satisfaction explains employee satisfaction with their jobs. Job satisfaction thus explains how much employees are interested in their assigned tasks and duties. Job satisfaction is the employee's response towards his/her work experiences or an employee's emotional state towards a job (Nujjo and Meyer, 2013; Imam *et al.*, 2013:271).

Job satisfaction can therefore be summed up as pleasurable or positive emotional states resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. It is a result of an employee's perception of how well a job provides those things that are viewed as important by an employee. It can also be defined as a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his / her job-related needs to be being met. Job satisfaction can also be explained as the relative intensity of how an individual employee identifies with the organisation that he/she

works for. Job satisfaction can also refer to the extent to which an individual would like to be involved with activities of a specific organisation (Imam *et al.*, 2013:271-272: Cambridge University, 2008).

4.4.2 Elements influencing job satisfaction

Several organisations in South Africa, the public TVET College sector included, are grappling with the problem of employee dissatisfaction with their jobs. Literature has shown that employees with job satisfaction are more satisfied with their jobs and loyal to their organisations. In addition, employees who experience job satisfaction are less likely to leave their jobs for other jobs. This section discusses factors that impact employee job satisfaction (Nujjo and Meyer, 2013:1).

It should however be noted that job satisfaction is an abstract concept with many meanings attached to it and is very difficult to measure. The level of employee job satisfaction is influenced by a wide range of elements. These elements relate to individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors. Individual factors pertain to factors which include personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age and marital status. Social elements that influence job satisfaction include relationships with co-workers and groups, norms and opportunities for interaction. Informational organisation factors also affect employee job satisfaction. In addition, cultural factors include underlying attitudes, beliefs and values. Organisational factors include the nature and size of the organisation, the formal structure, personnel policies and procedures. Employee relationships, nature of work, technology and work organisation, and leadership styles are also included among elements that influence employee job satisfaction. Management systems and working conditions are also part of factors that affect employee job satisfaction. Environmental factors such as economic, social, technical and governmental influences are included in factors that influence employee job satisfaction (Mafini and Pooe, 2013:1).

Furthermore, a wide range of other specific elements influence job satisfaction of employees. These elements include Herzberg's (1943) hygiene factors and motivation factors. Hygiene factors among other elements include having an appropriate work environment, policies and procedures in an organisation. Motivation factors are mostly intrinsic motivators and the way the job is structured. The above mentioned and discussed elements influence the job satisfaction of individual employees in given specific circumstances but not necessarily in others (Mafini and Pooe, 2013:2).

4.4.3 Reasons for low job satisfaction

Low levels of job satisfaction are related to low salaries employees receive and unmet expectations. Lack of recognition of educators' job experiences and training, lack of resources with which to effectively perform their tasks and increased red tape (bureaucracy) in the Department of Education may affect educator job satisfaction (Fields, 2013:3).

In this study "school" and "college" are used in special reference to general education issues which apply to both the public TVET sector and the Department of Basic Education. Both levels of education used to fall under the Department of Basic Education before year 2002. To support this argument, public TVET educators' technical qualifications and years of experience were given equivalence for remuneration purposes using scales applicable to school level educators. It should also be noted that most of public TVET educators joined these TVET colleges from the Department of Basic Education on secondment (Papier, 2008:6).

To this end, in a survey carried out in 2007 in learning institutions in Southern Africa, it was discovered that one third of educators in general were 'poorly' or 'very poorly' motivated. In this study it was reported that educator motivation levels were chronically low in Ghana and Zambia. Educators in most low-income countries earned poverty wages of 2-4 US dollars a day in 2007. To make the situation worse, educators in Africa have at least five direct dependants to take care of on these meagre salaries. This means that what was earned by a teacher per day in 2007 was less than 2 United States dollars a day. These studies also revealed that it was only in India and Lesotho where educators earned anything close to a living wage. Elsewhere in low income countries, educators inclusive those in the TVET sector earned salaries that could not cover their most basic subsistence needs (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007).

4.4.4 Effects of low job satisfaction

In the foregoing discussions, it is implied that job satisfaction explains what makes people want to attend work. This means that lack of job satisfaction could explain why people may not want to go to work. In this section an attempt is made to find out the potential impact of lack of job satisfaction on the part of public TVET educators. In other words, how does lack of or low job satisfaction affect public TVET educators' affective commitment in the public TVET sector, and the public TVET Colleges operations. The effects of lack of job satisfaction on educators are shown by the fact that some educators leave the teaching profession after a few years of joining. Lack of job

satisfaction is also shown by educators' frequent absenteeism from institutions or work. Educators also psychologically withdraw from their work in the sense that they do not commit themselves whole heartedly to their work. Some educators show this by engaging in extra after hours work to supplement their earnings by selling Tupperware for example (George *et al.*, 2008).

Connected to the above argument, it is argued that a sizeable proportion of educators in Sub-Saharan Africa experience low levels of job satisfaction. Because of this, several learners are not taught as required and to the expected standards. The learners are not even receiving the minimally acceptable standard of education as educators are now focused more on pursuing other activities unrelated to their work to supplement their earnings as previously alluded to (Sumar and Lesha, 2013:14; Fields, 2013:3).

Overwhelming consensus from stakeholders and educators in interviews carried out in Sub-Saharan Africa by Bennell and Akyeampong in 2007 indicated that educators were very much underpaid. Gross underpayment of educators was therefore a key factor undermining educator affective commitment and motivation. For example, educators in most low-income countries earned US\$ 2-4 per day in 2007 and this has not improved yet (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007).

From the above discussion, it can be deduced that low levels of job satisfaction negatively impact learning and the job satisfaction and morale of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators. Educators leave their jobs because of lack of job satisfaction. It can be further alleged that educators who remain behind must work harder. Educators must work harder due to huge and voluminous workloads including the loads that used to be taken care of by those who left which are considered a major contributor to educator low morale. This situation can also be caused by freezing recruitment of more educators. The freezing recruitment of more educators is prompted by acute fiscal crises in some countries. Sometimes demoralised teachers are unable to leave teaching. The educators fail to leave teaching due to lack of alternative employment opportunities. The effect of failure to leave is that educators do not perform as expected since they won't be happy to extend their tenure (Fields, 2013:5).

As has been implied earlier on there are negative consequences when employees are dissatisfied with reward systems. These consequences include high labour attrition rates and poor performance of jobs. The employees also show signs of lack identification with the organisation and as a result, employees seek to be unionised so

that their rights can be safeguarded by the trade union. It can thus be argued that job satisfaction is so important that its absence often leads to acute reduction of employee energy levels in terms of job satisfaction and morale. Low job satisfaction also leads to reduced levels of employee organisational commitment. In addition, it can also be argued that lack of job satisfaction is a predictor of an employee quitting a job. It is acknowledged though that sometimes workers leave the public sector for the private sector, and vice versa for various individual reasons. In some instances, the movement is from one occupation to another that is more attractive. This is typical of what is happening in most of African countries, South Africa included. In these countries, people tend to and prefer to move to better consistently paying jobs which offer better perceived benefits mostly in the public sector (Sumar and Lesha, 2013:43).

4.4.5 Job satisfaction among educators

In this section elements that affect educators' job satisfaction at regional and international levels are discussed. After getting a glimpse of regional and international perspectives, the discussion narrows down to the South African context.

In Botswana Chimbanga conducted a research in 1999 on educators in general inclusive TVET educators who teach English as a second language. The research did not measure job satisfaction by itself, but in a holistic manner. In his findings in 1995 Chimbanga found out that factors such as workload, extra curricula activities, class sizes and working conditions, just like in the South African public TVET sector in the education sector in general played an important part in determining the job satisfaction and morale of educators who taught English as a second language. In Lesotho in 2003, Pu found out that factors such as compensation and recognition improved job satisfaction of educators. In addition, elements such as institutional policies and practices, working conditions, supervision practices or management and leadership styles, and human relations were important elements that could be used to enhance educators' or any employee's job satisfaction (Monyatsi, 2012:220; Moghli and Azizi, 2011).

To take the discussion further, in Poland, in 1990, Wisniewski (1990) cited in (Agurins, 2013) found out that Polish educators' job satisfaction was mainly influenced by three factors. The factors that influenced the job satisfaction of educators according to (Wisniewski, 1990) cited in (Aguinis, 2013:13) were a good pay (according to the perception of an educator), good organisation of the school, and the atmosphere in the institution of learning. The learning organisation's learning environment was expected

to be pleasant and friendly in such a way that it allowed organisational needs to be met as well as those of the educator. It was hoped and expected that the school environment would be able to give educators the freedom to experiment and innovate in teaching, education and learning to grow in their profession (Aguinis, 2013:13; George *et al.*, 2008).

In Western Australia, most of high school educators who offered TVET education believed job satisfaction of educators hinged on how successful educators were in their teaching. High school educators also considered acknowledgements and recognition for a job well done as elements that had a positive effect on their job satisfaction. It was also revealed in a study conducted by Rice and Schneider (1994) cited in (George *et al.*, 2008) that employee active participation in decision making and autonomy were contributing factors to employee job satisfaction. Both studies agreed that intrinsic rewards had a huge influence on employee job satisfaction (George *et al.*, 2008).

In studies carried out in the United Kingdom, job satisfaction was believed to be influenced by factors such as student learning and achievement. In 1999 Scott, Cox and Dinham, cited in (George *et al.*, 2008) found out that relationships with colleagues and status that educators in general enjoyed in the community were important factors that influenced job satisfaction. The image of teaching as well as professional development also influenced job satisfaction. Overall, sources of educator job satisfaction in the United Kingdom were mainly found to be more influenced by intrinsic rewards. The intrinsic rewards which were found to be more influential in this case were centred on learner and teacher achievement. Meaning that teachers found more job satisfaction from their interactions with their learners and the good results they produced from this interaction. In a study of special school educators in Turkey it was discovered that more experienced educators had less job satisfaction as compared to less experienced educators. These findings confirmed findings in similar studies carried out by the National Centre for Educational Studies in the United States of America in 1997, cited in (George *et al.*, 2008). The study by the National Centre for Educational Studies discovered that in public institutions of learning, younger and less experienced educators had higher levels of job satisfaction and morale as compared to older and more experienced educators. However, in private learning institutions in the United States of America the relationship was found to be bipolar. The very youngest and oldest educators had higher levels of job satisfaction, as did the least and the most experienced educators (George *et al.*, 2008).

In South Africa the education context is different from that of other neighbouring African countries. This difference is due to some of the inequalities that existed in South Africa between educational systems that were provided for white and black people prior to 1994. For example, in South Africa white teachers job satisfaction was and morale influenced by issues such as conditions of work. Job satisfaction of white educators was also influenced by interpersonal relationships amongst educators with managers, interpersonal relationships amongst colleagues and interpersonal relationships amongst learners and educators. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) of educators, management styles adopted by managers and educator community involvement also played an influential effect on the job satisfaction of educators. In other words, the elements that influenced job satisfaction among white educators covered a broad spectrum of factors. These elements included intrinsic and extrinsic factors, thereby confirming the suggestion that a total rewards model could be adopted if provision of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to cater for the different needs of individual employees is to be endorsed (Papier, Needham and McBride, 2012:2; Department of Basic Education, 2011:16 -18).

In 1994 Van der Westhuizen and Du Toit, cited in (SACE, 2011) conducted a study in which they discovered that the job satisfaction of South African female educators had more to do with the good relationships between educators and learners. Security was also discovered to be of great importance to female educators in South Africa. From this study it was also found out that it was apparent that relationships that female educators had with their colleagues mattered and were very important in enhancing their job satisfaction. To this end, indications were that intrinsic rewards played a crucial role in determining female educators' job satisfaction. From accounts and testimonies given by educators in the written and mass media it was pointed out that low levels of job satisfaction among educators were associated with low salaries. In addition, lack of recognition and acknowledgement for jobs well done by educators contributed to low job satisfaction. Furthermore, lack of training and resources, and increased bureaucracy in the Department of Education also played a major role in determining educators' job satisfaction in general (Pitsoe, 2013:309). Due to the above situation, many young educators were leaving and not keen to join the teaching profession (SACE, 2011).

Mwamwenda conducted a study in Transkei in 1995 in which he discovered some indicators that could be used to explain the job satisfaction of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators. The indicators of job satisfaction among educators in

the Transkei such as positive and amicable relationships among educators and principals were like those discovered by Van der Westhuizen and Du Toit in 1994, cited in (SACE, 2011). Other indicators that were found to enhance job satisfaction included relationships among colleagues (educators), and the results produced by learners because of interactions with educators. In 1994 Nhundu, cited in (Pitsoe, 2013) also claimed that allowing educators to actively participate in their own performance appraisals especially in the form of self-appraisals, and clearly defining their roles helped in enhancing job satisfaction among educators in Zimbabwe. In this study the major finding was that self-appraisals were a good motivator which enhanced the overall job satisfaction of individual educators as compared to performance appraisals conducted by supervisors without the input of individual educators (Pitsoe, 2013:310).

It was found that South African female educators job satisfaction revolved around their rapport with their learners, teaching and job security. Job satisfaction is also attributed to positive relationships among educators and principals, learners' results and self-appraisals. In addition, Workload, class sizes, working conditions, compensation, recognition, institutional policies, supervision and human relations play a major role in determining job satisfaction. There are several problems with regards to the above-mentioned factors that determine job satisfaction in the public TVET sector (George *et al.*, 2008)

4.5 Staff turnover

4.5.1 Introduction

This section discusses staff turnover, which is normally a by-product of public TVET educators' failure to get satisfaction and meaning in their jobs. The causes of this phenomenon and how it is manifested and how it can be controlled are looked at.

Employee turnover is an important organisational phenomenon which demands the full attention of the organisation as it also affects organisational performance like any other. It is important for organisations, individuals, and society, to have a full understanding of the phenomenon of employee turnover and hence the need to discuss how it occurs and affects organisational operations. There is a need to understand turnover's effects on the smooth operations of public TVET institutions. From an organisational perspective, employee turnover represents a significant cost to the organisation in terms of recruiting costs, training costs, socialising costs and work disruptions. Turnover also causes a variety of indirect costs for an organisation as implied above. Given the

influences turnover has on the operations of the organisation, it is important for the public TVET College Councils to be able to analyse, understand, and effectively manage turnover to minimise its impact on organisational performance (Masigibiri and Nienaber, 2011).

4.5.2 Meaning of staff turnover

Employee turnover refers to the termination of the employment relationship that an individual member has with the organisation. It also refers to the percentage of employees leaving the organisation for whatever reason at any given time. There are two common types of turnover namely, voluntary and involuntary employee turnover. Employee voluntary turnover is initiated by the employee while involuntary turnover is initiated by management who may decide to get out of the employment relationship because of certain reasons. For example, voluntary turnover could be explained as a situation whereby an employee volunteers to resign because of a chronic ailment which renders him/her incapable of continuing to work. Involuntary turnover may be brought about by the fact that an employer may end up laying off employees because of circumstances beyond his/her control such as the ones necessitated by an unseen event such as a natural disaster like a drought. The natural disaster may render a business incapable of continued operation. Turnover can also be divided into functional and dysfunctional turnover. Functional turnover can be forecasted and controlled whereas dysfunctional turnover cannot be forecasted and controlled. In addition, avoidable turnover is distinguishable from unavoidable turnover and this enables an organisation to plan accordingly and ensure that proper emphasis is placed on the avoidable proportion. Finally, turnover rate refers to the rate of individuals leaving the organisation at any given time (Cao, Chen and Song, 2013:64).

Related to the above discussed terms is tenure, which is the length of time an individual has been employed by an organisation. Tenure is closely related to the concept of employee loyalty or affective commitment. Often it is loyal employees who usually remain with the organisation for a long period of time because of the employee's perceptions of tangible and non-tangible benefits accruable from long tenure with the organisation. In many organisations because of the benefits long tenure to the organisation, it is desirable to have employees who have stayed in the organisation for many years (long-tenured). Long-tenured employees are believed to be knowledgeable of how the system works and are loyal because if they were not they would not have stayed that long or for many years in the same organisation. However, this situation can be taken to extremes and can create problems in the sense that if one wants to

leave there is no need to hold him or her back. Holding onto employees creates problems for the organisation in future. Employees may end up holding the organisation at ransom when they want their conditions of employment improved if they believe that the organisation held them back, they can use this as a leverage to meet their demands (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4).

4.5.3 Causes of employee turnover

In order not to cause confusion, it is important to review the needs of public TVET educators to understand the causes of turnover in this sector. The causes of turnover must be looked at critically. After that the specific solutions offered, and the context in which the employees often make the decisions to leave will be considered. When employees have particular needs on the job, the challenge is that the employer has to meet those needs in some way or face the consequences. Among other reasons, employees leave the organisation because they are dissatisfied with unattractive salaries, poor conditions of service, or because of dissatisfaction with management leadership styles. Additionally, employees leave due to inadequate opportunities for career-related skills development, dissatisfaction with benefits, uncomfortable work environment and conflict with managers or co-workers. The public TVET sector has been in throes of a changing landscape and successive policy interventions since 1995. There has been a 17-year period of uncertainty and instability with a huge staff turnover (Papier *et al.*, 2012:2).

If employee needs are met, employees may decide to stay in the organisation. If a need is not considered strong enough to warrant leaving the organisation, an employee may decide to adjust or adapt to the situation rather than leave the organisation. It could however be argued that although employee needs must be met, other factors also drive retention. The issue of job alternatives plays a big role in retention. When employees believe they can find a better job elsewhere, the likelihood to want to leave increases. The decision to leave can be greatly influenced if employees think they can obtain new jobs with ease or within a short period of time. Therefore, job search behaviour has an important connection to the actual intention to leave and ultimate departure (Cao *et al.*, 2013:62-64).

Table 4.2: Factors attracting educators to alternative employment options

FACTORS	PERCENTAGE
Teach outside South Africa	4.1
Teach at private institutions	3.9
Change to another career	24.6
Go back to university / college and study something different	4.4
Better salary	52.3
Other	9.2
Unknown	1.5
Total	100.0

(Adapted from Hall *et al.*, 2005:7)

The reasons why educators (public TVET) educators included) feel like leaving the teaching profession in South Africa are economic reasons, increased workloads, poor remuneration, reduction of educators' leave days and the implementation of the outcomes- based-education and learning among others. The reasons why educators in general inclusive public TVET educators leave the teaching profession are further summarised in Table 4.2 from a NAPTOSA report of 2002.

Decisions to leave one's job are construed as a withdrawal decision process. This process includes several intermediary well thought-out steps. These steps are the evaluation of an existing job as well as the evaluation of the expected usefulness of searching for alternative employment. In this process employees also consider the rationale, costs and benefits of leaving the current job for a new one. In addition, employees evaluate job alternatives in comparison with their current jobs. This is linked to continuance commitment. The outcome of the analysis may however not necessarily result in resigning but merely in weighing which options are more advantageous between staying and quitting the current job which helps in coming up with an informed decision (Imam *et al.*, 2013:272).

4.5.4 Negative impacts of turnover

Educator turnover obviously has negative influences on the quality of education in public TVET institutions. In South Africa the number of educators in general that leave the education system for employment opportunities elsewhere may not have serious effects on education in general in terms of numbers that remain in the system. This is because the same numbers that leave the education system may be replaced by those

that flow into the education system from other African countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) like Zimbabwe, and even beyond as far away as Nigeria. Interestingly this group of educators from the SADC and beyond find teaching conditions in the public TVET institutions more attractive as compared to those obtaining in their countries. However, the main problem that is experienced by the Department of Basic Education is in terms of the quality of education provided to the learners by the educators and public TVET institutions. For example, the educator-learner ratio is unfavourable. This is the case because one educator is expected to monitor at least 40 learners both at learning institutions and public TVET institution levels. The quality of learning is compromised since educators spend more time maintaining order and discipline instead of engaging in real quality teaching (SACE, 2011:27).

The other problem is that a larger number of educators from former white learning institutions migrated to the United Kingdom and other developed countries. In 2006, in the UK, 5564 work permits were issued to people whose work included teaching in general. The educators were attracted to go and work overseas as it was claimed that in the UK educators earned 40% more than they earned at home. Educators who migrated to Europe were highly qualified and skilled, and this deprived South African learners of quality education. This meant that while South African learners were disadvantaged, those from developed nations gained. Thirty percent (30%) of teaching permits in the United Kingdom were issued to South African educators. This meant that 1492 teaching permits were granted to South African educators in 2006. Compared to South Africa, Jamaica had only 523 teaching permits issued to educators (in general) by the United Kingdom in 2006. This shows that South Africa has been the largest provider of educators (in general) in the United Kingdom. Considering that the best educators (in general) were targeted by recruiters, the quality of education in South Africa was somehow affected although South Africa managed to attract educators from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and West African countries like Nigeria (SACE, 2011:8, 15).

A study by NAPTOSA in 2002 illustrated the magnitude of the seriousness of the educator turnover problem in South Africa. See Table 4.3 on page 102.

Table 4.3: Turnover of South African educators in 2002 per province

PROVINCE	TOTAL	Educators considering leaving education	
	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE	95% CI
	20 626	54.0	(53.1, 55.5)
Western Cape (WC)	2416	72.9	(70.2, 75.5)
Eastern Cape (EC)	2544	43.9	(40.4, 47.6)
Northern Cape (NC)	1119	64.5	(60.9, 68.0)
Free State (FS)	1352	60.1	(56.1, 63.9)
Kwazulu-Natal (KZN)	4623	51.1	(48.9, 53.4)
North West (NW)	1839	52.4	(49.9, 55.7)
Gauteng (GT)	3317	68.0	(65.1, 70.7)
Mpumalanga (MP)	1496	55.1	(50.5, 59.6)
Limpopo (LP)	2280	47.4	(44.1, 50.7)

(Adapted from Hall *et al.*, 2005:9)

In a study published in 2006 in South Africa, Appleton *et al.* (2003) indicated that 48% of practising educators in the sample indicated intentions to migrate. Twenty-seven percent (27%) of student educators were considering migrating after completing their studies. In addition, statistics in 2006 showed that about 17 500 educators in general were lost through attrition. Only 2500 were being produced by teacher training institutions in South Africa and this was the only source of educators for both the public TVET sector and the Department of Basic Education. Added to this problem, in general, in the period 2000 to 2004, South Africa experienced an educator attrition rate of just over 1/3, which translated to 34%. About 8.6% of educators left the teaching profession and went to work overseas during the same period. In 2006 an estimated 4% of educators from South Africa were working abroad (Masigibiri and Nienaber, 2011:3; SACE, 2011:8).

4.5.5 Costs of turnover on individuals

Turnover is a critical issue which must be given serious attention in the public TVET Sector. Turnover is given this prominence due to the significant negative impact it has on individuals and organisations. It is not only the organisation that suffers from negative effects of turnover. Individuals also suffer, especially in a situation where problems causing the person to go away can be avoided. Firstly, if the departure of the employee is voluntary, there are the usual issues about turnover that could have been avoided. However, even in cases of voluntary turnover on avoidable causes, problems

are created. Turnover creates negative consequences such as employees losing benefits and job seniority. Some employee benefits are tied to tenure. When starting a new job, it is as if the employee is starting to work for the first time and that is a very big problem that can be avoided. The employee loses vested interests in benefits at the previous organisation such as networking and socialising with his former colleagues and continuity in gaining experience is also lost (Aguinis, 2013:8).

Secondly, when employees start a new job there is stress associated with the transition and change. In every job change, anxiety and stress associated with the transition can be difficult to intensify even if it is a desired transition. Job changes represent one of life's important stressors. Thirdly, financial difficulties are also encountered. If a person leaves a job without having immediate employment, the transition can create serious financial setbacks. Even in voluntary turnover, a short break in employment can occur. Fourthly, loss of social networks is experienced by those who leave. For many employees, the workplace is their primary social network. For some employees this is their only social life. Relinquishing that connection and moving to another organisation often destroys that network, along with the emotional support from the network. Fifthly, and in addition, relocation costs are experienced. Although many organisations reimburse relocation costs, some do not, and the employee is made to bear all the costs involved. Sixth, efforts are wasted in the form of projects which are not completed. In knowledge industries where employees work on developing and completing projects like in the public TVET institutions, a departure can mean wasted effort. These departures often leave employees feeling as if the entire time on the project was wasted. In addition to the above, career problems are created. A situation in which the departure could have been the result of performance incapacity, it can be devastating for the individual's career and can take a tremendous toll on self-esteem. Frequent job changes can also be difficult to explain to potential future employers (Phillips and Connell, 2003:6-7).

In conclusion, it has been observed that dissatisfaction with the work environment and payment conditions, the bureaucracy, and the uncertainties brought about by so many changes in policy in the public TVET sector, seem to be the main reasons that could have driven educators (in general) out of teaching. Policy is required to make public TVET sector stable, more appealing and ensure that well qualified and experienced educators are nurtured and recognised in order to provide enough reasons to dissuade educators (in general) from leaving the education sector inclusive the public TVET sector (SACE, 2011:23).

4.6 Absenteeism

4.6.1 Introduction

Absenteeism is one of the dependent variables assumed to result from the status quo of dissatisfaction of public TVET educators with rewards offered by public TVET college councils. Absenteeism is disruptive and affects the quality of education provided by public TVET educators. Absenteeism is one of the methods used by educators in general to avoid what they may perceive to be aversive work conditions. For example, Adams theory (1965) proposed that employees compare how much effort they put work in their work (inputs) with the remuneration they receive (outputs). Employees compare the rewards they receive with those of their fellow workers. If they perceive the ratios of efforts to outcomes are unequal, especially when educators claim that there is unfairness, educators use negative strategies in a bid to restore equity. Educators in general inclusive public TVET educators may resort to absenteeism as a strategy of bringing their concerns to the attention of management. This argument therefore makes absenteeism deserve to be fully explained and discussed as it has an influence on the affective commitment of public TVET educators (Banks, Patel and Moola, 2012:2).

4.6.2 Meaning of absenteeism

Absenteeism is explained as the non-attendance of an employee when he/she is expected to report for work and perform his/her duties. Absenteeism is also regarded as withdrawal behaviour when used by an employee to escape an undesirable working environment. Absenteeism can further be described as the failure of an individual employee to attend work. The meaning of absenteeism can also be broadened to mean not being in a workplace at a given time. Absenteeism also means failing to report for scheduled work. As such, absenteeism is a violation of a social obligation to be in a specific workplace at a time (Banks *et al.*, 2012:3; Santi, Jayanthi and Hemalatha, 2011:61).

As a follow up to the above discussion, absenteeism can be classified into three broad distinctions which help in understanding the nature of this phenomenon. Firstly, absence due to sickness is one of the categories of absenteeism. In this situation one is absent from work because one is not feeling well and usually has a doctor's sick note as proof. This can then be referred to as authorised absence. Secondly, there is also what is termed unexcused absence or absence without leave. In this case, absence from work is not sanctioned by the employer, or by a medical practitioner. Thirdly, voluntary or unauthorised absenteeism is the non-attendance of employees in

scheduled meetings sometimes due to perceived inequities. This excludes absenteeism because of illness, family death, weather conditions and transport problems. However, there are forms of absenteeism such as lateness or coming back from a tea or lunch break very late, reporting late for work, leaving work early and taking unauthorised leave in the face of perceived inequity. The employee will be away from duty without the permission or blessings of the employer in all the above-mentioned instances. All these forms of absenteeism are found in the public TVET college sector in South Africa (Santhi *et al.*, 2011:61).

4.6.3 Factors contributing to absenteeism

Human resource practitioners are urged to be sensitive to the problems that can prevent employees from attending work. Human resource practitioners are also urged to be cognisant of the fact that, for various reasons, people abuse sick leave. The same cold that prevents one from attending a social meeting can become a convenient excuse not to attend work. Firstly, employees may choose to be absent from work because of unmet expectations or perceived inequity. Expectations such as the quest for opportunities to apply their skills coupled with factors such as unequal treatment, not receiving respect, and unsatisfactory working conditions related to organisational failure to meet agreements entered particularly with new employees can contribute to absenteeism. Secondly, when an employee's personality, abilities, and skills do not agree or are at variance with one's job requirements, a person may elect to be absent from work. Usually in such cases employees can become disinterested with work or they can be stressed up and absent themselves from work. Under such situations an employee may feel intimidated and afraid in the workplace because the supervisor may be closely monitoring him/her or even shout at him/her for not performing well for example. However, if there is a good match between the job characteristics and personal characteristics and capabilities of the employee, an employee can accept his/her responsibilities and stay on the job. Thirdly, organisational culture could cause an employee to be absent from work. If a tolerant culture exists in an organisation with regards to absenteeism, employees can perceive sickness as a benefit that needs to be utilised. It was also noted that, if unnecessary absenteeism is looked at in bad light by either management or co-workers, employees think twice before they abuse sick leave (Banks *et al.*, 2012:3).

There are also other reasons that prevent employees especially educators from attending work as depicted in Table 4.4. As shown in Table 4.4, reasons for educator (in general) absenteeism in Low Income Countries (LICs) is given. It is clearly shown

in Table 4.2, that there are several other reasons for employee absenteeism. In Botswana, Malawi and Uganda, a high proportion of 5% absenteeism is due to illness of oneself and others. Except for Malawi, other countries showed a high level of educator participation in official absenteeism. Official absenteeism is authorised absenteeism such as attending official meetings and training to mention a few examples. Because of these educators find themselves not being in the institution not because they want to absent themselves from work but because they have to attend to official business but all the same they are absent from work (Reddy, Prinsloo, Netshitangani, Molotsane, Juan and van Rensburg, 2010:22).

Table 4.4: Reasons, percentages for educator absence

Country	Gender	Sickness-self	Sickness- others	Official duty	Leave	Funeral	Attended but left	Unauthorised	Reason not given
Bangladesh	All	10	Na	55	33	Na	2	3	0
Indonesia	All	13	Na	19	24	Na	13	3	25
Ecuador	All	13	Na	25	10	Na	10	3	41
Peru	All	9	Na	12	12	Na	5	10	42
Botswana	Female	42	18	15	0	18	Na	Na	8
	Male	35	14	15	0	14	Na	Na	20
Malawi	Female	42	20	2	0	31	Na	Na	4
	Male	38	11	5	0	47	Na	Na	0
Uganda	Female	29	10	29	0	24	Na	Na	5
	Male	33	0	42	0	17	Na	Na	8

(Adapted from Reddy *et al.*, 2010:22)

4.6.4 Manifestations of absenteeism

In this section the manifestations of absenteeism in the education sector in general and in public TVET institutions were discussed. Thereafter the impact of absenteeism on educators in public TVET institutions was articulated.

Absenteeism in workplaces is manifested through increased absenteeism. Employees take longer tea and lunch breaks. There is reduced quality (efficiency and effectiveness in the Public sector in South Africa). Between 1995 and 2009, SADTU was responsible for 42% lost work days in the 14-year period. On average, days lost due to strikes were

between one (1) and two (2) million. In 2007 the trend spiked to 13 million days lost (Shields, 2007:60).

In a research carried out in 2006 in Malawi, Kadzamira discovered that low morale reduced educator performance. Low morale results in educators in general finding excuses to be absent from work. Many of the participants in this study agreed that educator absenteeism was a serious problem in the education sector and that absenteeism was on the increase. The main problem was that educators frequently engaged in secondary employment activities to supplement their incomes thereby neglecting their responsibilities (Kadzamira, 2006:7).

Some educators in urban and farming areas engage in vending and private tutoring to supplement their salaries. The necessity to engage in additional income generating activities distracts educators in general from their normal teaching activities. This affects educators' performance. Educators become less committed to their work as shown by lack of proper planning and general preparedness for classes. In South Africa among other secondary employment activities educators in public TVET colleges included, are involved in selling Avon cosmetics and Tupperware among other examples for commission (Kadzamira, 2006:13).

4.6.5 Impact of absenteeism on the TVET sector

Absenteeism has a negative effect on the public TVET sector. Firstly, absenteeism causes extra-work for public TVET educators who may end up performing more work to cover up for their absent colleagues. Secondly, absenteeism creates loss of teaching and learning time. Educator absenteeism also increases learner absenteeism. Because of this learner learning achievements are curtailed. Public TVET colleges with high levels of educator absenteeism rates generally have high levels of underachievement (Reddy *et al.*, 2010:25). Thirdly, the quality of education offered in the education sector in general and in the public TVET sector is reduced. Educators who are infected with the HIV/AIDS may also find themselves more and more unable to attend work. They are often absent from work and too sick to provide acceptable instruction to learners. Therefore, absenteeism affects the public TVET sector in that supply of education services is reduced and the sector experiences high medical costs (Ramdass, 2009:113).

4.6.6 Summary

In conclusion, lack of job satisfaction and morale is the dominant factor in determining staff affective commitment. Affective commitment is considered a psychological bond that employees have with their organisation. Employees are so much attached to the learning organisation in the sense that they believe they cannot do without the company. They feel so attached to the organisation that they cannot do without it. Affective commitment is seen as being characterised by loyalty to and identification with the purposes and goals of the organisation. In the TVET sector and the education sector in general, lack of job satisfaction and morale appears to be the cause of poor employee affective commitment. Lack of job satisfaction is also related to high absenteeism and high turnover of educators. If employees lack affective commitment it means they are dissatisfied with their jobs. Employees may end up being absent from work or they may end up leaving the organisation or putting little effort in their jobs thereby affecting the quality of education provided.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This section presents an outline of the research design and methodology utilised in the study. The focus of the study was on investigating public TVET educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered in the public TVET institutions in the Western Cape. The impact of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on public TVET educator morale was scrutinised. The status quo of satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic reward methods utilised by public TVET college councils which have since reverted to the DHET as of 2012 on public TVET educators was the main thrust of the study. Dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards by South African educators in general inclusive public TVET educators was suspected to have contributed to thirty-three percent (33.7%) of educators having a negative disposition to the teaching profession since 2002. In this section the sample for this study is comprehensively discussed as well as the measuring instruments. In addition, the procedure, data collection methods and the statistical techniques utilised in the research are outlined.

5.2 Research design

A research design is there to guide researchers in their quest to finding answers to the identified research problem or research questions. Therefore, a research design is a series of decisions on what concepts are studied. The series of decisions also relate to how the concepts studied are measured. In addition, the series of decisions pertain to the approaches used to study the identified research problem. The subject of study, the method of data collection and analysis, and presentation of collected information to solve the identified research problem is also considered. The above decisions entail choosing methods suitable to solve the identified research problem. Thus, the choice and application of suitable methods is referred to as the research methodology (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin, 2013:64; Creswell, 2014:12; Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2012:162).

Therefore, researchers need to decide how the concepts dealt with in the study are measured. These measures are referred to as scaling decisions. In addition, data collection decisions must be made. Furthermore, decisions regarding how data is to be analysed also need to be made. Finally, what restricts the researcher in terms of decisions on the research design is also considered (Davis, 2005:135; Creswell, 2013:49-50).

5.2.1 Research design selected for the study

The first consideration made in carrying out this study was what general approach to utilise to get answers to the identified problem. There are two basic types of research designs to choose from; namely the ex-post facto and experimental designs. This study used the survey design, a component of the ex-post facto design (Polonsky and Waller, 2011; Davis, 2005:140).

As result of the foregoing decision, in this study an independent variable is the presumed cause of the dependent variable, or the presumed effect. The independent variable transforms dependent variables. Thus, the independent variable is the one that the researcher believes precedes and affects the dependent variable. Meaning that the researcher tries to predict and explain changes in the dependent variable using the independent variable (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:118-119; Cooper and Schindler, 2014:55-57).

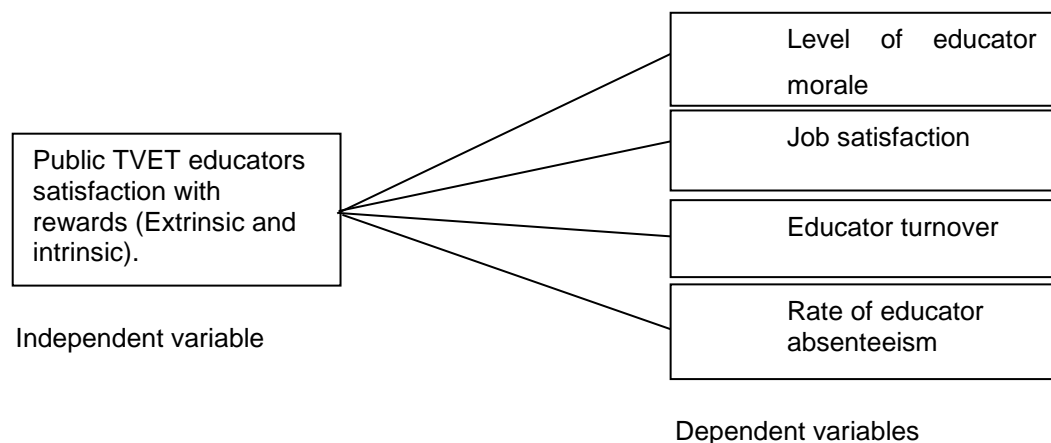


Figure 5.1: A schematic diagram of the theoretical framework
(Adapted from Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:72)

In this study the process described above was represented by a schematic sketch of the theoretical plan shown in Figure 5.1.

In Figure 5.1, it is illustrated that public TVET educators satisfaction with rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) which are the independent variable, has an influence on the dependent variables. In this case the dependent variables (level of staff morale, job satisfaction, educator turnover, and educator absenteeism) are the variables of interest to the researcher. The goal of this study is to describe the dependent or to explain their variability or predict them. In other words, it is the key variables that lend themselves

for investigation as a viable factor. Through the analysis of the dependent variables especially by finding out what influences them, it is possible to find answers or solutions to the research problem (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:73; Creswell, 2013).

The dependent variable, in this case, extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, is the one that influences the dependent variables in either a positive or negative way. In other words, when an independent variable is present, the dependent variable is also present. If that is the case, with each unit of increase in the independent variable, there is an increase or decrease in the dependent variable. In other words, the variance in the dependent variable is accounted for by the independent variable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:74).

5.2.2 Survey

As previously stated, this study utilised an ex-post facto research design. Using this research design, the researcher made no attempt to manipulate or control the independent variable. The researcher also systematically studied other people and organisational experiences to get answers to the identified problem (Davis, 2005:144). The survey approach requires the respondent to complete a series of questions designed by the researcher. This was implemented using a Job Descriptive Index (JDI) form created by the State Bowling University in the USA (David and Sutton, 2011:240).

To this end, a survey uses questionnaires to describe or predict a phenomenon. There is a difference between the survey approach and observation studies. The difference between the two approaches to research is that the survey approach requires interaction between the researcher and the research participants. The survey is also the most popular and widely utilised research design in business research (Davis, 2005:144).

In addition, the survey approach is of great advantage in that it enables researchers to study and describe large populations. The survey approach facilitates the study of phenomenon quickly and at a relatively low cost as compared to the observation method or approach. Surveys are also very adaptive in that they can be acclimatised to almost any research setting. However, the researcher must at least possess a basic understanding of the problem confronting the specific system at hand before a survey is embarked on (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010:160-161).

As alluded to earlier, much of surveys conducted so far have as their central objective a search for relationships among variables. Surveys have been used successfully to

test hypotheses, evaluate programmes and describe populations. They have also been used to build models of human behaviour and as well as develop useful measurement scales and make other methodological improvements in business research (Davis, 2005:147).

5.3 Selection of sample

A population is a whole set of entities on which decisions are to be made. For example, soup in the pot is the population and the spoonful to taste is the sample (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2010:215). A population can further be defined as a clearly defined group of cases on which a researcher can draw conclusions (Wilson, 2010:306). The population of this research therefore included the 6 TVET public colleges in the Western Cape in South Africa. In these public TVET institutions, there were approximately 1535 public TVET college educators in 2013 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32).

Related to the foregoing discussion, in this study sampling is considered as involving any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population. A sample is therefore a subset of a larger population. If statistical procedures are followed a researcher needs not select every item in a population because the results of a representative sample should have the same characteristics as the population (Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:67).

5.3.1 Determining the population and sample

A population N is defined as including, "...the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which a researcher wishes to draw conclusions or generalise" (Babbie, 2010:199). As alluded to previously, the population of this research was found in the six (6) public TVET institutions in the Western Cape. In these public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges there were 1535 educators in 2013 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32).

Sampling can thus be perceived as a process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population. In research a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties and characteristics enable one to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements. In a study of this nature, a sample derived from the population using the correct sampling procedure is supposed to be

representative of all available educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016; Wilson, 2010).

5.3.2 Stratified purposive sampling

From the discussion carried out in previous sections, the target population of public TVET educators in the Western Cape was approximately 1535 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). Using the Sample Size Table stratified purposive sampling was applied on 1535 public TVET college educators (the population) to derive a sample of three hundred and eight (308) public TVET College educators for this study. The sample of 308 educators has a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$ (The Research Advisors, 2006; Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). The sample of 308 public TVET College educators was expected to be representative of the population. Therefore, the statistical conclusions reached using this sample were expected to be valid (Cooper and Schindler, 2014:357).

5.4 Procedure

As previously discussed, based on the survey approach a cross sectional research method was utilised. Approximately three hundred and eight (308) educators from the six (6) Western Cape public TVET colleges were targeted (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010:175).

Cover letters which described and explained how the JDI operated were attached to it. The cover letters also explained the nature of the study to be conducted as well as assurances of non-disclosure of information and protection of confidentiality to participants. Details on how to complete and return the JDI questionnaire were also provided. Supplying detailed clear instructions and assuring confidentiality was expected to reduce biased responses (Terre-Blanche *et al.*, 2012:85; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2010:135-7).

However, of a bit concern was that the sample was relatively widely dispersed in and around Cape Town. To manage this challenge was the appointment of designated contact persons at public TVET colleges who helped in encouraging respondents to respond to the JDI questionnaires promptly. The JDI questionnaire was received by the respondents through email, and the respondents acknowledged receipt of the questionnaires. The respondents were encouraged to promptly complete the questionnaires and send them back by email as well.

5.5 Nature and composition of the Job Descriptive (JDI)

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is the most popular and utilised method for measuring job satisfaction of employees in any organisation (Arshad, 2014:94; Azeem, 2010:296; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim and Carson, 2002:14). The JDI has scales that provide a faceted approach to the measurement of job satisfaction in terms of specific identifiable characteristics of a job. It measures five aspects of an employee's job satisfaction. For example, it measures an employee's satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers, and with the job itself (Arshad, 2014:94).

The JDI or entire scale consists of 72 items. Each subscale is described by 18 evaluative adjectives which describe the job, excepted compensation and opportunities for advancement available to employees in the organisation. Compensation and opportunities for advancement consist of 9 items each. Both favourable and unfavourably items are provided in the scale item. Respondents are required to consider each of the items and decide whether it is applicable to them or not. The JDI questionnaire is composed of a series of statements/items for each of the five (5) given facets that the JDI sets out to measure. Respondents are required to mark with a Yes (Y), No (N) or cannot decide (?) as it relates to the respondent's job as explained in each of the 5 facets against a given statement. Each dimension's score is calculated by weighting the positive items as (Y) = 3, (?) = 2, and (N) = 1. The negative items are calculated as (Y) = 1, (?) = 2, and (N) = 3 (Azeem, 2010:296).

For the facets which only contain 9 items/statements as compared to 18, the score is doubled to allow each facet to have the same possible range of scores. All the facets are then added up separately and this allows for comparisons. The JDI provides a measure of facet satisfaction and for an understanding of five discreet parts of the job (Smucker and Kent, 2004).

5.6 Reliability and validity

It is a fact that whenever data is collected as in the case of collecting data using the JDI, questions arise from interested parties of whether the instrument utilised to collect data is credible and whether the data could be considered authentic. The fears expressed in the above questions makes it necessary to delve a bit on the two concepts of reliability and validity which will however be explained more comprehensively when the reliability and validity of the JDI as a data collection instrument is discussed in the sections that follow.

5.6.1 Reliability

In simple terms reliability could be explained as a situation whereby a scale or a measurement instrument would give the same results when the same object is measured at different times under the same conditions. The opposite of the above would be a claim that if the scale or measurement instrument gives different results when used under the same conditions to measure the same object, would be an unreliable scale (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:212).

For the above reasons and fears, it is incumbent upon the researcher to always determine the reliability of the instrument he/she intends to utilise to gather data. Several measures which are explained in more detail in the sections that follow can be calculated to prove the reliability of the data collection instrument such as the JDI. These measures are measures such as the test-retest reliability. The test-retest reliability can be described or explained as a test or scale that is administered on a sample on two separate occasions (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:224).

Beside the above discussed the alternate-forms reliability can be described as a situation where the same test is not used on two different occasions under the same conditions as is the case with test-retest reliability. With alternate-forms reliability two alternate tests are crafted and are like the same test from which they derived. This is the case because the test items in the alternate tests are congruent. The two types of tests are given to the same subjects at different occasions or at the same time. Half the subjects may do the A test while the other half does the B test at the same time. During the second session, the groups are interchanged. The counterbalancing strategy is done as a control measure to maturation and carry-over effects. To check if the tests are reliable, the scores of the tests are often closely correlated and if by any chance they produce the same means and standard deviations (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:213).

There is also what is referred to as split-half reliability. Split-half reliability is produced in a situation where a test is conducted on a single period. After that the test items are divided into two equal halves and the scores of the two halves administered at different times are compared to find out if they produce similar measures. If the two halves of the same test produce scores that are strongly correlated from a single sitting of the test, then that test is assumed to be a highly credible scale (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:213).

When dealing with reliability, in to determine internal consistency, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha which is an estimate of the consistency of responses to different scale items can be utilised. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha is looked upon as the average of the reliability coefficient that which are derived when all split-half analyses are calculated. However, there is criteria that is used to determine whether a scale to be used to carry out a test is reliable or not. If the scale is to be used to compare groups of people, a reliability of 0.65 may be considered acceptable. In the event of comparing an individual to a group or against a set of norms a reliability of 0.85 is acceptable. In addition, reliabilities of 0.70 are often accepted for research instruments such as questionnaires. Coefficients of 0.90 are usually acceptable for applied research instruments (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:216).

However, one needs to be cognisant of the fact that there are several factors that influence reliability of a research instrument. These are factors such as the number of items in a test or scale. The higher the number of items on the scale the more credible the reliability but one should weigh this in comparison with how much the sample is motivated to complete long questionnaires. The variability of the test sample is also important and so is the limiting irrelevant variables such as poorly conducted testing situations and misleading items which lower the reliability of the research instrument (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:216; Welman *et al.*, 2011:148).

5.6.2 Validity

Validity and reliability do not mean the same thing, but they are closely related. Validity alludes to the degree to which observations or scales or tests accurately record the characteristics that is of more interest to the researcher. On the other hand, and as previously explained, reliability has to do with the consistency of the measurements or observations. That is whether the same observer, using the same scale under the same conditions can produce similar results (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:137).

In short, a test is claimed to be valid if measures what it purports to measure. It is argued that though that validity is a difficult concept to understand as there is no direct measure of validity. Generally, validity judgements are said to dependent on whether the tests or scales concerned allow one to make meaningful judgements. To this end there are several types of validity but often they are classified into three main categories. There is content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:217; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:221).

Firstly, content validity is associated with how well the test or scale items are representative of the field of knowledge or the phenomenon or construct being measured. To ensure validity of content validity, there must be face validity. Face validity means the appearance of a scale or test. This means the test must appear to be credible and authentic to the subjects or sample. The test items can also be evaluated by experts in the subject under investigation. The subject experts without undue influence look at the test items and decide what to subtract or add to the list of items. Secondly, Criterion-related validity describes how well the test or scale anticipates a criterion behaviour or outcome. The anticipation of criterion behaviour is what is happening now (concurrent validity) or what may happen in time to come (predictive validity). The challenges faced with this type of validity are the selection of relevant criterion. In most cases, for example, the criterion for ability to do something can be shown by how one performs on the job (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:217).

Construct validity is very difficult to ascertain as compared to the first two forms of validity discussed so far. Construct validity tries to explain or measure whether the scale or test truly measures what it purports to measure. To do the above, convergence validity which tries to determine the construct by comparing the scale/test with a measure of a similar construct is utilised. Discriminant validity which determines the construct validity via comparing the scale with a measure of a contradicting construct is also used. And lastly, criterion-groups validity seeks to find out whether construct validity measures what it claims to measure. This is done by contrasting groups, which should by logic respond to the test or scale in the opposite way (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:218).

5.6.3 Reliability of the JDI

Reliability refers to whether a measuring instrument is consistent, stable and free from error despite fluctuations in test taker, administrator and conditions under which the test is administered (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). However, it should be noted that reliability measurements are a necessary but not sufficient condition for construct validity. Reliability is the extent to which the measurements of a test remain consistent over repeated tests of the same subject under identical conditions. Reliability occurs when the same measurements carried out now give the same results if tests are conducted under the same conditions at a future date. If this happens it shows consistency of measurement. Therefore, from this discussion, it can be discerned that reliability is not synonymous with validity. A reliable measure is not necessarily a valid measure (Drost, 2011:207). Validity of a measure is the degree to which the variable

measures what it claims or is purported to measure. It could therefore be concluded that a valid measure is reliable only when it measures what it is purported to measure.

In fact, internal consistency validity seems to be the most relevant for the JDI. Internal consistency emphasises the reliability of the test components in that they would produce the same identical results if tests are conducted under similar conditions. Internal consistency in this case would measure the consistency of the JDI and the statement on the five facets that describes what one’s job involves. Internal consistency relates to how well a set of items on the five facets of the JDI measure a specific behaviour or characteristics (facet) within the JDI. For the JDI to be internally consistent, estimates of reliability are based on the average inter-correlations among all the single items within the JDI. In this regard, the most popular method of testing internal consistency in behavioural sciences is coefficient alpha (Cronbach’s Alpha). In this study, using the JDI, the five facets of job satisfaction are work on present job, pay, and opportunities for promotion, supervision and people on one’s present job, as shown in Table 5.1. Coefficients of internal consistency are expected to increase as the number items go up to a certain point. For example, a 5-item test might correlate 0.40 with true scores, and a 12-item test might correlate 0.80 with true scores. As a result, an individual item in the JDI is expected to have a small correlation with true scores. Thus, if the coefficient alpha proves to be very low, it would either imply that the JDI is too short or the 5 facets have very little in common (Drost, 2011:111; Kinicki *et al*, 2002:16).

Table 5.1: Reliability of the Job Descriptive Index subscales

Internal consistency reliability					Test-retest reliability			
Subscale	K	M	SD	Range	K	M	SD	Range
Co-workers	40	0.85	0.05	0.68-0.93	9	0.59	0.10	0.46-0.78
Pay	31	0.80	0.05	0.69-0.88	8	0.65	0.01	0.60-0.71
Promotion	27	0.84	0.05	0.70-0.92	10	0.63	0.14	0.29-0.82
Supervision	54	0.84	0.06	0.66-0.95	10	0.56	0.13	0.3-0.71
Work	59	0.81	0.11	0.28-0.95	13	0.67	0.01	0.49-0.88

(Adapted from Kinicki *et al.*, 2002:16)

Note: K = number of samples; SD = standard deviation; M = coefficient of variation.

5.6.4 Internal consistency reliability

The left-hand side of Table 5.1 presents estimates of internal consistency of reliability of the original JDI based on a meta-analysis undertaken. As said before, internal consistency measures consistency within the instrument (JDI) and the questions, and how well a set of items measure a specific behaviour or characteristics within the JDI. All estimates were based on coefficient alpha. The mean coefficients were reasonably high, and the only discordant estimate was for the Work subscale. It obtained a value of 0.28 in one study. Because this value was quite atypical, the next lowest value was 0.69. It is safe to conclude that .69 was an outlier. The average reliabilities reported in Table 5.1 connoted previous studies that were used to revise the JDI. Average reliability estimates for the revised JDI were 0.87, 0.88, 0.86, 0.88 and 0.89 for satisfaction with pay, promotion, co-workers, work, and supervision respectively. In summation, the JDI possesses adequate internal consistency and reliability (Kinicki *et al.*, 2002:16).

5.6.5 Test-retest reliability

Test-retest reliability refers to the temporary stability of the test (the JDI in this case) from one measurement session to another. It also refers to the procedure administered to a group of respondents and administers the same test (JDI) to same respondents later. For example, satisfaction is a dynamic construct that varies over time. Therefore, to be construct-valid the JDI should be sensitive to change over time. The correlation between scores on an identical test given at different times operationally defines its test-retest reliability. The right-hand side of Table 5.1 summarises the overall test-retest coefficients. The average test-retest coefficients were a bit smaller than their internal consistency counterparts (0.21 less on average as shown in Table 5.1). The ranges shown in Table 5.1 were also larger, supporting the idea that job satisfaction is a dynamic state that is susceptible to change over time. However, it should be noted that the test-retest reliability technique has its appeals and several limitations. For example, when the interval between the first and second test is too short, respondents might remember what was in the first test and their answers on the second test could be affected by memory. Alternatively, when the interval between the first and second test is too long, maturation occurs. Maturation refers to changes in the subject factors or respondents (other than those associated with the independent variable) that occur over time. These changes cause a change from the initial measurements to later measurements. During intervals between test 1 and test 2, the respondents might have been exposed to things that changed their opinions, feelings, or attitudes about the behaviours under study (Drost, 2011:108; Kinicki *et al.*, 2002:16).

5.6.6 Validity of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

If an instrument such as the JDI measures what it purports to measure, then it is considered to have validity. In this case evidence must be produced and this evidence must point to the fact that the instrument is indeed has validity. To this end, validity entails the extent to which an instrument measures all the aspects it was intended to measure. The construct validity of the JDI is supported by results pertaining to reliability. Internal consistency reliability estimates for the JDI are moderately high, and the test-retest reliability results supported the idea that job satisfaction is a dynamic state that is susceptible to change over time. An evaluation derived from a homological evaluation network of network of job satisfaction relationships also supported the JDI constructive validity (Kinicki *et al.*, 2002:26).

For example, one way of estimating reliability especially internal consistency is by calculating Cronbach's alphas and the inter-correlations of the scales. The internal consistency of set items is an indicator of how well the items (the 5 facets in this study) measure same variable or construct. Assuming the scales effectively measure an underlying construct, it would be expected to find high estimates of their internal consistency. As said before, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) measures the internal consistency of a group of items by measuring homogeneity of the group of items. This is an indication of how well the different items complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variable or quality. Cronbach's alpha ranges from values of zero to 1. Values closer to 1 indicate a higher internal consistency whereas values closer to zero indicate lower internal consistency (National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), 2012).

5.6.7 The rationale of utilising the JDI

Firstly, an extensive meta-analysis of measurement properties of the JDI has found that content, criterion-related, and convergent validity are well established. For example, it correlates as expected with turnover, and other job satisfaction measures (Kinicki *et al.*, 2002:18).

Secondly, the JDI is a well-known measure of job satisfaction which has been widely used by researchers and practitioners. The JDI is simple and has validity in different areas. The JDI is considered the most carefully designed measure for three reasons. This is because it has been extensively applied in business and government sectors. In addition, its construct validity is well established. Furthermore, the dimensional structure of the JDI is generalised in different occupational groupings (Arshad,

2014:94). The last aspect is that the JDI is the most popular facet scale among organisational researchers. The JDI also attempts to study employees' reactions to several aspects or facets of the job (Azeem, 2010:296).

Finally, the JDI was chosen because it is widely used to measure job satisfaction and has been shown to have valid predictors. It is a reliable facet measure over time. It is also applicable across a variety of demographic groups. It was developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin in 1969, and has since been modified. The JDI possesses good content validity and has adequate reliability. Very few instruments in industrial psychology have received the attention that the JDI has. It is also short and simple to fill in. The JDI also seem ideal from the point of view of maximising responses and the practicality of scoring (Monyatsi, 2012:223).

5.7 Statistical techniques

Several statistical techniques are employed are utilised in order to test the hypothesis. In this study both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques are employed. The sub sections below focused on discussing descriptive and inferential statistics of this study.

5.7.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is used when describing phenomenon of interest in a study. Descriptive statistics is also used when analysing data for the classification and summarising of data in figures and numbers. Descriptive statistics involves the utilisation in analysing data using frequencies, dispersions, dependent and independent variables, and measures of central tendency, variability and, to obtain a feel of the data. The means and the standard deviations were primarily used to describe data provided by the JDI (David and Sutton, 2011:471-504; Black, 2005).

5.7.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics assume that a probability-based simple random sampling technique is used to draw a sample. This means that elements (educators) in the population have an equal chance of being selected when sampling is conducted. Thus, inferential statistics enables the researcher to present the data obtained in the research in statistical format to facilitate identification of important patterns and make the data analysis more meaningful. Inferential statistics is employed when generalisations from a sample population are made. The statistical methods to be used in this research

included the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation as well as Multiple Regression Analysis (David and Sutton, 2011:530-557; Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2010:168).

5.7.3 Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed between dissatisfaction of public TVET educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards methods offered by public TVET College Councils (Representing the Department of Higher Education). The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient also helps in ascertaining the effect of educators' dissatisfaction with rewards offered by the employer on the morale of public TVET educators. This was pertinent as it provided a measure of the strength, magnitude and direction of the relationship between dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by TVET College Councils and its consequent impact on public TVET educators' job satisfaction and resultant morale (David and Sutton, 2011:522-523).

5.7.4 Multiple linear regression analysis

This is a multivariate statistical technique used for studying the relationship between a single independent and one or several dependent variables. It provides a method to predict the changes in the dependent variables in response to changes in one independent variable. Therefore, it allows the researcher to determine the relative importance of each predictor as well as to ascertain the contribution of the independent variable (David and Sutton, 2011:555-556; Davis, 2005:384).

Multiple linear regression analysis is utilised in this study to ascertain the degree to which the independent variable can be used to explain the variances in different dependent variables. Such explanations are reflective of public TVET educators' state of dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and their resultant effect on the status quo regarding Further Education and Training (Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators' affective commitment, job satisfaction and resultant morale. The same process described in the above discussion is utilised when determining the degree to which the dependent variable explains the variance in the different dependent variables in this study. The dependent variables are namely levels of staff morale of 37% since 2002, low job satisfaction of 38.7% of educators since 2002, educator attrition rate of 5.6% since 2002, and, loss of 42% of working days due to educator absenteeism since 2002 (Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2012:255-259).

With the aid of regression analysis, the variable that one may wish to predict is called the dependent variable as depicted in Figure 5.1. Independent variables are the values that are used to make predictions about dependent variables. In this case independent variables are the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by the college councils. Besides predicting values of dependent variables, regression also allows one to identify the type of mathematical relationship that exists between the dependent and independent variables. This helps the researcher to quantify the effects that changes in the independent variables have on the dependent variables, and to also identify unusual observations that may occur in the process mentioned above (Levine, Szabat, and Stephan, 2016:512).

However, it should be noted that there are several pitfalls and ethical considerations to be considered when using regression analysis. Firstly, some of the pitfalls include Lack of awareness of the assumptions of least-squares regression is the first pitfall encountered. The second pitfall experienced is the ignorance of how to evaluate the assumptions of the least squares regression. The third pitfall encountered is unawareness of the alternatives to least-squares if a specific assumption is violated. The fourth pitfall encountered is the possibility of the occurrence of extrapolation outside the relevant range. In the fifth pitfall experienced is that the researcher may conclude that a significant relationship identified in an observational study is due to a cause-effect relationship when it is not. However, it should be noted that in the contemporary scientific world there is now a widespread availability of spread sheets and statistical software which render regression analysis much more feasible. To avoid the above-mentioned shortfalls, the following strategy could be employed:

- Starting with a scatter diagram to ascertain the relationship between the independent and dependent variable;
- Checking the assumptions of regression before moving on to using the results of the model;
- Plotting the residuals versus the independent variable to determine whether the linear model is appropriate and to check the equal variance assumption;
- Using a histogram, stem and leaf display, box-and-whisker plot, or normal probability plot of residuals to check the normality assumption;
- If the data is collected over time, plotting the residuals versus time and using the Durbin-Watson test to check the independence assumption;
- Utilising alternative approaches to the least-squares regression or least-squares models if there are violations of assumptions;

- In the absence of violations of the assumptions, conducting tests of significance of regression coefficients and developing confidence intervals and prediction intervals;
- Refraining to make forecasts outside the scope and relevant range of the independent variables;
- Keeping in mind the relationships identified in observable studies or may not be due to cause-and effect relationships. To remember that while causation implies correlation, correlation does not imply causation (Levin *et al.*, 2016:553).

Lastly, it should be mentioned that this study uses the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23 to process data collected by utilising the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Questionnaire.

5.7.5 Summary

It is important to make a conclusive decision on the sampling procedure and sample size of the study. It is also important to make informed decisions on the measuring instruments, procedure, data collection methods and statistical techniques to be utilised when conducting research. In short, this process is termed research design. A research design is described as a road map for researchers. It is partly the means through which researchers plan to collect data for answering pertinent research questions or the hypotheses. The research design is also a specification of the structure through which a specific research problem is solved (Davis, 2005:144).

A research design can either be qualitative or quantitative; or a mixed methods approach (qualitative and quantitative research design) can be adopted. However, in this instance, a quantitative research design is adopted. In addition, a research design can be described as a plan or protocol of research. The plan or protocol of research explains and describes how research is conducted inclusive of all the necessary tools to aid research.

CHAPTER SIX PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction and morale are complex concepts which are difficult to measure since they are influenced by a multiplicity of factors such as social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors. For example, relationships of individual educators with other educators also play a major role in determining the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. In addition, in Poland, Wisniewski in 1990 discovered that job satisfaction and morale was positively influenced by pay, which is perceived as being good by employees. In the same study it was also confirmed that good management and organisation and good climate and atmosphere of a learning and education institution positively influenced the job satisfaction and morale of employees (The assumption is that the post primary school teachers in the article were inclusive of public TVET college educators.) (Mafini and Pooe, 2013:1; Aguinis, 2013:13; George *et al.*, 2008).

In other words, low status, lack of promotion, lack of career advancement opportunities and low allowances played a major role in academic staff dissatisfaction. In addition, job dissatisfaction was also found to be a result of dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in previous studies. In this chapter results pertaining to the population parameters and sample statistics were presented. Secondary sources of information were utilised and presented to clarify various concepts and arguments emanating from presented population parameters and population statistics. The hypotheses to be tested were also presented together with secondary data which clarified how the null hypotheses were tested for the benefit of readers of this study to have a clear understanding of discussions.

In addition, the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient which helps to determine the strength of the relationship between two variables was discussed. The p value, for example, $p < 0.01$ helped in concluding the probability that random variation accounted for the difference between two given variables. Since the p value was very small, the researcher was willing to declare that the result was statistically significant. Thereafter a discussion of analysis of variance and a relevant summary was given.

The purpose of this chapter is therefore to present or display the results of the study to fulfil the objectives which are stated below. Firstly, the main objective of the study is to analyse how job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape is impacted

by their dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Secondly, the first sub-objective determined the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. Thirdly, the second sub-objective is to find out how high educator turnover from the public TVET institutions can be curtailed. Fourthly, the third sub-objective is to determine intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that can enhance the morale of educators in public TVET sector in the Western Cape.

It is of fundamental importance at this stage to note that in this study public TVET College educators refer to educators who were formerly attached or seconded to public TVET colleges in the Western Cape. Public TVET educator as refers to educators who were appointed by public TVET College Councils which governed TVET colleges on behalf of the Department of Basic Education. Please note that public TVET institutions, as of 2012, came under the management of the DHET. Public TVET Colleges Councils managed and governed the colleges on behalf of the Department of Basic Education. Public TVET institutions are now under the charge of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). The Former public FET Colleges_ are now referred to as TVETs. These institutions are public TVET colleges/institutions or those colleges where educators were previously seconded by the Department of Basic Education to public TVET College Councils. These are colleges such as False Bay College, Northlink College, West Coast College, College of Cape Town, South Cape and Boland in the Western Cape (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015).

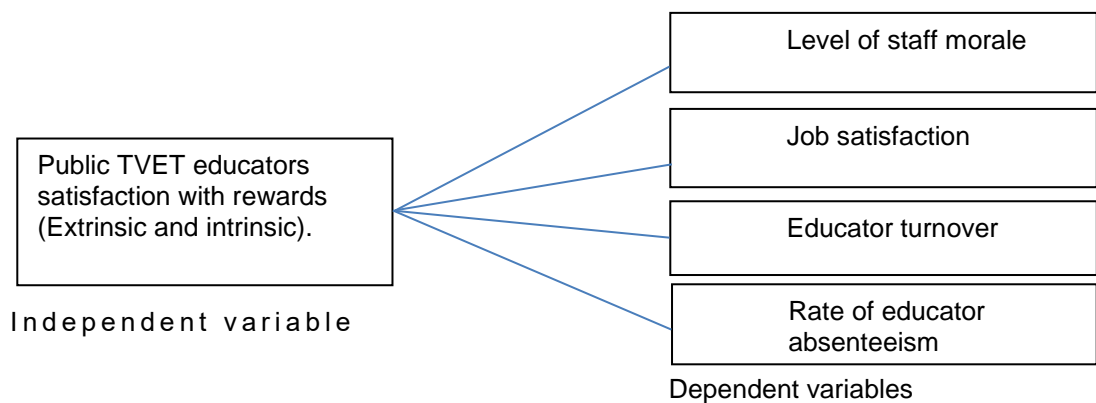


Figure 5.1: A schematic diagram of the theoretical framework
(Adapted from Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:72)

It is important to bring in Figure 5.1 into the discussions in this chapter as it clearly shows what the researcher set out to find out in this study. Figure 5.1 shows that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) influence the level of morale and

job satisfaction, public TVET educator turnover and the rate of educator absenteeism (dependent variables) of public TVET educators. It was felt that Figure 5.1 was supposed to be included in this chapter to remind the reader what this study intended to measure.

6.1.1 Response rate

In this study, a stratified purposive sample of $n = 308$ was initially drawn from a population of about 1535 public TVET educators in the Western Cape. In the Western Cape there were approximately 1535 public TVET educators in 2013 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2013:32).

Using the Sample Size Tables from the Research Advisors (2006) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a stratified purposive sampling procedure was carried out on 1535 public TVET educators in the Western Cape (the population) to derive a stratified purposive sample of 308 public TVET educators for this study. The stratified purposive sample of 308 public TVET educators has a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$ (The Research Advisors, 2006). The sample of 308 public TVET educators utilised in this study was expected to be representative of the population. Therefore, the statistical conclusions reached using the sample of 308 was expected to be valid and representative of the population (Cooper and Schindler, 2014:357).

However, it should be noted that initially three hundred and eight (308) JDI questionnaires were distributed but two hundred and sixty-five (265) were returned dully completed. This represented an 86% response rate and was a commendable response rate due to the efforts of contact persons in respective public TVET institutions who volunteered to help in prompting respondents to timely complete and return questionnaires. Respondents were also probably motivated to respond timely because the study directly involved them. They could also have felt that the study would benefit them. Furthermore, a negligible 24% of the respondents did not return the questionnaires and this had not much effect on the results that were obtained. This was the case since 86% of the respondents who were in the majority returned the JDI dully completed (Gray, 2014:258). It should also be noted that data gathered from the 265 questionnaires is what was processed using SPSS Version 23 and presented in this Chapter.

6.2 Processed demographic data

Descriptive Statistics of demographic data collected in this study using a sample of two hundred and sixty-five (265) (n=265) derived from a population of one thousand five hundred and thirty-five (1535) public TVET educators was analysed. Raw data was firstly dealt with and presented in the form of graphs. Later processed data in the form of mean estimates in respect of tenure, post level and level of education which were expected to have a bearing on job satisfaction were presented in tabular form. It is also pleasing to note that the response rate was very commendable since 86% (265) of JDI questionnaires distributed were returned duly completed. These major achievements were managed through the cooperation and support of, for example, the CEOs of Boland and West Coast public TVET Colleges among others who encouraged their staff to complete the questionnaires timely and return them. Cooperation was also forthcoming from contact persons at various colleges such as False Bay and West Coast colleges who encouraged staff to complete the questionnaires timely.

6.2.1 Presentation of raw data

Presentation of raw data was done using graphs as shown in the sections that follow. To have an idea of how raw data was analysed right click inside graph. A menu will appear and click on "edit data" and a table in which raw data is displayed appears as well as the graph generated using the raw data.

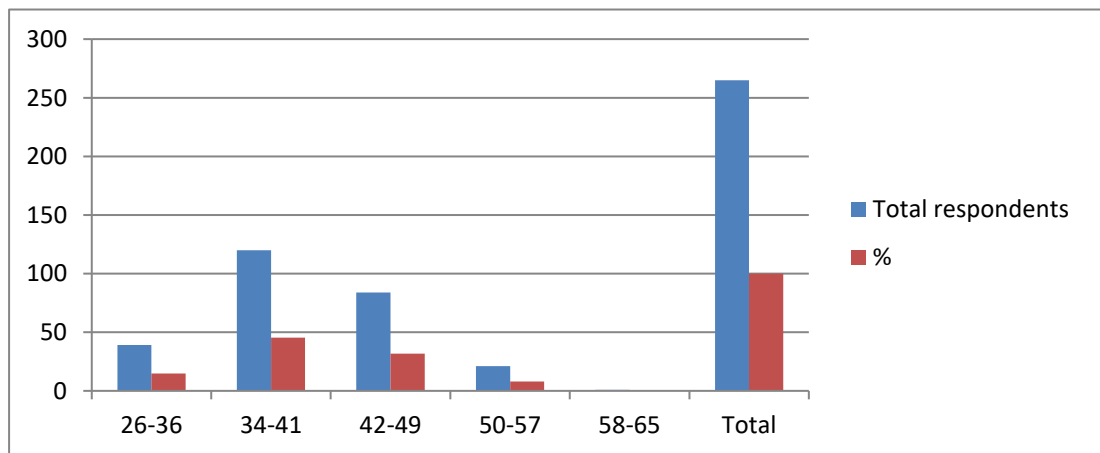


Figure 6.1: Age profiles of respondents

Figure 6.1 illustrates that respondents between the ages of 26-33 represented 14.72% of the sample. Respondents between the ages 34-41 represented 45.28% of the sample. Respondents between the ages 42-49 represented 31, 70% of the sample. Respondents between the ages of 50-57 represented 7.92% of the sample whereas respondents between the ages 58-65 represented 0.38% of the sample.

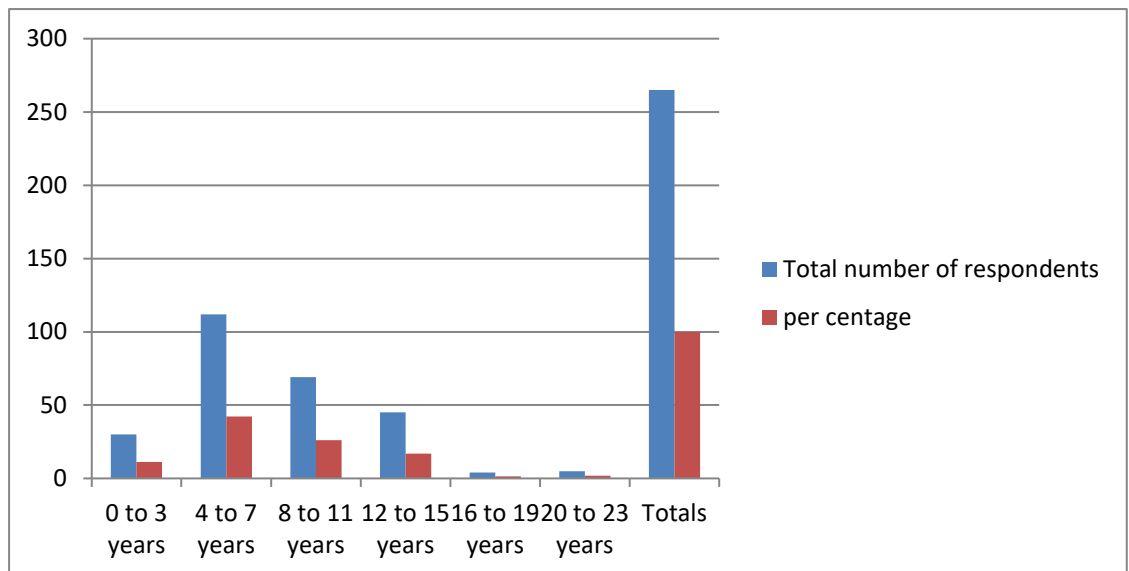


Figure 6.2: Tenure / Number of years in a position

Figure 6.2 illustrates that respondents with a tenure of between 0-3 years represented 11, 32% of the respondents. Respondents with tenure of between 4-7 years were in the majority and represented 42, 26% of the sample. Respondents with tenure of between 8-11 years represented 26, 04% of the sample. Respondents who had tenure of between 12-15 years represented 16.98% of the sample. Respondents who had served between 16-19 years of service represented 1.51% of the sample whereas respondents who had tenure of between 20-23 years represented 1.89% of the sample.

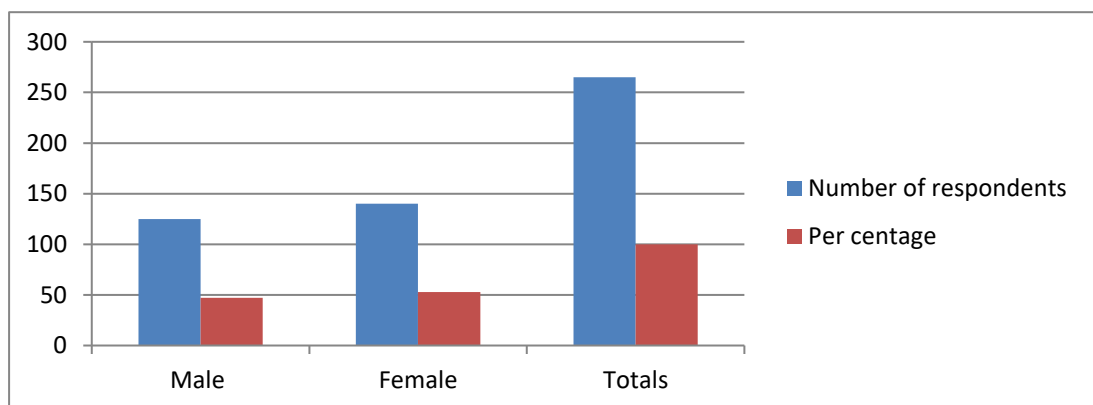


Figure 6.3: Type of contract: Contract / Permanent employment

Figure 6.3 illustrates that respondents who are on contract were in the majority and represented 55, 47% of the respondents. Respondents who are on permanent employment contracts represented 44.53% of the sample.

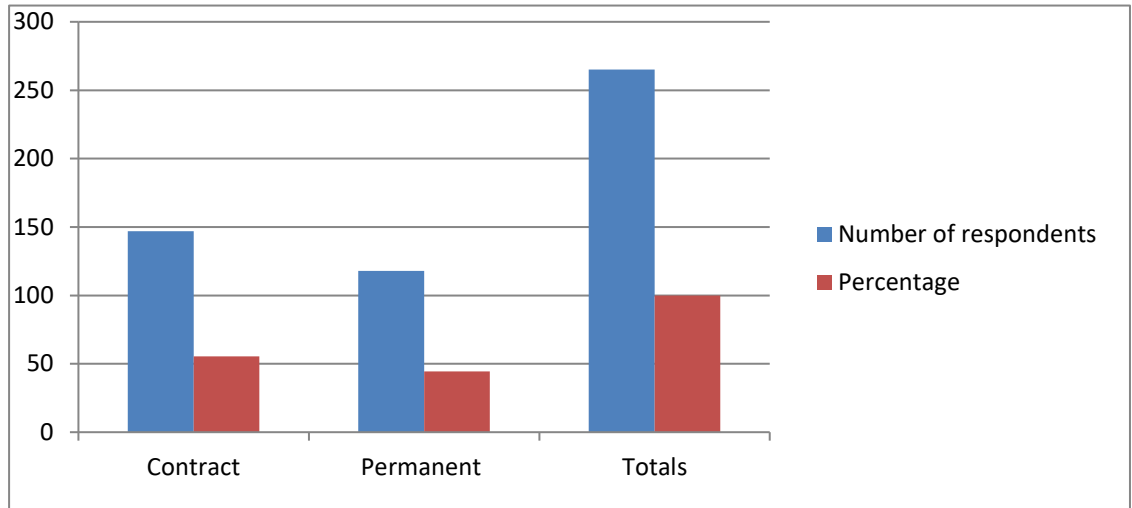


Figure 6.4: Gender profile of the respondents

Figure 6.4 illustrates that respondents who were male represented 47.17% of the respondents. The female gender represented 52.83% of the sample and was in the majority.

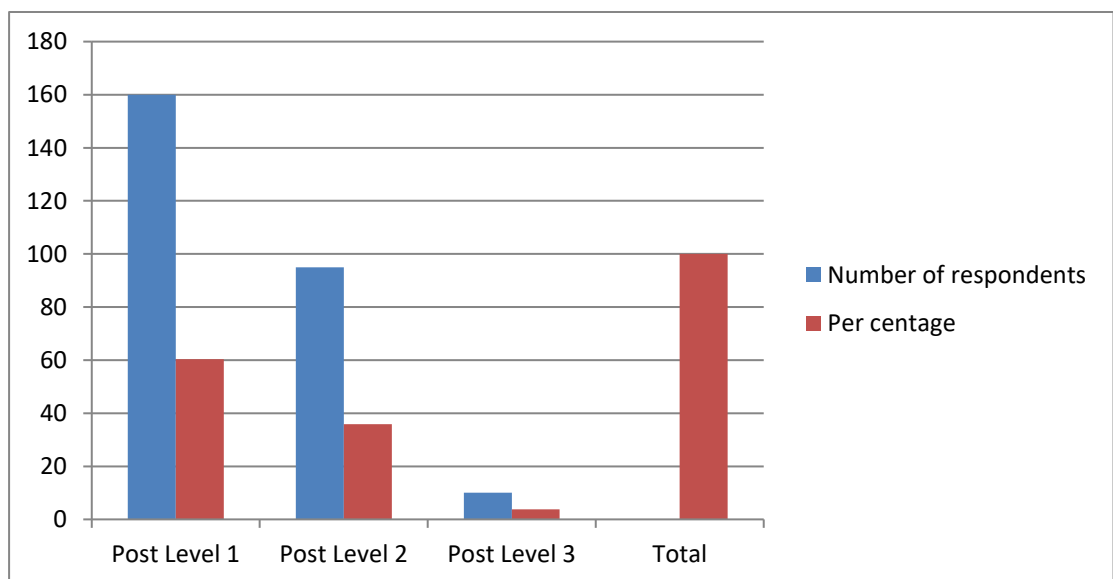


Figure 6.5: Post level respondents in the study

Respondents who held Post Level 1 positions were in the majority and represented 60.38% of the sample. Respondents in Post Level 2 represented 35.85% of the sample. The respondents who were in Post Level 3 represented 3.77% of the sample were in the minority.

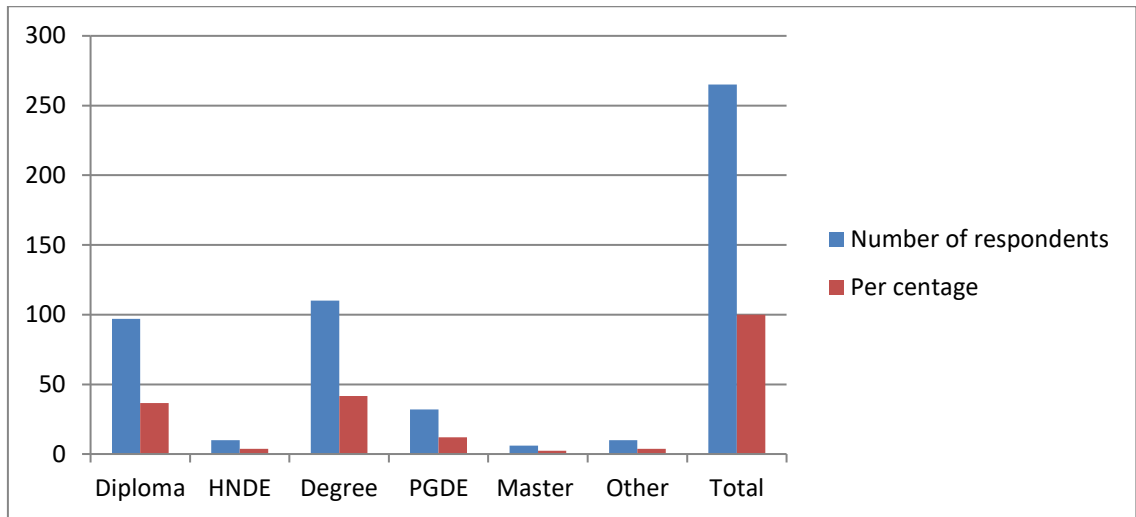


Figure 6.6: Levels of education of participants

Figure 6.6 illustrates those respondents who held diplomas represented 36.60% of the sample. The respondents who held the Higher National Diploma in Education (HNDE) represented 3.77% of the sample. The respondents who held degree qualifications were in the majority and represented 41.51% of the sample. The respondents who held the Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) represented 12.07% of the sample. Respondents who held the Master's degree and other qualifications (Fitting and Turning for example) were in the minority and represented 2.26% and 3.77% of the sample respectively.

6.2.2 Presentation of processed data

The Cronbach's coefficient alpha at 0.05 and 0.1 levels of significance was considered appropriate for conducting tests of confidence for the correlations. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha is viewed as the estimate of consistency of the responses to different scale items of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The reliability of the scales utilised in the JDI were presented first. The Cronbach's alpha can be perceived as the average of the reliability coefficients that would be produced when all possible split-half analyses were performed. In addition to the above discussed, regression analysis was tested at 0.1 and 0.05 levels of significance, and this was also illustrated in tabular form (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:213).

6.2.2.1 Reliability of utilised scales

Firstly, as a rule of the thumb, after being tested the scales used in the JDI were expected to assume the Cronbach's alpha internal consistencies shown in Table 6.1 on page 132.

Table 6.1: Cronbach's alpha internal consistencies

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

(Adapted from Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:225)

In Table 6.1 it is shown that a Cronbach's alpha (α) of ≥ 0.9 is considered as an excellent measure of internal consistency. If the Cronbach's alpha is around 0.80 it is considered a good measure of internal consistency. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 is considered as an acceptable measure of internal consistency. Cronbach's alphas of 0.60; 0.50, and $0.5 > \alpha$, are considered questionable, poor and unacceptable measures of internal consistency respectively. It is with the above given values of the Cronbach's alpha in mind that the calculated Cronbach's alphas by SPSS Version 23 were judged and evaluated in this study.

6.2.2.2 Scale: Extrinsic reward satisfaction

Table 6.2: Reliability statistics 1

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.790	8

As illustrated in Table 6.2: Reliability statistics 1 and Table 6.3: Item - Total statistics 1, the number items used in the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha for the scale which measured extrinsic rewards was 8. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.790 which is a good measure of internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha illustrated that intrinsic rewards were a reliable measure of the job satisfaction and morale among educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape.

Table 6.3: Item - Totals Statistics 1

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Bad	11.0227	9.923	0.404	0.787
Inadequate	11.5568	9.746	0.609	0.749
Barely live on income	11.3750	10.098	0.502	0.766
Less than I deserve	11.6970	10.128	0.533	0.762
Under paid	11.4848	9.376	0.563	0.756
No incentives	11.6515	10.251	0.526	0.763
Insecure	11.6591	10.431	0.484	0.769
Just enough	11.6667	10.915	0.385	0.783

6.2.2.3 Scale: Intrinsic reward satisfaction

Table 6.4: Reliability statistics 2 and Table 6.5: Item – Total statistics 2 (page 134) illustrate that ten items were used to calculate the Cronbach's alpha to measure the reliability of the consistency with which the intrinsic rewards scale measured the job satisfaction and morale amongst public TVET educators. The calculated Cronbach's alpha of 0.841 is a credible measure of internal consistency as shown in Table 6.1. The Cronbach's alpha of 0.841 for the intrinsic reward scale confirmed that intrinsic rewards are a good measure of educators' job satisfaction and morale.

Table 6.4: Reliability Statistics 2

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.841	10

Table 6.5: Item-Total Statistics 2

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Infrequent promotions	14.0492	16.047	0.387	0.841
Opportunities limited	14.2273	16.093	0.484	0.831
Dead-end job	13.8977	15.415	0.560	0.824
Unfair promotion policy	13.9773	15.330	0.565	0.824
No clear policy on promotion	14.0227	16.243	0.399	0.839
No chance of promotion	13.9621	15.345	0.552	0.825
Promotion meaningless	13.8106	15.462	0.552	0.825
No hope of promotion	13.9962	14.916	0.642	0.816
A pipe dream	13.9545	15.222	0.623	0.818
Not something to think about	13.9773	15.057	0.602	0.820

6.2.2.4 Scale: Staff morale**Table 6.6: Reliability Statistics 3**

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.777	8

Table 6.7: Item-Total Statistics 3

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Stimulating	10.1811	8.467	0.401	0.769
Disciplined	10.3585	8.814	0.464	0.756
Ambitious	10.0755	8.328	0.489	0.751
Supportive	10.3774	8.115	0.611	0.731
Responsible	10.3509	8.388	0.590	0.736
United	10.1962	8.007	0.572	0.736
Friendly	10.3132	9.231	0.289	0.783
easy to make friends	10.3245	8.712	0.448	0.758

As shown above in Table 6.6: Reliability statistics 3 and Table 6.7 Item – Total statistics 3, eight (8) items were used to calculate the Cronbach's alpha for staff morale as an indicator of educator's job satisfaction that resulted from the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Institution Councils. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.777 was calculated. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.777 showed that staff morale was a good measure of internal consistency in determining whether educators in the public TVET sector were satisfied with non-monetary and monetary rewards they received from their employer as it was way over the accepted Cronbach's alpha of 0.70.

6.2.2.5 Scale: Job satisfaction

Table 6.8: Reliability Statistics 4

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
0.853	27

Table 6.9: Item-Total Statistics 4

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Fascinating	51.2069	68.480	0.284	0.852
Satisfying	51.1992	68.222	0.321	0.851
stretches me	51.1533	68.799	0.268	0.852
Respected	51.4023	70.111	0.208	0.853
Useful	51.4828	70.566	0.245	0.852
Worthwhile	51.4713	70.927	0.165	0.854
Challenging	51.3180	69.018	0.285	0.852
Results seen	51.4636	70.711	0.187	0.853
Gives sense of accomplishment	51.3985	69.410	0.297	0.851
Well paid	49.9770	66.861	0.468	0.846
Fair compared to similar job	50.6092	69.031	0.288	0.851
Income provides for luxury	49.9923	68.885	0.266	0.852
Highly paid	49.7854	69.900	0.283	0.851
Satisfactory	50.3678	66.680	0.390	0.849
Keep abreast with inflation	50.0192	67.873	0.341	0.850
Good opportunities for promotion	49.9847	67.461	0.458	0.847
Promotion on ability or merit	50.3640	68.402	0.349	0.850
Regular promotions available	50.0766	68.379	0.312	0.851
Provides career development Opportunities	50.1877	66.938	0.403	0.848
Ask for my opinions	50.3563	64.484	0.497	0.845
Encourages participation and teamwork	50.6782	64.196	0.532	0.843
praises good work	50.8046	64.927	0.514	0.844
Motivating	50.6360	64.532	0.556	0.843
open and frank	50.7356	64.188	0.546	0.843
Around when needed	50.6015	64.333	0.579	0.842
A good role model	50.5824	65.013	0.541	0.843
Gives autonomy to make decisions	50.2835	63.558	0.623	0.840

As shown in Table 6.8: Reliability statistics and Table 6.9: Item – Total statistics 4, twenty-seven (27) items were utilised in making calculations of the Cronbach's alpha for job satisfaction as a measure of consistency on how public TVET educators' satisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Councils influenced their job satisfaction. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.853 was produced. This was an excellent Cronbach's alpha that showed that job satisfaction could be reliably used

as a measure of how well satisfied educators were with monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by the employer or the other way around.

6.2.2.6 Contract

Table 6.10: Estimated Means: Type of contract

Type of contract	Mean	Std. Error	95% confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Permanent	2.072	0.035	2.002	2.141
Contract	2.093	0.041	2.012	2.173

In Table 6.10 it was discovered that the means of permanent and contract staff represented in the sample were almost the same. The mean of permanent staff in the sample was 2.072 with a standard error of 0.035 whereas the mean of contract staff was 2.093 with a standard error of 0.041. Both standard errors were very small showing that the variance of the sampling distribution was well controlled. With a sample size of 265, the variance of the sampling distribution decreased. This helped in increasing the accuracy of predictions and showed that both permanent and contract staff were well represented in the study (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:42; 117).

6.2.2.7 Levels of education

Table 6.11: Estimated means: Level of Education

Education Level	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Diploma	1.926	0.043	1.841	2.011
Degree	1.944	0.034	1.877	2.011
Masters' degree	2.495	0.054	2.389	2.601
Other	1.965	0.040	1.886	2.043

Table 6.11 illustrates that means of respondents in the sample who held diplomas, degrees and other educational qualifications were nearly 2.0. The means were 1.926 (Diploma), 1.944 (Degree) and 1.965 (Other) respectively. The mean for respondents who held the master's degree qualification was more than that of the other qualifications (degree, diploma and other). The master's degree qualification had a mean of 2.495

and a standard error of 0.054. However, the standard errors of respective qualifications (degree, master and diplomas included) in Table 6.11, were also very small showing that the variance of the sampling distribution was well controlled. With a sample size of 265, the variance of the sampling distribution was decreased. This helped in increasing the accuracy of predictions made with regards to the effect of levels of education, as shown in Table 6.11 on the job satisfaction of public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:42, 117; Leech, Barrett and Morgan, 2011:111).

6.2.2.8 Post levels

Table 6.12: Estimated Means: Post Levels

Post level	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Post level 1	2.115	0.023	2.069	2.162
Post level 2	2.054	0.034	1.988	2.120
Post level 3	2.077	0.080	1.919	2.235

In Table 6.12 the estimated means of post level 1, post level 2 and post level 3 were found to be close to a mean of 2.0. The mean for post level 1 was found to be 2.115, and that of post level 2 was discovered to be 2.054. The mean of post level 3 was found to be 2.077. The standard errors of the 3 post levels (post level 1, post level 2 and post level 3) were found to be 0.023, 0.034 and 0.080 respectively. Post level 3 was found to have a standard error of 0.080 which was higher than that of post level 1 and post level 2. Once again, the three standard errors were very small showing that the variance of the sampling distribution was well controlled.

With a sample size of 265 (Derived from responses emanating from 308 JDI questionnaires originally distributed) the variance of the sampling distribution decreased. This helped in increasing the accuracy of predictions of how post levels 1, 2 and 3 influenced the job satisfaction of public TVET educators. The standard error serves as an estimate of the degree to which a sample accurately estimates the population mean. Increasing the sample size decreases the standard error as shown above and ensures that the sample mean provides a more accurate estimate of the population mean (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013: 42, 117).

6.3 The JDI questionnaire descriptive statistics

The most popular and often utilised data collection instrument and tool to measure employee job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Arshad, 2014:94; Azeem, 2010:296; Kinicki, Mckee-Ryan, Schriesheim and Carson, 2002:14). The JDI has scales that provide for a multi-faceted approach to the measurement of job satisfaction of employees in an organisation in terms of specific identifiable characteristics of a job. The JDI measures five elements of an employee's job satisfaction. For example, it measures how much employees are satisfied with the pay they receive. It also measures to what degree or extent employees are satisfied with promotional opportunities available to them in the organisation. How much satisfied employees are with the types of supervision employees receive as well as the quality of interaction and support employees receive from fellow workers (co – workers) is measured by the JDI. The JDI also determines to what extent how the job is designed enhances the job satisfaction of employees (Arshad, 2014:94).

The JDI consists of 72 items. Each subscale is described by 18 evaluative adjectives which describe the job, expected compensation and opportunities for promotion. Compensation and opportunities for advancement consist of 9 items each. Both favourable and unfavourable items are provided. Respondents are required to consider each of the items and decide whether it is applicable to them or not. The JDI has a series of statements for each of the above described categories. Respondents are also required to mark their responses to question items with a Yes (Y), No (N) or cannot decide (?) as each of the dimensions relate to the respondent's job. Each dimension score is calculated by weighing the positive (favourable) items as (Y) = 3, (?) = 2, and (N) = 3 (Azeem, 2010:296).

Please note that Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) could have been used in conjunction with the JDI for triangulation purposes. However, it was decided that the purpose of the MSQ was to give the respondent the opportunity to describe how he or she felt about his or her present job, which the JDI also catered for. The MSQ also further elicits reactions from respondents on what aspects of their jobs they are satisfied or not satisfied with just as the JDI. Due to the above given observations, it was felt that to a certain degree the two questionnaires (the JDI and the MSQ) elicited for the same responses from the respondents, and hence the arbitrary adoption of the JDI (University of Minnesota, 1977).

6.3.1 Job Descriptive Index (JDI) questionnaire

Table 6.13: Scale reliability test of the Job Descriptive Index Questionnaire (JDI)

Label/facet	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Work in present job	9	0.778
Present pay	10	0.637
Present opportunities for promotion	13	0.699
Type of supervision received	12	0.753
Co-workers	14	0.659
Overall Mean Total	-	0.706

As shown in Table 6.13, scale reliability tests of the 5 facets of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) were conducted by calculating the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha estimates the consistency of responses to different scale items (satisfaction with pay offered by the company; satisfaction with promotional opportunities within the organisation; satisfaction with the styles or types of supervision exercised in the organisation; satisfaction with the cooperation and support received from colleagues, and satisfaction with design of individual employee respective jobs). The Cronbach's coefficient alpha is also perceived as the average of the reliability coefficients that would result if all split-half reliability analyses were performed. For clarity split-half reliability analyses are determined by administering a test on a single occasion. After that the items of the scale are divided into two equivalent halves. The scores on the two halves are correlated to determine whether they produce similar measures. The logic behind these calculations is that if the scores from the two halves, from a single administration of the scale are strongly correlated, then administering the whole test on two separate occasions would lead to strong correlation (i.e. reliability) (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:213).

The Cronbach's alpha is strongly affected by the number of items in the scale as illustrated in Table 6.13. For example, Scale 1 with five (5) items which were considered to have detrimental effects was excluded from the scale on each occasion to improve the Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha is assumed to be a credible measure of consistency of responses at 0.70. It can be argued that all the five (5) facets the JDI (Work in the present job with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.778, Present pay with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.637, Present opportunities for promotion with a Cronbach's

alpha of 0.699, Type of supervision received with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.753, and Co-workers with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.659) are credible measures of job satisfaction since they are close to or over 0.70 which would indicate consistency of responses. It is only in cases where > 0.6 Cronbach's alpha is questionable. However, in this case it was concluded that the given Cronbach's for the given facets were credible measures of job satisfaction since they were close to >0.70 (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013).

6.3.2 Dimension of job satisfaction

Table 6.14: Descriptive statistics for dimensions of job satisfaction

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale)	265	1.00	3.00	2.4080	0.65699
Intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale)	265	1.00	3.00	2.6673	0.55499
Level of staff morale (Scale)	265	1.00	2.88	1.4675	0.41020
Job satisfaction (Scale)	265	1.07	2.81	1.9487	0.31827

Table 6.14 indicates the mean for different dimensions of job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape. These means were respectively 2.4080; 2.6673; 1.4675 and 1.9487 for the extrinsic reward satisfaction scale, the intrinsic reward satisfaction scale, level of staff morale scale and the job satisfaction scale respectively. A mean of 3.00 constitutes an acceptable average level of satisfaction in the given subscales. The standard deviations of the means of the sub-scales were less than 1.00. The standard deviations can be explained as meaning the average distance of all subjects of enquiry in a dataset from the mean. This is usually represented by $Y - \bar{Y}$. In addition, the standard deviation allows one to compare individual scores on different tests, and to predict with some certainty what proportion of scores are within a certain range of a test. From the statistics given above it appears that public TVET educators in the Western Cape are more satisfied with intrinsic rewards as compared to extrinsic rewards. These findings confirmed that money is not everything that employees look for in their work-life. Workers look for different aspects satisfaction in work as implied in the above results (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:61; Muijs, 2004; Chanza *et al.*, 2013:3; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

Table 6.15: Job satisfaction scale

Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	214.747	13	243	0.000
StaffMorale_Scale	18.718	1	243	0.000**
IntrRewSatis_Scale	2.969	1	243	0.086
ExtrRewSatis_Scale	1.353	1	243	0.246
ExtrRewSatis_Scale IntrRewSatis_Scale	0.000	1	243	0.982
Age	0.105	1	243	0.746
Ten	0.217	1	243	0.641
Gen	1.259	1	243	0.263
Num	0.003	1	243	0.957
Pos	1.019	2	243	0.363
Lev	45.015	3	243	0.000**

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

Table 6.15 illustrates that under control of the other independent variables job satisfaction of educators is influenced by staff morale. In Table 6.15 it is shown that there is a statistically significant relationship between the staff morale of educators and job satisfaction at 10 percent level of significance. This may mean that, the higher the staff morale the higher the job satisfaction of the educators.

In addition, the level of education of educators has a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction at 10 percent level of significance. This implied that the job satisfaction of public TVET educators, which resulted in morale of the educators, also influences the level of job satisfaction and morale of educators as illustrated in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Deviation contrast

Level of education Deviation Contrasts	Contrast Estimate	Std. Error	T	Df	Adj. Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Diploma – Mean	-0.157	0.028	-5.649	243	0.000**	-0.211	-0.102
Degree – Mean	-0.138	0.025	-5.563	243	0.000**	-0.187	-0.089
Masters’ degree – Mean	0.412	0.037	11.168	243	0.000**	0.340	0.485
Other – Mean	-0.118	0.031	-3.788	243	0.000**	-0.179	-0.056

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.16 it is illustrated that all levels of education (Diploma, Degree, Masters’ degree and Other qualifications) have statistically significant relationships with the job satisfaction of the educators at 10 per cent level of significance. In other words, the statistics given in Table 6.16 indicated that the level of education of an educator has an influence on the educator’s job satisfaction. However, it should be noted that even though that is the case the Contrast estimate of the Masters’ degree and t-test result in Table 6.16 (11.168) are both positive as compared to the others which may imply that the Masters’ degree holders are more satisfied with their jobs. The Masters’ degree also has the highest Standard error of 0.037 as compared to standard errors of 0.028, 0.025, and 0.031 for the Diploma, Degree and Other qualification holders respectively.

The highlights of the discussion above are also reflected in Figure 6.7. In Figure 6.7 it is illustrated that Staff morale and Level of education (level 10) have strong positive coefficient estimates in relation to the job satisfaction scale. Further to the above, intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards as well as age are shown to have positive coefficient estimates but not as strong as staff morale and level of education especially the level of education of the Masters’ degree. Gender can also be considered as a positive coefficient as well as number of years in a position. Post level is also considered a positive coefficient. It is only tenure that is singled out as having a negative relationship with the job satisfaction scale amongst the fixed coefficients.

The null hypothesis of sub problem 2 claims that no significant relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards

(independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and the attrition rates or educator turnover rates (dependent variable) experienced by the institutions. However, from the results gathered it was shown that there was a close relationship between tenure and educator turnover rates in the public TVET Colleges. When educators are not happy they leave for better optional jobs elsewhere.

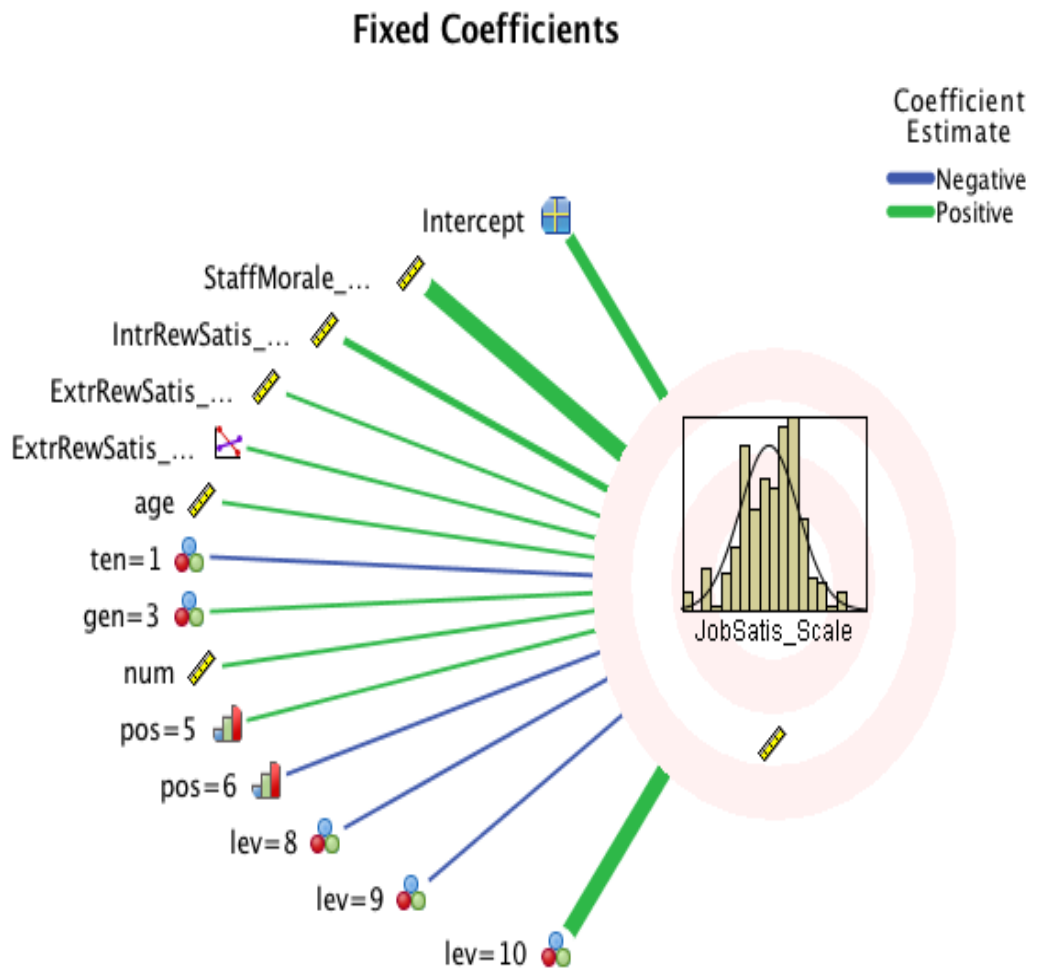
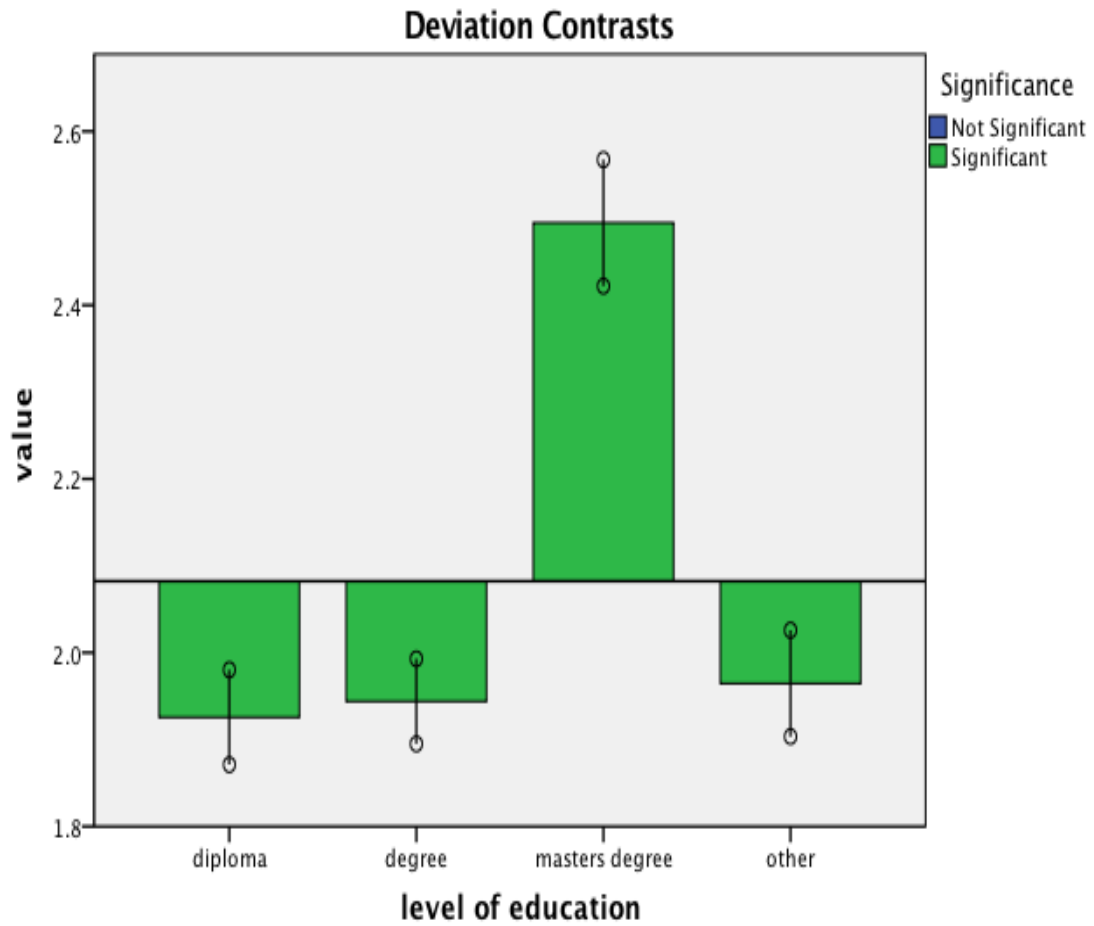


Figure 6.7: Job satisfaction scale

Furthermore, in Figure 6.8 it is shown that on a horizontal job satisfaction scale, all the four educational levels (Diploma, Degree, Master’s and Other) have significant relationships with job satisfaction. However, although the four educational levels have significant relationships with job satisfaction, this is at different degrees or mean values. In Figure 6.8 it is illustrated that the Master’s degree level of education mean is higher and stronger than that of the other levels of education (Diploma, Degree and Other). The other levels of education have almost the same mean. This could imply that the higher the level of education a public TVET educator holds, the more satisfied one is with one’s job as an educator.



The horizontal line is the Job satisfaction (Scale) overall estimated mean. The vertical bars are the deviation contrasts (Job satisfaction (Scale) at each level of level of education minus Job satisfaction (Scale) overall).

The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Figure 6.8: Level of education

Table 6.17: Level of Staff Morale (Scale)

Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	161.798	13	243	0.000
IntrRewSatis_Scale	0.950	1	243	0.331
ExtrRewSatis_Scale	0.030	1	243	0.862
JobSatis_Scale	16.423	1	243	0.000**
ExtrRewSatis_Scale	0.251	1	243	0.617
Age	0.065	1	243	0.799
Ten	0.425	1	243	0.515
Gen	0.894	1	243	0.345
Num	0.899	1	243	0.344
Pos	1.250	2	243	0.288
Lev	11.440	3	243	0.000**

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.17 it is illustrated that the level of staff morale of educators is influenced by their job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has a statistically significant relationship with staff morale at 10 per cent significant level. This may mean that the higher the job satisfaction of the public TVET educators, the higher their morale.

In addition, the level of staff morale is also influenced by the level of education the educators hold as implied in the above discussion. Level of education of public FET educators has a statistically significant relationship with level of staff morale at 10 per cent level of significance. This may mean that the higher the level of education held by a public TVET educator, the higher the educator's morale. The same findings revealed or illustrated in Table 6.18 are also revealed in Figure 6.9. Job satisfaction levels and the education levels of public TVET educators have an influence on their morale.

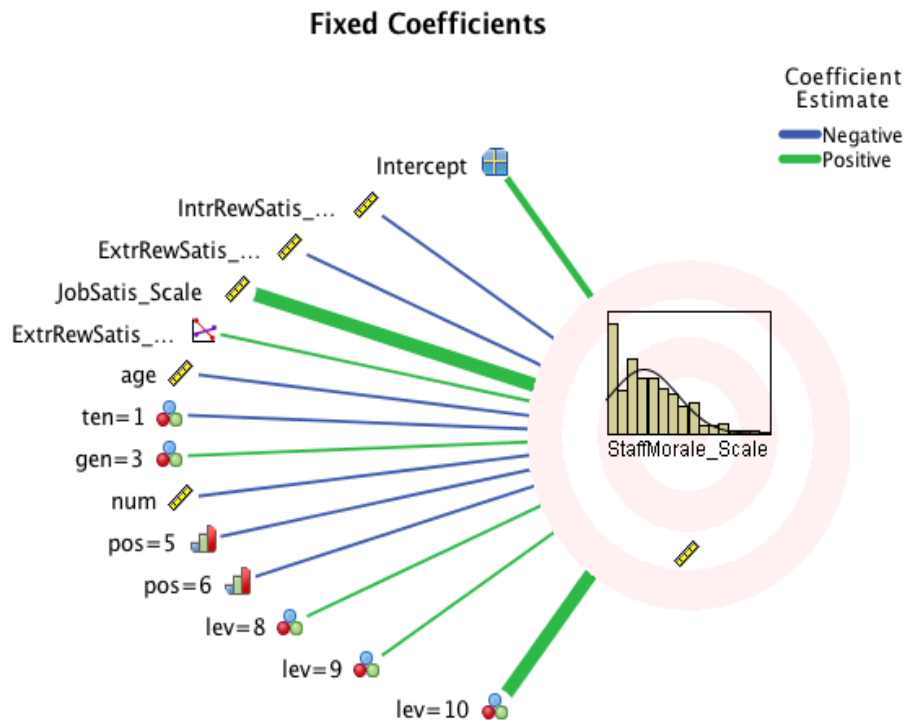


Figure 6.9: Level of staff morale

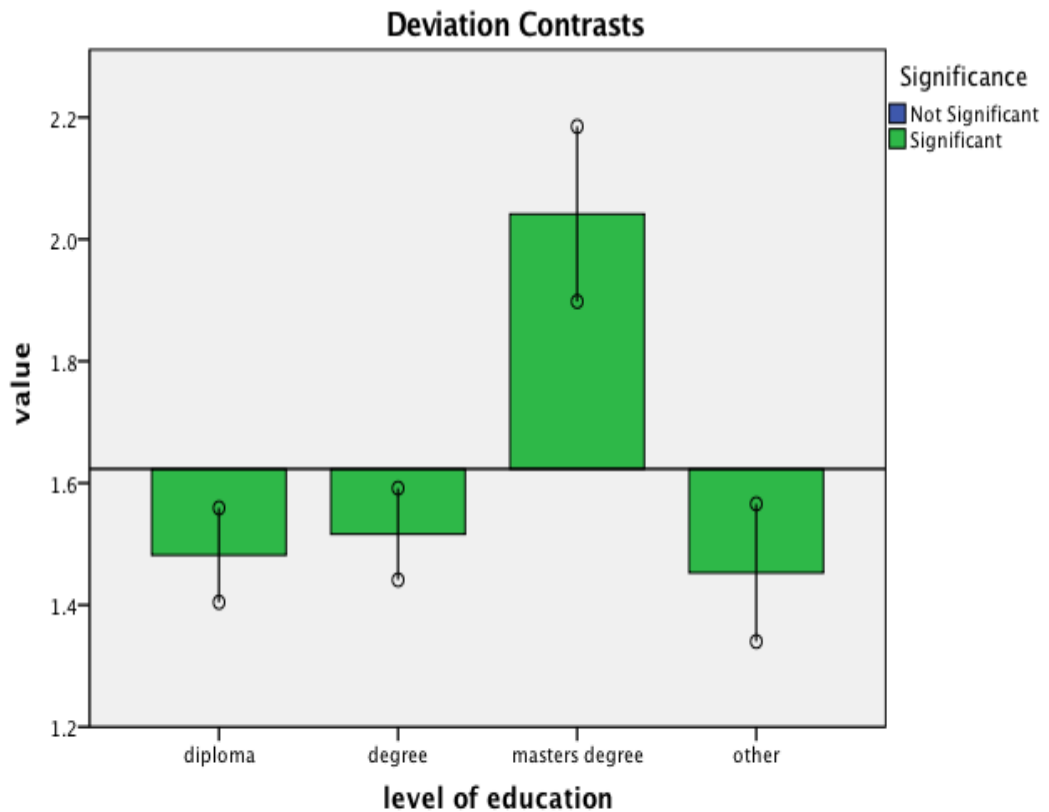
Table 6.18: Level of education

Level of education	Contrast Estimate	Std. Error	T	Df	Adj. Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Deviation Contrasts							
Diploma – Mean	-0.141	0.039	-3.598	243	0.000**	-0.219	-0.064
Degree – Mean	-0.107	0.038	-2.793	243	0.006**	-0.182	-0.031
Masters’ degree – Mean	0.418	0.073	5.738	243	0.000**	0.275	0.562
Other – Mean	-0.170	0.057	-2.969	243	0.003**	-0.283	-0.057

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.18 it is illustrated that all levels of education (Diploma, Degree, Masters’ degree and Other qualifications) have a statistically significant relationship with the level of staff morale of the educators the 10 percent significant level. In other words, the statistics given in Table 6.18 indicate that the level of education of an educator has

influence on the educator’s morale. However, it should be noted that even though that is the case, the Contrast estimate of the Masters’ degree and t-test result (5.738) are both positive as compared to the other levels of education. This may imply that the Masters’ degree level of education holders has higher staff morale than other educators as noted previously. The Masters’ degree level of education also has the highest Standard error of 0.074 as compared to standard errors of 0.039, 0.038, and 0.057 for the Diploma, Degree and Other qualification holders respectively.



The horizontal line is the Level of staff morale (Scale) overall estimated mean. The vertical bars are the deviation contrasts (Level of staff morale (Scale) at each level of level of education minus Level of staff morale (Scale) overall).

The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Figure 6.10: Level of education 1

The highlights of the discussion in Table 6.19 are also reflected in Figure 6.9. In Figure 6.9 it is illustrated that all the levels of education held by public TVET educators have significant relationships with staff morale. However, the significant statistical relationships that the different levels of education have with staff morale are differentiated. For example, Level of education at Master’s degree level of education has the highest estimated mean as compared to all the other levels of education. This

may mean that the Master's degree level of education has a stronger influence on staff morale. In comparison to the Master's degree level of education which has a stronger significant relationship with staff morale, Other levels of education have a high estimated mean followed by the Diploma level of education. The Degree level of education has the lowest estimated mean but still has a significant relationship with staff morale.

Table 6.19: Intrinsic reward satisfaction scale				
Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	9.321	12	244	0.000
Staff Morale_Scale	1.739	1	244	0.189
ExtrRewSatis_Scale	1.128	1	244	0.289
JobSatis_Scale	22.468	1	244	0.000**
Age	6.446	1	244	0.012**
Ten	0.001	1	244	0.978
Gen	0.001	1	244	0.972
Num	0.066	1	244	0.798
Pos	3.648	2	244	0.027**
Lev	12.537	3	244	0.000**

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.19 it is illustrated that job satisfaction has a statistically significant relationship with intrinsic rewards at the 10 percent level of significance. This may also mean that the higher the job satisfaction the higher the intrinsic reward satisfaction. This may also mean that the higher the job satisfaction with intrinsic rewards, the higher the staff morale.

However, it is indicated in Table 6.19 and Figure 6.10: Level of education 1, that there is a statistically significant relationship between the age of an educator and intrinsic reward satisfaction. From this table it can be deduced that the higher the age of public TVET educators, the lower the satisfaction with intrinsic rewards. Post level is also shown to have a statistically negative significant relationship with intrinsic reward scale level at 10 percent level of significance. It can thus be claimed that all the variables

stated and discussed above lead to disgruntlement within the public TVET Colleges. If intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are low, the low the morale of public TVET educators' more. This may precipitate or gravitate toward towards encouraging educators to engage in industrial action and working days are lost as a result, not necessarily through industrial action but also through other forms of absenteeism. The null hypothesis for sub-problem 3 (H_0 sp3) claimed that no significant relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and lost working days (dependent variable) in the teaching profession in general since 1995. However, it was discovered in this study that there was a significant relationship between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges and lost working days in the teaching profession since 1995.

It is also illustrated in Table 6.19 and Figure 6.10: Level of education 1: that level of education has a statistically significant relationship with post level at 10 percent level of significance. This may mean that in public TVET institutions educators have job satisfaction and morale which are both influenced by one's level of education.

As shown in Table 6.20 and Figure 6.10: Level of education 1 post level 1 – post level 2 have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. On the other hand, Post level 1 and Post level 2 have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. This could be interpreted as implying that the relationship may have something to do with the fact that the relationship is negative as shown in Figure 6.10. Even though educators in these Post levels (Post level 1 and Post level 2) are in the majority of in public TVET institutions they lack promotional opportunities as well as opportunities to develop their careers.

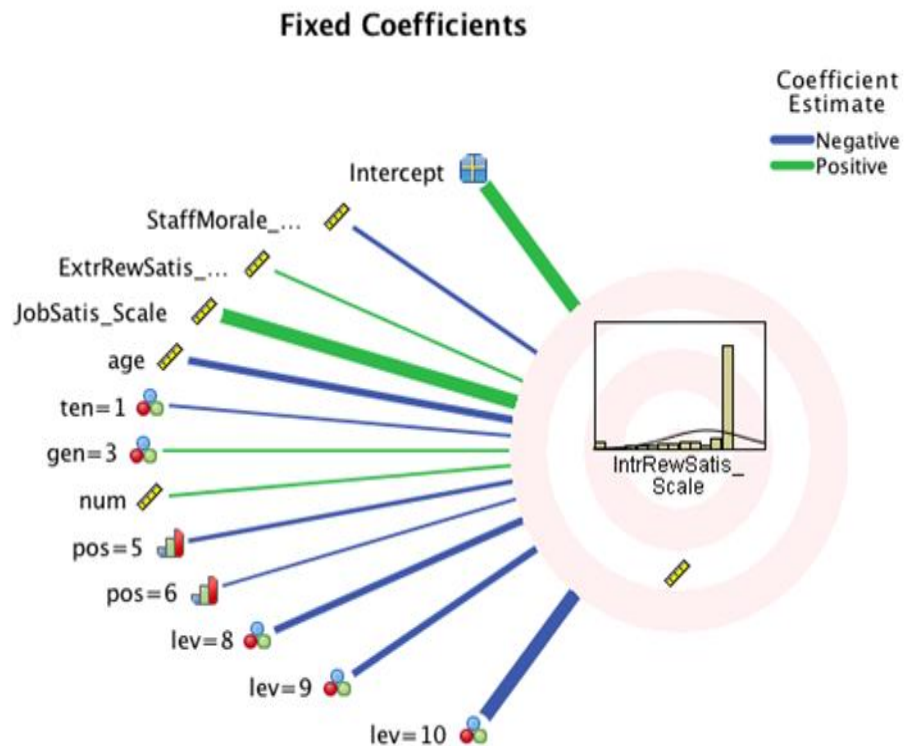


Figure 6.11: Intrinsic reward satisfaction scale

In Figure 6.11 it is illustrated that there is a strong positive relationship between the intrinsic reward satisfaction scale and the job satisfaction scale. This could be interpreted to mean that intrinsic rewards are more motivating for educators. In other words, intrinsic rewards like non-monetary rewards are more appealing to public TVET educators. However, in Figure 6.11 it is further illustrated that there is a positive but weaker correlation between the intrinsic reward satisfaction scale and scale with the gender of educators as well as the number of years an educator has been on the job.

In addition to the above, Figure 6.11 illustrates that there is a weak correlation between the intrinsic reward satisfaction scale and morale, age, tenure, post level and level of education. Figure 6.11 shows the weak relationship between the above described factors is more pronounced in level of education of educators followed the age of the educators. This may mean that the older educators become they become more motivated with tangibles as compared to non-tangibles. It may also mean that as people become older they may not be motivated by intrinsic rewards. This may call for further investigation by the employer to ascertain exactly what makes the educators get motivated so that correct decisions are made.

Table 6.20: Table Post level pairwise contrasts

Post level Pairwise Contrasts	Contrast Estimate	Std. Error	T	Df	Adj. Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
post level 1 - post level 2	-0.194	0.074	-2.622	244	0.009**	-0.339	-0.048
post level 1 - post level 3	-0.199	0.147	-1.355	244	0.177	-0.489	0.090
post level 2 - post level 1	0.194	0.074	2.622	244	0.009**	0.048	0.339
post level 2 - post level 3	-0.006	0.145	-0.039	244	0.969	-0.291	0.280
post level 3 - post level 1	0.199	0.147	1.355	244	0.177	-0.090	0.489
post level 3 - post level 2	0.006	0.145	0.039	244	0.969	-0.280	0.291

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.20 it is illustrated that post level 1 and post level 2 are inversely and statistically significantly related to intrinsic rewards at 10 per cent level of significance. The same information is also reflected in Figure 6.12. In Table 6.21 it is also shown that post level 2 and post level 1 is positively and statistically significantly related to intrinsic rewards at 10 per cent level of significance. In Figure 6.12 it was also indicated that, pairwise, post level 1 and post level 2 and, post level 2 and post level 1 both have a significant relationship with intrinsic rewards. The above given results show that intrinsic rewards have an influence on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape in the mentioned post levels. It could be also that the inverse relationships between intrinsic rewards and post levels can be explained by the fact that the less intrinsic rewards offered by TVET institutions in the Western Cape, the less job satisfaction educators in post levels 1 and 2 have.

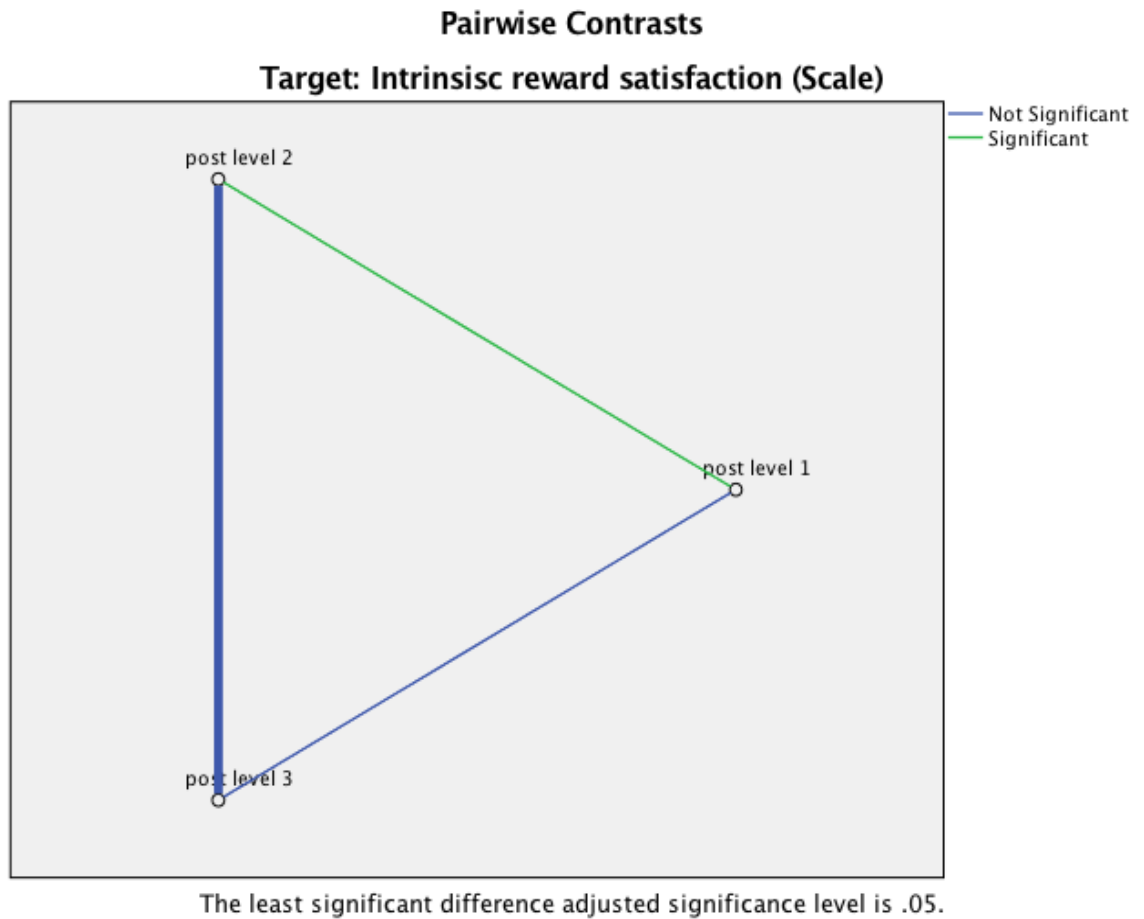


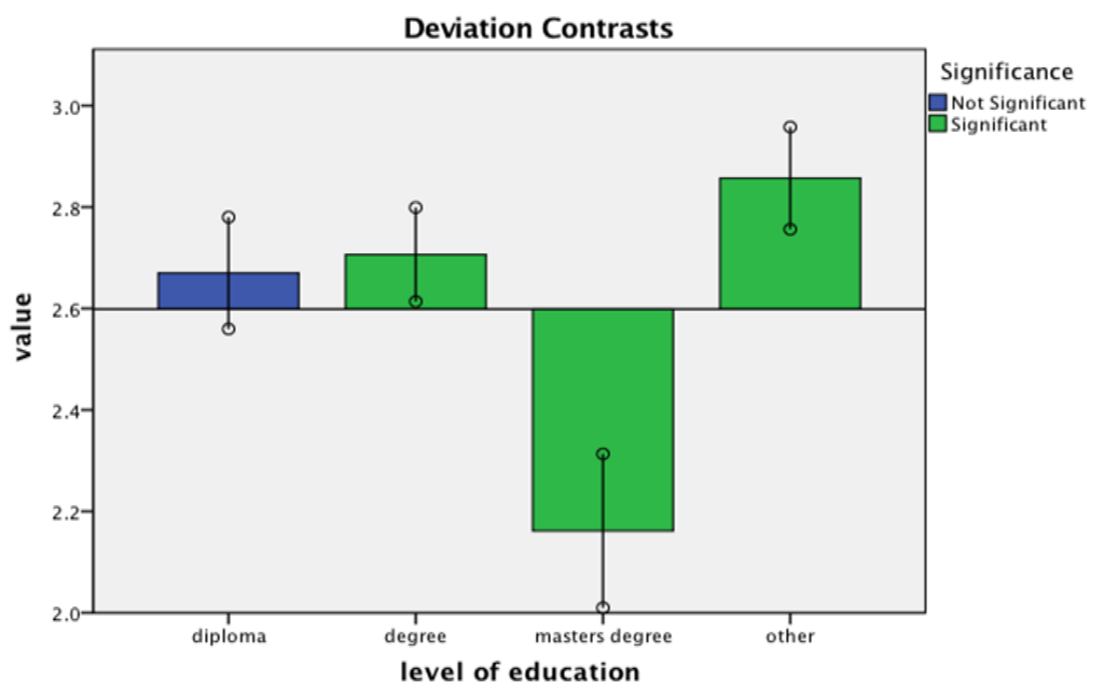
Figure 6.12: Post level

Table 6.21: Deviation contrasts – level of education

						95% Confidence Interval	
Level of education Deviation Contrasts	Contrast Estimate	Std. Error	T	Df	Adj. Sig.	Lower	Upper
Diploma - Mean	0.071	0.056	1.271	244	0.205	-0.039	0.181
Degree - Mean	0.108	0.047	2.291	244	0.023	0.015	0.200
Masters'- Mean	-0.437	0.077	-5.627	244	0.000**	-0.589	-0.285
Other - Mean	0.258	0.051	5.045	244	0.000**	0.157	0.359

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.21 it is illustrated that the Master's degree level of education has a negative statistically significant relationship with post level at 10 per cent level of significance. Maybe this is the situation because Master's degree level of education holders in public TVET institutions do not find job satisfaction in post levels but in the job itself. On the other hand, Other levels of education qualification have a positive statistically significant relationship with post level at 10 per cent level of significance. This may be interpreted to mean that holders of Other levels of education qualifications find job satisfaction from opportunities that enables them to move from one post level to a higher post level in terms of promotions.



The horizontal line is the Intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) overall estimated mean. The vertical bars are the deviation contrasts (Intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) at each level of level of education minus Intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) overall).

The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Figure 6.13: Level of education 2

In Figure 6.13: Level of education 2, it is illustrated the Master's degree level of qualification holder has an inverse statistically significant relationship with intrinsic rewards. This may imply that educators with Master's degree qualifications do not necessarily look for intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in their jobs as previously implied. Those who hold the Master's degree also appear to look for other types of rewards more fulfilling that are yet to be clarified.

Table 6.22: Extrinsic reward satisfaction scale

Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	23.559	12	244	0.000
Staff Morale_Scale	1.984	1	244	0.160**
IntrRewSatis_Scale	1.160	1	244	0.283
JobSatis_Scale	30.983	1	244	0.000**
Age	4.133	1	244	0.043*
Ten	0.029	1	244	0.864
Gen	0.051	1	244	0.821
Num	0.181	1	244	0.671
Pos	0.160	2	244	0.852
Lev	0.661	3	244	0.577

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data using SPSS Version 23.

In Table 6.22 it is indicated that staff morale has a statistically significant relationship with extrinsic rewards at 10 per cent level of significance. This implies that staff morale is influenced by extrinsic rewards offered by the employer. Related to the above, in Table 6.22 it is illustrated that extrinsic rewards have a statistically significant relationship with extrinsic rewards at 10 per cent significant level. Once again this implies that the job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape is influenced positively and significantly by extrinsic rewards offered by the employer. In Figure 6.22, age is statistically significantly related staff morale at 5 per cent level of significance.

However, in Table 6.22 and Figure 6.14 it is illustrated that age is negatively influenced by extrinsic rewards at 5 per cent level of significance. This may be explained by the fact that the higher or older the age the lower extrinsic reward satisfaction. This may mean that older TVET educators in the Western Cape may be looking for more of intrinsic rewards or a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards from the rewards they get from the employer. In Figure 6.14 it is also illustrated that job satisfaction has a positive and significant relationship with extrinsic rewards. This makes the argument that people look for different things in their jobs stronger.

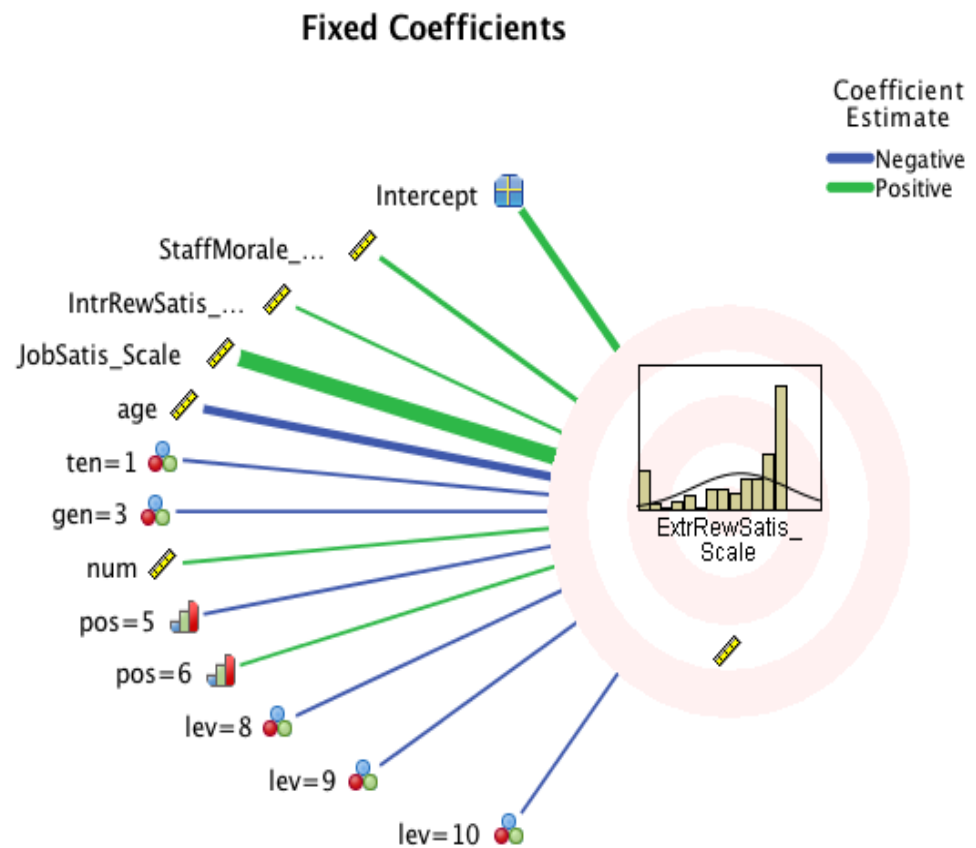


Figure 6.14: Extrinsic reward satisfaction scale

6.4 Inferential statistics

In this section inferential statistics was used in quantitative data analysis for prediction. Predictions in using quantitative data analysis are based on scientific probability. Inferential statistics are therefore used to make judgments of the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable difference or a difference that may have happened by chance in the study (Quinlan, Babin, Carr, Griffin and Zikmund, 2015).

6.4.1 Correlations for independent variables

Correlations for independent variables (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) and dependent variables (Job satisfaction and level of staff morale) were tested and the results are shown in tables in this section. SPSS Version 23, linear regression and the Generalised Linear Mixed Model was utilised to process the collected data (Leech, Barret and Morgan, 2011:223-256). Correlations and simple linear regression coefficients are used or utilised in measuring how strong the relationship or association between and among independent and dependent variables are. As implied in the above discussion,

correlation and simple linear regression coefficients were utilised or used to determine the strength of relationships between independent and dependent variables. In addition, simple regression was also utilised for predicting the relationship between variables (independent variables such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) and the dependent variables (such as levels of staff morale, job satisfaction, educator turnover and rate of educator absenteeism) as depicted in Figure 5.1 (Leech *et al.*, 2011).

It was noted in a study conducted by Thirulogasundram and Sahu (2014) that, there was a significant statistical relationship between educator absenteeism in general and turnover with job satisfaction. The job satisfaction of the employees in the above discussed study was derived from intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by the employer. In this study with a random sample of 200 respondents, it was discovered that there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover. Table 6.6 shows summarised results of the seven factors of motivation/job satisfaction looked at in this study.

6.4.2 Factors of motivation / job satisfaction

Table 6.7 was derived from data gathered and processed from a sample of 200 respondents from Barat Heavy Electricals Limited (Thirulogasundram and Sahu, 2014:66).

Please note that affirmations by respondents that each facet in Table 6.6 was arrived at by adding the two figures that affirm the assertion. The assertion, for example, that pay is significant relationship with absenteeism and turnover. For example, 58% of the respondents “strongly agree” and 24% of the respondent “agree” that pay had a significant effect on absenteeism and turnover. The total sum of 58% and 24% is 82%.

Table 6.23 shows that 82% (mean 20) of the respondents believed pay had a significant effect on absenteeism and turnover. In this study 62% (mean 20) of the respondents concurred that promotion could motivate workers to serve the company beyond company expectations as they became motivated by responsibilities and increased social status. Eighty-eight per centum (88%) (mean 20) of the respondents positively concurred that if a job was highly motivating employees were likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work. Results also showed that 78% (mean 20) of the respondents agreed that employee satisfaction was increased if the supervisor was emotionally supportive and allowed for employee participation in

decision making and listened to employee inputs. The results also showed that 56% (mean 20) of the respondents accepted the new classical approach of management.

Table 6.23: Summarised results of the seven factors of motivation / job satisfaction

Motivational factors relative to absenteeism and turnover	Pay (%)	Promotion (%)	Work interest (%)	Supervision (%)	Co-workers (%)	Work environment (%)	Fairness (%)
Strongly disagree	2	8	0	6	10	2	8
Disagree	6	10	2	14	14	6	10
Undecided	10	20	10	2	20	2	10
Agree	24	22	31	28	20	50	22
Strongly agree	58	40	57	50	36	40	50
Mean	20	20	20	20	20	20	20

(Adapted from Thirulogasundram and Sahu, 2014:66)

The new classical management purported that if co-workers were friendly, competent and supportive, job satisfaction could be guaranteed. Please note that working environment refers to aspects such as temperature, lighting, noise and ventilation. Because of this, 90% (mean 20) of the respondents in this study agreed that they preferred physical surroundings that were safe. They also preferred clean, comfortable environments with minimum degrees of distraction. With all the above in place, job satisfaction is guaranteed, and absenteeism and staff turnover are on a barest minimum threshold (Thirulogasundram and Sahu, 2014; Adegboyega, Dele and Ayodeji, 2015).

The results also showed that fairness, which is described as the extent to which employees perceived they were treated fairly by the employer was a factor that influenced the job satisfaction of employees. Seventy-two per centum (72%) (mean 20) of the respondents concurred that fairness was a major key factor that drove away absenteeism and turnover from the organisation (Thirulogasundram and Sahu, 2014; Adegboyega, Dele and Ayodeji, 2015).

6.5 Hypothesis testing

Under this section hypotheses which are tentative statements about relationships between two or more variables were formulated and analysed. Hypotheses are educated guesses about how the social world works. At the same time hypothesis testing is a logical and empirical procedure whereby hypotheses are formally set up and subjected to empirical tests (Welman, 2014:26-27; Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:128-130).

Two types of hypotheses are discussed under this section. The null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis are the hypotheses discussed. The research question can be considered as a hypothesis situation that seeks to determine whether groups are the same or not. To this end, the null hypothesis is a statement, claim or conjecture that maintains or insists that there is no difference between the conditions described. The null hypothesis is represented by H_0 as indicated below (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:128-129).

H_0 mp: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

6.5.1 Null hypothesis

H_0 mp: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

The above described null hypothesis of the main problem (H_0 mp) was rejected since it was proven that there was a relationship between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions or colleges. There was a negative significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable. On the other hand, the alternative hypothesis is represented by H_1 . The alternative hypothesis H_1 is a statement that maintains that there are differences between the conditions as expressed in the null hypothesis (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013).

6.5.2 Alternative hypothesis

H_1 mp: relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction of educators (dependent variable).

Table 6.24: The Pearson Correlation Matrix for dimensions of job satisfaction

Dimension	Job Satisfaction
Work in present job	1.000** (0.000)
Present pay	-0.43922* (0.01617)
Present opportunities for promotion	-0.48992** (0.00753)
Supervision	0.30517 (0.288708)
Co-workers	0.037302 (0.899256)

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels of significance respectively as derived by processing of raw data with SPSS Version 23.

However, it should be noted that any decision made to reject the null hypothesis (H_0) was accompanied by a degree of or a certain risk of being wrong. The level of the risk of being wrong in a decision made in rejecting the null hypothesis is referred to as the significance level of the test. If the test is carried out at the 5% significance level the researcher is taking a 5% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0) when it is true. Naturally it is preferred that the significance level of a test be very small. The 5% significance level is often used for statistical tests. In this case a statement such as "the difference is statistically significant at the 5% level" means that the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected at the 5% significance level (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:195-196).

In this study as shown in Table 6.24 it is evident that there is a statistically significant relationship between work in the present job and the job satisfaction of public TVET educators at the 0.1 level of significance with a p value of 1. Since the p value is 1, there is a strong relationship between work in the present job and job satisfaction (Refer to Table 6.24).

From the given results it was shown that there was a significant relationship between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (dependent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators' low job satisfaction and low morale (dependent variables). The claim held by the null hypothesis is at the risk of being rejected.

In this case, (*Ho sp1*) the null hypothesis of sub problem 1 was rejected since the interpretations below indicated that there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and present opportunities for promotion (non-monetary rewards). A relationship existed between the independent variable (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) and job satisfaction (dependent variable) although it was weak. There was also a statistically significant relationship between present pay and job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance with a p value of -0.43922 implying that present pay and job satisfaction have a weak or inverse relationship. This was the case because the p value was < 0.2 (See Table 6.24). A statistically significant relationship was also found between present opportunities for promotion and job satisfaction of employees at the 0.1 level of significance with a p value of -0.48992. This p value was < 0.2 which implied that there was an inverse relationship between the two variables being compared with each other to ascertain the strength of their relationship (See Table 6.8).

In this case, the null hypothesis of the main problem (*Ho mp*) was rejected since it was proven that there was a negative significant relationship between present pay (-0.43992) and public TVET educators' job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significance. However, the relationship between present pay and job satisfaction was weak or inverse. It was also discovered that there was a weak or inverse significant relationship between present opportunities for promotion (-0.48992) and job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significance.

Once again, the null hypothesis (*Ho sp1*) of sub problem 1 which stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators low morale (dependent variable) was rejected because there was an inverse relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable.

6.6 Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was utilised in this section to ascertain how strong of the relationship between two variables were. The Pearson's

correlation coefficient is represented by r . The values of r are calculated from the equation $r = S_{xy} / S_x S_y$; Where x is the variable on the horizontal axis of the scatterplot. In addition, y is the variable on the vertical axis. S_x and S_y , are the standard deviations of x and y , respectively. S_{xy} is the covariance between x and y (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:183).

6.6.1 The meaning of (r)

The values of r are derived after calculations using the formula $r = S_{xy} / S_x S_y$ and falls between -1 and +1. An r of -1 means a perfect negative or inverse correlation (a perfect inverse relationship). In this case whereas the value of x rises, the value of y falls. An r of +1 means a perfect positive correlation. In this case the values of x and y rise or fall together. If by any chance there is an r of 0, it means that there is zero correlation meaning that there is no relationship between x and y . It is argued that correlations coefficients that fall between 0 and 1 are difficult to interpret. However, Guilford (1987) cited in (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013) offered informal interpretations for statistically significant Pearson correlations of various sizes reproduced in Table 6.8.

Table 6.25: Guilford's informal interpretations of magnitude of r

Value of r (+ or -)	Informal interpretation
< 0.2	Slight; almost no relationship
0.2 - 0.4	Low correlation; definite but no correlation
0.4 - 0.7	Moderate correlation; substantial relationship
0.7 - 0.9	High correlation; strong relationship
0.9 - 1.0	Very high correlation; very dependable relationship

(Adapted from Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:184)

6.6.2 Meaning of significance level or level of significance

For the sake of clarity, significance tests are often carried out in hypothesis testing. Normally results of a test are said to be significant at the $p < 0.05$. For some experimentalists tests which are not significant are considered as worth not reporting as adopted in this study. In addition, with the advent of modern statistical software packages p values are now obtained automatically when one uses SPSS Version 23, for example, as is the case in this study (Lieber, 1990).

6.6.3 Underlying significance test in a null hypothesis

When testing a null hypothesis, a test statistic is calculated and compared with the critical (z) value. The critical (z) value may indicate that there is no difference in population parameters among the groups being compared. This means that the null hypothesis is consistent with the notion that the observed difference is simply the result of random variation (not by chance). However, to decide whether the null hypothesis is accepted or rejected a test statistic is computed and compared with a critical value obtained from a set statistical table. When the test statistic exceeds the critical value the null hypothesis of any hypothesis being tested, the null hypothesis is rejected. The difference is declared statistically significant (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:195-196; Lieber, 1990).

6.6.4 The p value

When a researcher reports the lowest significance level at which the null hypothesis could be rejected, the level is called the p value. The p value expresses the probability that a difference as large as that observed would occur by chance alone. If a p value of $p < 0.01$ is produced it means that the probability that random variation alone accounted for the difference in the populations parameters stated in the null hypothesis is very small. This prompts us to conclude that the result is statistically significant. However, the statement $p > 0.10$ implies that chance alone is a viable explanation for the observed difference. The difference in this case would be referred to as not statistically significant. Although arbitrary the p value of 0.05 is universally regarded as the cut-off level for statistical significance. This p value should only be taken as a guideline (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:195-196; Lieber, 1990)

6.6.5 Correlations of independent and dependent variables

Table 6.26: Inferential statistics for correlations of independent and dependent variables

Source/dimensions	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	214.747	13	243	0.000
Staff Morale Scale	18.718	1	243	(0.000)**
Intrinsic Reward Satisfaction Scale	2.969	1	243	(0.086)**
Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction Scale	1.353	1	243	0.246
Extrinsic Reward Satisfaction Scale Intrinsic Reward Satisfaction Scale	0.000	1	243	0.982
Age	0.105	1	243	0.746
Tenure	0.217	1	243	0.641
Gender	1.259	1	243	0.263
Number of years	0.003	1	243	0.957
Post level	1.019	2	243	0.363
Level of education	45.015	3	243	(0.000)**

Note: Figures in asterisks. * and **, denote the probability values at 5% and 10% levels of significance respectively.

From the above discussion (Ho mp) the null hypothesis of the main problem was rejected. The null hypothesis of the main problem claimed that no relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators reduced or low job satisfaction (dependent variable). A significant relationship however existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators reduced or low job satisfaction.

6.6.6 Correlations of independent variables (Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) and job satisfaction

Table 6.27: Inferential statistics for correlations of independent variables and job satisfaction

Source	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Corrected Model	23.559	12	244	0.000
Staff Morale Scale	1.984	1	244	0.160
Intrinsic Reward Satisfaction Scale	1.160	1	244	0.283
Job Satisfaction Scale	30.983	1	244	0.000**
Age	4.133	1	244	0.043*
Ten	0.029	1	244	0.864
Gender	0.051	1	244	0.821
Number of years	0.181	1	244	0.671
Post level	0.160	2	244	0.852
Level of education	45.015	3	243	0.000**

Note: Figures with asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5% and 10% levels of significance respectively.

From Table 6.27, it was shown that there was a statistically significant relationship at the 0.1 level of significance between job satisfaction of public TVET educators and the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they received from public TVET College Councils on behalf of the Department of Higher Education. (Please note that public TVET institutions have since reverted to the control and management of the DHET since 2012). It was also noted that at the 0.05 level of significance there was a significant relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and the age of the respondents. Younger public TVET educators were satisfied by the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards they received. There was also a significant relationship between the levels of education public TVET educators held and their job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance.

Considering the above deductions, the null hypothesis of the main problem (H_0) was rejected as it was proven that a significant relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators' low job satisfaction (dependent variable) at 10 percent level of significance.

6.6.7 Regression analysis

Table 6.28: Multiple regression analysis: Regressing demographic variables against job satisfaction

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-stat	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
<i>Constant</i>	1.956	0.579	-	3.376	0.001
Age	-0.029	0.016	-0.295	-1.823	(0.037)*
Tenure	0.115	0.211	0.077	0.545	0.588
Gender	0.113	0.179	0.073	0.0631	0.530
Number of years	-0.004	0.016	-0.033	-0.224	0.823
Post level	0.331	0.161	0.248	2.060	(0.044)*
Level of education	-0.148	0.075	-0.240	-1.985	(0.051)*

Note: Figures in asterisks * and ** denote the probability values at 5% and 10% levels of significance respectively.

From Table 6.28 it was illustrated that there was a correlation between the age of public TVET educators and extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils and their job satisfaction at the 0.05 significance level. Table 6.28 also illustrated that there was a correlation between post levels of public TVET educators and their job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance. The level of education that public educators held also had a correlation with their job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance.

6.6.8 Correlations of biographical data

Table 6.29: Correlations of biographical data

Variable	Age of respondent	Tenure	Gender of respondent	Number of years in position	Post level	Level of education
Age of respondent Pearson – r Sig. (2-tailed) n	1 - 265	-0.460** 0.000 265	0.011 0.856 265	0.611** 0.000 265	0.341** 0.000 265	0.282** 0.000 265
Tenure Pearson – r Sig. (2-tailed) n	-0.460** 0.000 265	1 - 265	0.086 0.267 265	-0.516** 0.000 265	-0.478** 0.000 265	-0.23** 0.000 265
Gender of respondent Pearson - r Sig. (2 – tailed) n	0.011 0.856 265	0.068 0.267 265	1 - 265	0.064 0.298 265	-0.028 0.651 265	-0.044 0.475 265
Number of years in position Pearson – r Sig. (2-tailed) n	0.611** 0.000 265	-0.516** 0.000 265	0.064 0.298 265	1 - 265	0.305** 0.000 265	0.291** 0.000 265
Post level Pearson – r Sig.(2-tailed) n	0.341** 0.000 265	0.478** 0.000 265	-0.028 0.651 265	0.305** 0.000 265	1 - 265	0.221** 0.000 265
Level of education Pearson – r Sig. (2-tailed) n	0.282** 0.000 265	0.230** 0.000 265	-0.044 0.475 265	0.291** 0.000 265	0.221** 0.000 265	1 - 265

NB: Figures with ** denote that the correlation is significant at the 10% level of significance (2-tail)

Please note that the terms tenure and number of years in position are interpreted differently. Tenure means holding of an office or guaranteed permanent employment especially as an educator or a lecturer after serving a probation period. Number of years in position would literally mean the number of years an educator or lecturer spent in a position without necessarily considering the tenure of a specific educator. However, it could be argued that there is a thin line in meaning between the meanings of the two terms as they mean almost the same. In addition, for clarity's sake in this study the meanings of the two must be made distinct (Cambridge University Press, 2008).

The number of cases for which information for each of the variables in Table 6.13 was derived was 265. Table 6.13 showed that there was a significant but inverse relationship between age of respondents and tenure with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of -0.460 at the 0.1 level of significance. Table 6.13 showed that there was a positive statistically significant relationship between age of the respondents and the number of years in a position at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.611. It was also shown in Table 6.13 that age and level of education had a statistically significant positive relationship with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.230. In table 6.12 it was also shown that tenure and number of years in a position had an inverse statistically significant relationship at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of -0.516. Tenure and post level was also shown to have a positive statistically significant relationship at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of -0.478. Tenure was also shown to have an inverse statistically significant relationship with level of education at the 0.1 level of signification with a Pearson coefficient correlation (r) of -0.230.

In addition, in Table 6.13 it was illustrated that number of years in a position had a positive statistically significant relationship with post level at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.305. It was also shown that number of years in a position and level of education had a positive statistically significant relationship at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.291. In Table 6.12 it was also shown that level of education and post level had a statistically significant positive relationship at the 0.1 level of significance with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.221 (Muijs, 2004).

6.6.9 Regression of dependent variable (job satisfaction)

Table 6.30: Regression of dependent variable – Job satisfaction

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.124	0.099	-	11.364	0.000
Extrinsic reward Satisfaction (Scale)	0.171	0.028	0.346	6.152	0.000
Intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale)	0.157	0.032	0.271	4.823	0.000

From Table 6.14 it was shown that the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction was statistically significant at the 0.1 level. Both p-values calculated were positive and were 0.346 and 0.271 respectively (Muijs, 2004: 166-167).

Table 6.31: Model summary of predictors – extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	0.484	0.234	0.228	0.28161

In Table 6.31, the adjusted R square was between 0 and 1. The Adjusted R square of 0.228 value was between 0.11 - 0.3. Applying and following the rule of the thumb, it was illustrated that there existed a modest fit between the model and the data collected and processed through SPSS Version 23. In other words, the value of 0.228 suggested that the predictors (extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales) were modest at predicting the job satisfaction of public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators (Muijs, 2004:166-167).

Table 6.32: ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6.158	254	3.079	38.825	0.000
Residual	20.143	254	0.079	-	-
Total	26.301	254	-	-	-

Table 6.16 showed that the extrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) and the intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) statistically significantly predicted job satisfaction of public TVET educators at the 0.1 level of significance. The level of statistical significance of 0.1 meant that the probability that random variation alone accounted for the difference was very small. This made the researcher willing to conclude that the result was statistically significant (Leech *et al.*, 2011:111).

6.7 Summary

In this section the schematic diagram of the theoretical framework (Figure 5.1) was briefly presented for recapitulation purposes. Thereafter a presentation of raw and processed demographic data was made. Later results for the descriptive statistics of the JDI Questionnaire were displayed and presented. After that inferential statistics were displayed in tables and presented. In the process hypotheses were tested using information from SPSS Version 23 in Table 6.7.

In addition, the Pearson's Product moment correlation coefficient which determines the strength of the relationship between two variables was discussed. The p value assures one that probability random variation alone accounts for the difference between variables when the p value is very small. The p value between 0.1 and 0.05 enables one to conclude that a result is statistically significant. Thereafter analysis of variance was briefly discussed as well as providing a fitting summary to the chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

7.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction is a complex concept which can be difficult to measure because it is influenced by a multiplicity of factors such as social, cultural, organisational and environmental. For example, relationships with other co-workers immensely contribute a critical role in the determination of the job satisfaction of public TVET educators. In addition, in 1990 in Poland, Wisniewski discovered that job satisfaction was influenced by pay which was considered fair by educators. Good organisation and management of an educational institution as well as a conducive atmosphere in a learning institution was also perceived as influential in determining the job satisfaction and morale of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators (Mafini and Pooe, 2013:1; Aguinis, 2013:13; George *et al.*, 2008).

The main objective of this Chapter was to produce a comprehensive discussion and interpretation of the most significant results obtained from the study. The comprehensive discussion and interpretation of the results was based on whether the job satisfaction and morale (dependent variables) of public TVET educators was impacted by their dissatisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by Western Cape public TVET College Councils (Please note that public TVET institutions reverted back to the Department of Higher Education and Training). In this process reference was made to relevant previous research, literature and statistical analyses in this study. This was done with reference to the hypotheses to support and give meaning to the findings. The results of the study were also discussed and interpreted with reference to outlined key research questions, objectives and hypotheses.

7.2 Research questions

The key research questions the study attempted to answer are further listed below.

- Does educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educator reduced or low job satisfaction?
- Does educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educator reduced or low morale?

- Does educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in increased early public TVET educator exits or turnover?
- Does dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in public TVET educators increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase in lost learning and teaching time?

From the look of it, all the above outlined research questions were answered in the affirmative as shown by the discussion that followed and as previously discussed. The answers to most of the research questions posed above were in the affirmative.

7.2.1 Theoretical framework

As depicted in Figure 5.1 the variance of dependent variables (level of staff morale, job satisfaction, and public TVET educator turnover and educator absenteeism) was explained by the independent variable (extrinsic and intrinsic rewards).

Figure 5.1 showed that public TVET educators' satisfaction with rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) influenced their levels of morale, job satisfaction, turnover and absenteeism. This observation was confirmed by Papier (2008) who claimed that money was an important motivator. Papier (2008) argued that money supplied people with several needs required in life, from fulfilling basic needs like food, shelter and many more things like luxuries. However, Papier (2008) further argued that people seek more than extrinsic rewards in their jobs. For example, people may seek environments of trust and respect, and if they did not find this in an organisation that employed them, they sought these intrinsic rewards elsewhere. This finding answers the first research questions in the affirmative. It is confirmed in the study that dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards resulted in educators reduced or low job satisfaction.

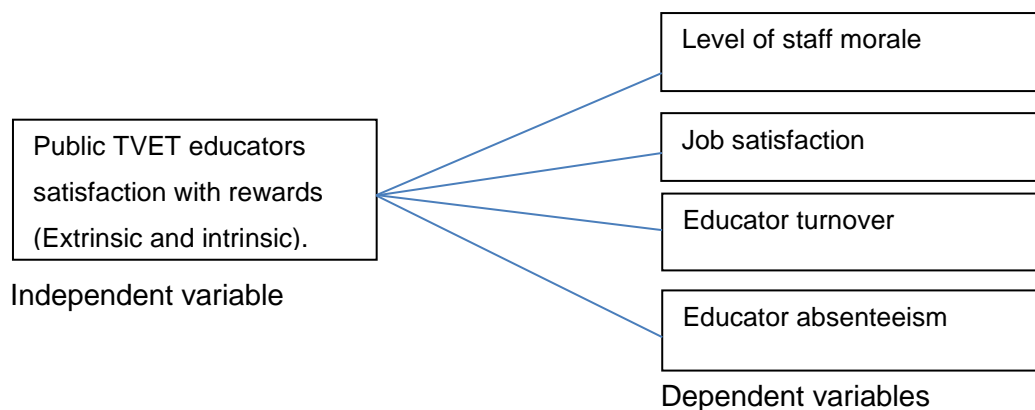


Figure 5.1: A schematic diagram of the theoretical framework
(Adapted from Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:72)

Factors discussed above were also confirmed to have the effect of inducing or motivating educators in general inclusive public TVET educators to leave the education profession in general (OCED, 2008:9). Because of poor working conditions among educators in general inclusive public TVET educators, and among educators aged between 25 to 35 years of age in South Africa, resignations accounted for 80% of the terminations. It was discovered that the main reason for the high attrition rate among young educators in South Africa was that they were using the education profession for speculative reasons while waiting for better employment opportunities elsewhere (Please note that there were young educators who were seconded to public TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education. However, public TVET institutions reverted to the DHET in 2012.) (ETPD SETA, 2008; ELRC, 2005:38; Sumar and Lesha, 2013:14; Fields, 2013:3). This finding or observation answers the first research question in the affirmative as discussed previously. Yes, it is true that dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET colleges or institutions resulted in educators reduced or low job satisfaction and morale.

Lack of job satisfaction of public TVET educators could also be attributed to dissatisfaction with conditions of work such as work overload, and too many changes in the TVET Act in South Africa since 1994 and low salaries (ELRC, 2005:36; Papier, 2008; Soudien, 2010:58; The Department of Education, 2005:8). (Banks, Patel, and Moola (2012:2) also confirmed that dissatisfaction with the job and rewards resulted in educators in general inclusive public TVET educators engaging in absenteeism. Educators in general avoided what they perceived as aversive work conditions through engaging in absenteeism, and even engaging in industrial actions. The above discussed findings answer research questions 2-4 in the affirmative. Adams theory (1965) supported the above discussed findings by claiming that employees often

compared how much effort they would have put into their day-to-day tasks or responsibilities as compared to rewards due them. Employees went further to compare how much they would receive in terms of rewards with what their colleagues received for the same effort they would have put into their jobs. At the end of the day if employees perceived that the ratio of inputs to outcomes was unequal especially when they claimed the presence of unfairness, workers used negative strategies such as absenteeism to restore perceived equity (Banks *et al.*, 2012:2). There are several types of absenteeism that educators in general inclusive public TVET educators could engage in. Educators engaged in forms of absenteeism such as strikes or industrial actions. Educators in general inclusive public TVET educators also engaged in secondary employment activities such as vending and private tutoring to supplement their incomes (Banks *et al.*, 2012:3; Kadzamira, 2006:7; Reddy *et al.*, 2010:25). From the foregoing discussion, the fourth research question was answered in the affirmative. Yes indeed, it was proven that absenteeism was increased by educators' dissatisfaction with monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape. If educators were dissatisfied with rewards they sought rewards elsewhere or engaged in other activities to supplement their meagre salaries as confirmed by Bennel and Akyeampong (2007:7). In the process of being dissatisfied with the rewards offered by public TVET institutions, educators engaged in absenteeism and learning, and teaching time was lost. This problem was perpetrated by educators due to their dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by Western Cape public TVET institutions.

Raw data collected and processed was discussed in this section. The discussed raw data pertained to tenure, contract and permanent employment, gender, post, educational levels of public TVET educators.

7.3.1 Tenure

Figure 6.1 illustrated that most of the respondents in this study were represented by young educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape between the ages of 34 to 41. The 34 to 41-year age group represented 42.26% of the sample and were in the majority. Previous studies confirmed that this age group accounted for 80% of resignations or terminations in the Education Sector in South Africa between 2005 and 2010. The main reason given for the high turnover among educators between the ages of 25-34 was that young educators were giving the education profession a try while waiting for better employment opportunities elsewhere (ETPD SETA, 2008; ELRC, 2005:38). The above discussed findings confirmed and answered the third research

question in the affirmative. Yes, dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape increased early public TVET educator exits or turnover.

The age group range of between 42-49 years was represented by 31.70% of the respondents. It is worth noting and interesting that the respondents in the age ranges of between the ages of 50-57 and 58-65 together represented 10.19% of the respondents. In OEDC countries educator turnover or attrition was attributed to the ageing workforce, and from the results discussed under this section, this seems not to be the case in South Africa (ILO, 2010:8). In South Africa, the problem was with young people who were not prepared to join the teaching profession. The mammoth task that South Africa faced was how to attract and retain young educators in the teaching profession. May be South Africa had to adopt the strategy used in Europe where young people who promised to remain in the teaching profession once they joined, were offered scholarships (EC, 2013:14). Once again, the research questions were answered adequately and answers to the research questions are given. Educators left their jobs due to frustrations with the rewards offered by the employer. As a result, educators engaged in secondary employment as a way of supplementing their incomes and this was considered as absenteeism as previously discussed. At the same time young people were discouraged from joining the teaching profession because of their dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges.

Figure 6.2 illustrated that respondents with tenure of between 4-7 years were in the majority (42.26%) of the respondents. The respondents who served in the public TVET sector for between 12-15 years represented 16.98% of the respondents. This percentage may have indicated that the respondents in this age group possessed affective commitment for the concerned public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators to stay for 12-15 years within the public TVET sector. It was discovered affective commitment was related to occupational outcomes such as job satisfaction, high morale, low turnover, low absenteeism and good employee retention. However, from the statistics given above it appeared that generally public TVET educator turnover was not much pronounced in the public TVET sector. Educators were staying in their jobs for reasonable lengths of time (Salie and Schlechter, 2012:3; Nujjo and Meyer, 2012:4). Once again, all the research questions were answered in the affirmative. It was revealed that dissatisfaction with monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by public TVET Colleges had a negative impact on morale, job

satisfaction, turnover and absenteeism, and lost teaching and learning time in South African TVET Colleges.

The respondents who served between 8-11 years represented 26.04% of the respondents. Respondents, who served in public TVET sector for between 16-19, and 20-23 years respectively, represented 1.51% and 1.89% of the respondents respectively. There were now few of these educators still found in the public TVET sector due the fact that the majority of these educators in the age groups 50-57 and 58-65 respectively had retired or were planning to retire, and hence the need to find strategies to attract and retain young people into the teaching profession as previously alluded to and confirmed (ILO, 2010:8; Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327).

7.3.2 Contract and permanent employment

Figure 6.3 illustrated that respondents who held permanent contracts of employment were in the minority and represented 44.53% of the respondents. Although this was a commendable result, it was still a cause for concern since many respondents who represented 55.47% of the respondents were on one-year contracts of employment which were renewed annually. It was confirmed in previous studies that permanent status was preferred by newly qualified educators after a few years of teaching in Ireland. All the research questions were answered in the affirmative once more in this section. South African educators in general are no exception, they also preferred permanent status. Beside the above discussed aspirations, educators in Greece, France, Spain, Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands and Poland desired to be afforded contracts of indefinite duration and life time status (E.C., 2013:54).

7.3.3 Gender

Figure 6.4 illustrated that female respondents were in the majority and represented 52.83% of the respondents. This may have far reaching implications on the public TVET sector reward system. It might have like this like this because the public TVET sector was female dominated and the sector had to establish rewards that appealed more to the dominant gender. This may also have meant that female educators in South Africa were more resilient than male educators in the sense that irrespective of the challenges they may have faced like excessive workloads and several policy changes since 1994 they still persevered and remained the majority in the public TVET sector irrespective of the challenges they faced as elaborated above.

In addition, since females represented the majority in this sample (Ref. Table 1.1) it was also important to note that in previous studies it was discovered that close relationships with colleagues were accorded high priority among female educators. Other predictors of job satisfaction among female educators were positive relationships between principals and educators, and learners' results. The above discussed and confirmed factors could be the reasons behind why female educators dominated the public TVET sector (SACE, 2011; Pitsoe, 2013:310; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). The above explanations may be the answer to the question posed by the researcher in the previous paragraph. In other words, the findings also confirmed that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards impacted negatively or positively the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. The above discussed findings effectively answered the first three research questions posed in the study in the affirmative.

7.3.4 Post levels

Figure 6.5 illustrated that educators in Post Level 1 were in the majority and represented 60.38% of the sample. Post Level 1 is an entry level point in the public TVET sector, and this was a level in which most of the respondents belonged. This meant that Post Level 2 and Post Level 3 were promotional levels meaning that many of the educators were stuck in Post Level 1 for many years since Post Levels 2 and 3 represented 35.85% and 3.77% of the respondents respectively. From Figure 6.5 it could be deduced that one of the reasons why public TVET educators lacked job satisfaction was that there was no clear career pathing as there were limited chances of promotion for educators in general inclusive public TVET educators. The Department of Education (2005:96) confirmed that since 2002 the entry levels in the education sector differed based on formal qualifications that individual educators held. Once again, this finding confirmed and answered research questions 1-4 posed in Chapter One in the affirmative.

As a follow up of the above discussed questions, it was apparent that the South African education system made no provision for salary progression for educators in general inclusive public TVET educators. As a result, several educators remained on the same salary level for many years. This contributed to low job satisfaction and morale, and made educators look for alternative job options elsewhere outside the teaching profession. Bennel and Akyeampong (2007:7) also confirmed that educators pay in Low Income Countries (LCIs) was declining in real terms. Educators in most of the LCIs earned less than three US dollars a day. The salary scales for educators in general

inclusive public TVET educators were often very flat and very small salary increments were awarded based on seniority and experience. This had little or no link with the actual job performance of an educator. At the end of the day, from the above discussion the third research question was answered in the affirmative. Educators looked for other opportunities elsewhere even outside the teaching profession if intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges were not attractive and did not satisfy them.

In 2005 the Department of Basic Education confirmed that it introduced several incentives to retain educators in the education system. For example, bonuses were introduced for educators with 10, 15 and 20 years or more of experience. Induction was also introduced to ensure that professional development was in place as a continuous process. The Department of Education introduced a new Post Salary Structure that ensured that educators were free to choose which route they desired to follow in their careers. A clear career path to enable educators to progress either laterally or vertically was now in place in South Africa. This career path had three very clear and distinct career paths; namely office-based career path, school-based career path and college-based career path. However, for many educators there has been no chance of promotion (South Africa: The Department of Education, 2005:96).

The Department of Education in South Africa introduced the Occupation Specific Dispensation (OSD) strategy to curb high educator attrition rates. The OSD strategy was introduced with the idea of improving intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The OSD strategy was also supposed to ensure a fair, equitable and competitive remuneration structure for identified classes of employees. The OSD strategy systematically increased salaries after pre-determined periods on specific criteria such as performance, qualifications, competence, scope of work and experience. The intention of introducing the OSD strategy was also to provide for larger salary bands and substantial overlaps between salary levels. Provision of quality education was expected to be recognised through clear career paths opportunities and additional remuneration in the form of the OSD strategy (ELRC, 2010; Davids, 2010:9). The above discussion shows that the Department of Basic Education was cognisant of the implications of the third research question and its negative consequences if not well addressed and hence the introduction the OSD strategy.

7.3.5 Levels of education

Figure 6.6 illustrated that most of the respondents held degree qualifications and represented 41.51% of the sample with a mean of 1.944. This was followed by

respondents who held diploma qualifications and represented 36.60% of the respondents with a mean of 1.926. Educators who held a Higher National Diploma in Education (HNDE) (Other) represented 3.77% of the sample with a mean of 1.965. Respondents who held a Master degree qualification represented 2.26% of the sample but had the highest mean of 2.495 implying that educators who held the master qualifications were more satisfied with their occupations. It was confirmed in previous studies that low salaries and unmet expectations and lack of educators' job experience and training caused low job satisfaction (Fields, 2013:3). Papier *et al.* (2012:2) also confirmed that inadequate opportunities for career-related development were causes of lack of job satisfaction among educators. It was also confirmed that when public TVET colleges fulfilled public TVET educators monetary and non-monetary expectations which included provision of opportunities for furthering their education, learning and development, educators' affective commitment was increased and reinforced (Cao, Chen and Song, 2013:64). Once again, the above discussed findings confirmed that research questions 1-4 were answered in the affirmative. The answers to the 4 questions posed was "yes." This meant that the objectives of the research were also achieved. Opportunities to improve their education can help in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of educators. This could be the reason why educators in this study who held a Master's degree qualification had the highest mean of 2.495 and appeared to be more satisfied with their jobs as compared to other respondents.

7.4 Processed demographic data

The sample utilised in this study was stratified and purposive. The sample constituted $n = 265$ and was drawn from some population of 1535 public educators in the Western Cape. In the Western Cape there were approximately 1535 public TVET educators in 2013 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). Using the Sample Size Table stratified purposive sampling was used on 1535 public TVET educators in the Western Cape (the population) to derive a stratified purposive sample of 265 public Further Education and Training (Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators for this study. The stratified purposive sample of 265 public TVET educators has a 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of $\pm 5\%$ (The Research Advisors, 2006).

The sample of 265 public TVET educators utilised in this study was expected to be representative of the population to a certain extent. Therefore, the statistical conclusions using the sample of 265 were expected to be valid and representative of the population (Cooper and Schindler, 2014:357). At first responses from the

respondents were very slow but picked up after contact persons in the respective public TVET colleges impassioned the respondents to return the JDI Questionnaires completed. Because of this, there was a response rate of 86% showing that there was enthusiasm among the respondents to be involved in the study as they might have felt it benefited them. The high response rate ensured that the research findings were representative (Quinlan, Babin, Carr, Griffin and Zikmund, 2015:179, 278; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:144).

7.4.1 Contract and permanent employment

In Table 6.10 it was illustrated that permanent contract of employment had a mean of 2.072 and a standard error of 0.035; and in contrast contract employment had a mean of 2.093 and a standard error of 0.041. Please note that in this study contract employment referred to short term employment contract of one-year duration. These findings refuted findings by the European Commission (E.C., 2013) which stated that permanent status and TVET status was preferred by newly qualified educators in Ireland, Greece, France, Spain, Belgium, Finland, Hungary as well as the Netherlands. However, irrespective of the noted contradictions, still the research questions were adequately answered. The participants in this study may have preferred contract employment as it allowed them more room to do whatever they felt like doing or maybe contract employment did not force them to be tied to the job if they found a better job. Alternatively, contract employment may also have offered public TVET educators some opportunities to engage in secondary employment to supplement their incomes. However, irrespective of this, the research questions were answered in the affirmative especially the third research question. It was found out that educators also preferred contract employment as it afforded them room to do whatever they felt like doing. Educators in contract employment felt that they had room to change jobs at the slightest opportunity unlike in a situation where they were permanently employed (E.C., 2013).

In addition, educators also desired to obtain contracts of indefinite duration. Although there were not many differences between the statistics provided above for contract and permanent employment, it appeared as if public TVET educators in the Western Cape preferred Contract employment more than permanent employment. The same results were depicted in Figure 6.5 where it is shown that there were more contract educators than those who were permanent. This could be interpreted to mean that this was what the colleges offered the educators for their own reasons but now it was found convenient by public TVET educators who were on contract as they would not stay bound to the colleges in the event of finding better employment opportunities elsewhere

as discussed in the previous paragraph (E.C., 2013:54). This finding also answered the third research question in the affirmative.

7.4.2 Levels of education

From Table 6.11 it was illustrated that job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape was more driven by intrinsic rewards. This finding also answered research questions 1-4 in the affirmative. For example, the higher their levels of education, the more satisfaction educators appeared to derive from their jobs. A Master's degree had a higher mean of 2.495 and a standard error of 0.054, showing that public TVET educators with this level of education appeared more satisfied with their jobs than the rest. This was followed by public TVET educators who held diploma qualification with a mean of 1.926 and a standard error of 0.043. Other, which represented those educators who held Engineering qualifications, for example, had a mean of 1.965 and with a standard error of 0.040. Finally, degreed public TVET educators had a mean of 1.944 and a standard error of 0.034. From the above discussion it was confirmed that public TVET educators do not seek extrinsic rewards only in the workplace. The design of work, autonomy in how to plan one's tasks, and opportunities to advance in one's career in terms of self-improvement opportunities in attaining higher qualifications were confirmed to be factors that contributed to job satisfaction and morale of employees (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012).

7.4.3 Post levels

Once again research questions 1-4 were answered in the affirmative. As far as Post levels in Table 6.12 were concerned, it appeared that public TVET educators in all Post Levels in the Western Cape had high levels of job satisfaction. However, Post level 1 public TVET educators had higher job satisfaction as compared to the other Post levels. Post Level 1 public TVET educators had a mean of 2.115 and a standard error of 0.023. Post Level 2 had a mean of 2.054 and a standard error of 0.034. Post level 3 had a mean of 2.077 and a standard error of 0.08. This confirmed the findings in Turkey and the USA in which it was discovered that more experienced special educators had less job satisfaction than less experienced educators. These findings corroborated findings by the National Centre for Educational Studies in the USA in 1997 (George *et al.*, 2008). May be in this it would have been prudent to carry-out further investigations to ascertain the reasons why Post Level 1 educators appeared to have higher job satisfaction and morale as compared to more experienced and senior Post Levels 2 and 3 educators.

7.5 Descriptive statistics of the JDI questionnaire

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) measures five key areas that are used to measure the job satisfaction of employees. For example, the JDI measures an employee's satisfaction with remuneration (pay) offered by the employer and promotional opportunities within the organisation at the disposal of the employee. The JDI also measures the extent to which employees are satisfied with supervision received, the type of interactions and support the employee receives from co-workers, and employee satisfaction with the job itself in the sense of how it is designed (Arshad, 2014:94). Once again research questions 1-4 especially the first two questions were comprehensively addressed and in the affirmative when the JDI's measures the different facets of the job mentioned above.

From Table 6.2 and Table 6.3, the Cronbach's alpha for the extrinsic reward scale was 0.790. The Cronbach's alpha of 0.790 was very much acceptable as a measure of internal consistency since it was close to a Cronbach's alpha of 0.80 which is a credible measure of consistency. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.790 could be interpreted to mean that the extrinsic reward scale was a reliable measure of the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in Western Cape Public TVET institutions.

The Cronbach's alpha for the intrinsic reward scale shown in Table 6.4 and Table 6.5 was 0.841. This was a very good measure of internal consistency as it was way above the Cronbach's alpha of 0.80. This could be interpreted to mean that the intrinsic reward scale utilised in this study was a reliable measure of the job satisfaction of public TVET educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions. The two scales discussed above confirmed the argument that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards can be used to remunerate employees in an organisation and can help in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. In other words, the findings confirmed that total rewards or the total rewards model could be applied in the public TVET sector (Bussin, 2014).

In Table 6.6 and Table 6.7 it was illustrated that staff morale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.777 on average. This Cronbach's alpha was way above the acceptable Cronbach's alpha of 0.70. This could be interpreted to mean that staff morale was a good measure of employee job satisfaction. In fact, employee morale as previously discussed, results from employee job satisfaction. It can also be argued that there is no way one can have morale without first having job satisfaction. The job satisfaction that public TVET

educators possessed resulted from intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils.

As illustrated in Table 6.8 and Table 6.9, the Cronbach's alpha for the Job Satisfaction scale was 0.853. This can be interpreted to mean that job satisfaction is a reliable and consistent measure of how well employees, especially public TVET educators in the Western Cape were satisfied with monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by their employer.

From Table 6.13 it was illustrated that work in the present job with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.778 which was above the standard measure of consistency of Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70 showed that work in the present job (intrinsic) rewards appealed more to the inner person. This confirmed that intrinsic rewards were longer lasting and appealing to public TVET educators as compared to extrinsic rewards although extrinsic rewards were equally important in inducing job satisfaction and morale in public TVET educators. From the above discussions, it was confirmed that public TVET educators did not seek extrinsic rewards only in the workplace, they sought other things that could give them job satisfaction and morale. Public TVET College Councils could also use intrinsic rewards also referred to as psychological enjoyment to reward educators. Relational (intrinsic) rewards satisfy higher level of needs such as self-actualisation and personal development. Non-monetary (intrinsic) rewards are derived from factors inherent in the way the job is designed. This means intrinsic rewards are related to the job content and can be used to enhance the job satisfaction of public TVET educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012). Once again, this part of the study showed that research questions 1-4 especially, especially the first three questions were answered in the affirmative.

In addition, present pay had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.637 which was very close to the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70 and could be considered a credible measure of consistency. This meant that present pay could be used as a measure of job satisfaction among public TVET educators. The E.C. (2013:14) confirmed that in England money was the second popular reason for people considering teaching as a luring job among educators in general inclusive TVET educators by 2006 as compared to 2004 when it was placed 4th among rewards that motivated educators. There is also evidence that high salaries and quicker salary advancements facilitated the recruiting of higher quality educators. At the same time educators with higher salaries were found to be less likely to leave the teaching profession. In Europe it was confirmed that attractiveness of

salaries was a plausible and significant factor for attracting and retaining competent educators in general inclusive TVET educators (Berger and Girardet, 2015:108; E.C., 2013:53). Once again research questions 1-4 were fully addressed and in the affirmative.

However, it was confirmed that a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Total rewards) could be utilised in rewarding public TVET educators as previously implied. It was discovered that total rewards (monetary and non-monetary) were more effective in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators than in a situation where intrinsic or extrinsic rewards alone were used. It was also confirmed that total rewards which leveraged elements such as compensation, benefits, work-life, performance, recognition and development was a powerful motivational tool (Moore and Bussin, 2014:4; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63; WorldatWork, 2006). The above findings were testimony to the fact that research questions 1-4 were fully addressed and in the affirmative.

Present opportunities for promotion had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.699 which was the same as the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70 which is assumed to be a credible measure of consistency. It was confirmed that most educators in general left the teaching profession if they perceived that there was no clear career-pathing as well as if there were less chances of promotion. It was also confirmed that since 2002 in England and Greece, the salary entry levels for educators in general inclusive TVET educators differed and were based on formal qualifications alone. Education systems in these countries had less and few provisions in place for educator salary progression. Because of this several educators remained on the same level for many years or it took educators many years to reach the salary ceiling. Poor salaries that were unfair were confirmed as some of the reasons that contributed to low educator job satisfaction and low morale among educators. This motivated educators to seek better paying jobs elsewhere and leave learning institutions just like what happened in South Africa (E.C., 2013:17; Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327; DoE, 2005:96). The above discussed findings also are testimony to the fact that research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed in the affirmative because answers to the questions are given are a resounding "yes!"

Co-workers as a measure or facet of the JDI that influenced the job satisfaction of employees had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.659. This measure can be used as a credible scale to measure job satisfaction as it was close to the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70. It was also confirmed that relationships with other co-workers was a source of job

satisfaction and the implication of the finding is that it should be provided for to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape (Mafini and Pooe, 2013:1). From the discussion above it was shown that all the five facets of the JDI could be used as measures of job satisfaction and this answered research question 1-4 in the affirmative.

Lastly, type of supervision that employees received had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.753 which was way above the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70. Once again, type of supervision can be used as a good measure of job satisfaction. In Greece it was confirmed in a study that educators derived satisfaction from their supervision and the job itself in terms of how it was designed (Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327). Supervision is an important aspect in a work relationship, and this is an answer or finding that clarifies as to how dissatisfaction and reduced morale with one's job could come about and what effect has on employee morale and job satisfaction. This also shows that research questions 1-4 were fully answered and in the affirmative.

In Table 6.15, it was illustrated that the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators were closely related and influenced each other. The two dependent variables have a statistically significant relationship in that the higher the staff morale, the higher the job satisfaction of the public TVET educators and other way round.

In Table 6.16 it was shown that the levels of education of educators (Diploma, Degree, and Other qualifications) in the study were statistically related to job satisfaction at 10 percent level of significance. This meant that the level of education of educators in the public TVET institutions influenced their levels of job satisfaction. This was also illustrated in Figure 6.8 where it was indicated that education levels given (Diploma, degree, Master and Other) have significant relationships with job satisfaction. However, as already implied, people should be cautioned that levels of education possessed by individual public TVET educators have significant relationships with job satisfaction at different degrees and mean values. As indicated before, the Master's degree has a mean value higher than that of all other educational levels in which public TVET educators hold qualifications. Also see Figure 6.7. The argument given in the above discussion may be interpreted to mean that the higher the level of education a public TVET educator holds the more satisfied the educator is with his /her job. Once gain all the above discussed findings illustrated and confirmed that research questions 1-4 were answered or fully addressed and in the affirmative.

In Table 6.17 it was illustrated that the staff morale scale had a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction at 10 percent level of significance. The level of morale of public TVET educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions was thus influenced by the level of education of educators as well as their job satisfaction. It can also be interpreted that the level of education of educators had an influence on staff morale. It can also be interpreted that the higher the job satisfaction of public TVET educators, the higher their morale as previously implied and illustrated in Table 6.18 and Figure 6.9. The above discussed findings reflected and confirmed that research questions 1-4 were adequately answered and in the affirmative especially the second question.

Master level of education still showed that holders of this level of education had higher morale than other holders of other levels of education. It was shown in Table 6.18 and Figure 6.10 that the Master Level of education T-test result was higher as compared to that of the diploma, degree, and Other qualifications. The Standard Error for the Master level of education in this instance was 0.074 as compared to 0.039, 0.038 and 0.057 for the diploma, degree and Other levels of education, respectively. It can be inferred that different levels of education influence staff morale in different ways, but a Master level of education has a stronger influence on staff morale as previously discussed and implied. In this part, the findings also confirm that the research questions were fully addressed and in the affirmative.

In Table 6.16, as well as in Figure 6.7 it was also illustrated that holders of the Masters' level of education were more satisfied with their jobs. The Master level of education had a T-test result of 11.168 and the Contrasts estimates for the Master Level of education were all positive as compared to the other levels of education measured. In addition to the above, the Master level of education has the highest Standard Error of 0.037 as compared to the other levels of education. The Diploma level of education had a Standard Error of 0.028; the Degree level of education had a Standard Error of 0.025; the levels of education had a Standard Error of 0.031. As implied earlier on, this could be interpreted to mean that holders of Master level of education were more satisfied with their jobs as compared to educators who held other levels of education qualifications. Hence the research questions 1-4 were answered. It can however be noted that public TVET institution educators who held Other levels of educational qualifications were second to those who held Master level of education qualification in terms of being satisfied with their jobs. The first and second research questions were fully answered. The answers to both questions would be "yes."

In the same table (Table 6.16), among fixed coefficients such as Age, Gender and Post level, were all indicated as positive coefficients except tenure. Tenure was singled out as having a negative relationship with job satisfaction. May be this could be interpreted as meaning that extended tenure may not necessarily be interpreted to mean that one stayed longer on the job because of job satisfaction. It could be interpreted to mean that there could be other reasons why one stayed longer on the job. May be the employee stayed longer on the job because there were no other attractive options. This finding helped to answer research questions 1-4 in the affirmative especially the third and fourth research questions. It can be argued that if educators were satisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges it was likely that they would extend their tenure with the employer.

From Table 6.5 it was illustrated that public TVET educators in the Western Cape were generally more satisfied with intrinsic rewards (Mean 2.6673; standard error 0.55499). The educators also derived job satisfaction from extrinsic rewards (mean 2.4080; standard error 0.65699). This could be interpreted to mean that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards played a major role in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of employees. The level of morale of public TVET educators which they could have been deriving from the environment they were operating was generally credible (mean 1.4675; standard error 0.41020). Job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape was generally credible (mean 1.9487; standard deviation 0.31827). Once again, the findings showed that research questions 1-4 were fully addressed and in the affirmative. The findings emphasised that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are appealing to educators and must be provided in combination.

Once again, from the interpretations given above, it was confirmed that compensation had different values for each employee. These findings confirmed that money was not everything that employees looked for in their work-life. This was echoed in the previous paragraph above. Workers looked for different aspects of elements that could boost their job satisfaction and morale in their jobs as implied in the above results. These findings could explain why other educators had long or extended tenure with the organisation while others did not stay long in an organisation. This justified the suggestion of the need to use total rewards in compensating public TVET educators. It was also confirmed that compensation played a major role in building employee job satisfaction and employee organisational citizenship. It was also confirmed that compensation gave the employee the impetus to perform. Compensation was argued to have a different value for each employee. Different employees perceived

compensation as being meaningful and acceptable and hence the need to provide for a total reward (Chanza, Snelgar and Louw, 2013; Cao *et al.*, 2013; Moore and Bussin, 2014). Once again in the discussion of the findings given above research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed and answers to them were in the affirmative.

The results in this study indicated that the morale and job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the Western Cape was generally satisfactory (mean 1.4675; standard error 0.41020) and (mean 1.9487; standard error 0.31827) respectively. From previous studies it was confirmed that employee job satisfaction and morale were the primary purpose of offering employee rewards. It can also be argued that when public TVET Colleges fulfilled educators' monetary and non-monetary expectations, educators' job satisfaction and morale was increased or reinforced. Again, the recommendation of using or employing total rewards in compensating public TVET educators was re-emphasized (Cao *et al.*, 2013:64; Moore and Bussin, 2014). Further to the above observations, it was confirmed that reward management was not just about pay and employee benefits. Rewards management should be equally concerned with non-financial rewards such as recognition, learning and development opportunities. Reward management was also about job responsibility (Njanja *et al.*, 2013:41). To make this section more meaningful, the reward satisfaction scale is discussed separately. The above findings also confirmed that research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed and their answers were in the affirmative.

7.5.1 Intrinsic reward scale

In Table 6.19, it was illustrated that job satisfaction had a statistically significant relationship with intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions at 10 percent level of significance. The higher the intrinsic rewards, the higher the job satisfaction of public TVET educators. Also, as shown in Figure 6.10, there was a significant relationship between age and intrinsic reward satisfaction. The higher the age of public TVET educators the lower was their satisfaction with intrinsic rewards. In the same table, Post level was shown to have a statistically inverse relationship with reward satisfaction at 10 percent level of significance. Once gain the above findings testified that research questions 1-4 especially the first three questions were fully answered in the affirmative.

In Table 6.19 and Figure 6.10 it was shown that the level of education held by public TVET educators had a statistically significant relationship with Post level at 10 percent level of significance. Post level1 - Post level 2 had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. Post level 2 - Post level 1 had however a negative significant relationship

with job satisfaction and morale of the educators. This could be attributed to the fact that educators in Post levels 1 and 2 lacked promotional opportunities as well as opportunities to develop their careers. As discussed earlier on research questions 1-4 were answered fully and in the affirmative.

Figure 6.11, Figure 6.12 and Table 6.20 illustrated that Post level 1 – Post level 2 were inversely statistically significantly related to intrinsic rewards. This may be interpreted as meaning that Post levels 1-2 were not much influenced by intrinsic rewards but by other means. The inverse relationship could be explained by the fact that the less intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions the less were educators satisfied with their jobs. May be these educators are rewarded being afforded autonomy to plan their tasks as well as involvement in decision making.

In Figure 6.12 it was also illustrated that the Master's degree level of education was negatively statistically related to Post level at 10 percent level of significance. This relationship could be explained by the fact that Master's degree holders in the public TVET institutions did not find job satisfaction in the Post levels but in the job itself. Holders of Other educational qualifications in contrast had a positive statistically significant relationship with Post level at 10 percent level of significance. Holders of Other educational levels were motivated by job opportunities and movement from one Post level to another in the form of promotional opportunities. This was different from what educators who held Master level of education qualifications and who did not necessarily look for intrinsic and extrinsic rewards but other types of rewards such as self-actualisation, autonomy which were more fulfilling.

7.5.2 Extrinsic reward scale

Table 6.22 illustrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between staff morale and extrinsic rewards at 10 percent level of significance. This meant that extrinsic rewards influenced staff morale of public TVET educators. In addition to the above, Table 6.22 showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the age of public TVET educators and extrinsic rewards at 5 percent level of significance. This meant that extrinsic rewards had an influence on the job satisfaction of educators according to their age categories. This may mean that according to which age category educators belonged they were motivated in different ways. Therefore, in the same Table 6.22 and Table 6.14, it was illustrated that age was negatively influenced by extrinsic rewards at 5 percent level of significance. As implied above, this could also be explained by the fact that older educators did not necessarily look for

extrinsic rewards. Older educators could be looking for more intrinsic rewards or a combination of monetary and non-monetary rewards depending on what they would be looking for in their jobs. The findings explained above showed that research questions 1-4 were once more fully addressed and answers were in the affirmative.

7.6 Inferential statistics

In this section, inferential statistics were used in quantitative data analysis for prediction. Prediction in quantitative data analysis is based on the science of probability. Inferential statistics was therefore used to make judgements of the probability that an observed difference between groups was a dependable difference or a difference that may have happened by chance in the study (Quinlan *et al.*, 2015).

7.6.1 Correlations for independent and dependent variables

In a study conducted by Thirulogasundram and Sahu in 2014 it was confirmed that there was a statistically significant relationship between educator absenteeism and turnover with job satisfaction emanating from monetary and non-monetary rewards offered by the employer. In this study, with a random sample of 200 respondents it was discovered that there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction, absenteeism and staff turnover. Table 6.6 shows summarised results of the seven factors of motivation/job satisfaction looked at in this study. These findings confirm the findings in this study, and this shows that research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed and answers were in the affirmative.

Table 6.23 illustrated that 82% (mean 20) of the respondents believed pay had a significant effect on absenteeism and turnover. In a study by Thirulogasundram and Sahu (2014) 62% (mean 20) of the respondents concurred that promotion could motivate workers to serve the company beyond expectations as they became accrued with responsibilities and increased social status. Eighty-eight per centum (88%) (mean 20) of the respondents positively concurred that if a job was highly motivating, employees were likely to be satisfied with the job content and deliver higher quality work. Results also showed that 78% (mean 20) of the respondents agreed that employee satisfaction was increased if the supervisor was emotionally supportive and allowed for participation in decision making and listened to employee inputs. These findings support and corroborate the findings in this study and answers to research questions 1-4 were in the affirmative.

Working environment refers to aspects such as temperature, lighting, noise and ventilation. To this end 90% (mean 20) of the respondents in Thirulogasundram and Sahu (2014) study agreed that they preferred physical surroundings that were safe, clean, comfortable and with minimum degrees of distraction. With the above in place, job satisfaction was guaranteed. Because of this, absenteeism and staff turnover were at their barest minimum threshold. The results also showed that fairness which was the extent to which employees perceived they were treated was another factor related to job satisfaction. Seventy-two per centum (72%) (Mean 20) of the respondents concurred that fairness was a major key factor that drove away absenteeism and turnover from the organisation (Thirulogasundram and Sahu, 2014; Adegboyega, Dele and Ayodeji, 2015). These findings supported the findings in this study and showed that the research questions 1-4 were well answered in the affirmative.

7.7 Hypothesis testing

Four null hypotheses (H_0 mp; H_0 sp1; H_0 sp2; H_0 sp3) were explained and discussed and tested in previous sections. All the null hypotheses were considered. Indirectly null hypotheses were dealt with together with research questions and objectives. Research questions could also be considered as hypotheses that sought to determine whether groups were the same or not. The null Hypothesis is a statement that maintains that there is no relationship between the conditions under investigation. The null hypothesis is represented by H_0 whereas an alternative hypothesis is represented by H_1 as indicated below (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:128-129).

- NB:** H_1 mp = Alternative hypothesis for main problem
 H_0 mp = Null hypothesis for main problem
 H_1 sp1 = Sub problem 1 Alternative hypothesis
 H_0 sp1 = Null hypothesis for Sub problem 1
 H_1 sp2 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 2
 H_0 sp2 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 2
 H_1 sp3 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 3
 H_0 sp3 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 3

7.7.1 Null hypotheses

As an example, the main problem null hypothesis and alternative hypotheses were considered and discussed in the sections below.

H_0 mp: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction (dependent variable) of educators.

As illustrated in Table 6.24 *rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0 mp) was the result since it was proven that there was a negative or inverse statistically significant relationship between present pay (-0.43992) and public TVET educators' job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significance.*

As previously explained, it should however be noted that any decision made to reject the null hypothesis (H_0 mp) is accompanied by a degree of or a certain risk of being wrong. The level of the risk of being wrong in a decision made in rejecting the null hypothesis is referred to as the significance level of the test. If the test is carried out at the 5% significance level, the researcher is taking a 5% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0 mp) when it is true. Naturally it is preferred that the significance level of a test be very small. A 5% significance level is often used for statistical tests. In this case a statement such as "the difference is statistically significant at the 5% level" means that the null hypothesis (H_0 mp) was rejected at the 5% significance level (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013:195-196).

It should also be noted that the alternative hypothesis is represented by H_1 mp. The alternative hypothesis H_1 mp is a statement that maintains that there are differences between the conditions contrary to as expressed in the null hypothesis (Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013).

7.7.2 Alternative hypothesis

H_1 mp: A relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and reduced or low job satisfaction (dependent variable) of educators.

From Table 6.24 it was evident that there was a statistically significant relationship between work in the present job, and the job satisfaction of public TVET educators at the 0.1 per cent level of significance. This was affirmed by Njanja *et al.* (2013:41) who confirmed that, reward management was not just about pay and employee benefits. Reward management was equally concerned with non-financial rewards such as recognition, learning and development opportunities. Reward management was also about increased job responsibility. Implied in the above discussions were factors such

as good pay, good organisation and atmosphere of an institution of learning (Aguinis, 2013:13; George *et al.*, 2008). The conclusions reached in this hypothesis was evidence that research questions 1-4 were addressed and answers to the research questions were in the affirmative. Non-monetary rewards were important in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of educators in public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape.

Participation in decision making, classroom teaching success, as well as acknowledgement and recognition for work well done, and autonomy were some of the factors that were discovered to increase job satisfaction among most of High school educators in Western Australia (George *et al.*, 2008). To further stress the point that the content of the job is very important, diverse responsibilities given to educators such as degree of autonomy as well as inclusion in tailoring reforms and the margin of innovation given to educators contributed to the teaching profession's attractiveness in Europe (E.C., 2013:17).

From Table 6.24 it was illustrated that there was a significant relationship between present pay and job satisfaction at the 5 per cent level of significance. In Europe, attractiveness of salary was found to be a plausible and significant factor for attracting and retaining competent educators in general (Berger and Girardet, 2015: 108; E.C., 2013:53). There was also evidence that higher salaries and quicker salary advancements facilitated the recruiting of higher quality educators. At the same time educators with higher salaries were found to be less inclined to leave the teaching profession (E.C., 2013:14). In this finding and the ones that follow it could be concluded that research questions 1-4 were fully answered. The research questions were also fully answered by the conclusions reached through hypothesis testing. Research questions 1-4 were answered in the affirmative.

Table 6.24 showed that a statistically significant relationship existed between present opportunities for promotion and job satisfaction at the 0.1 level of significance. This finding was confirmed by Njanja *et al.* (2013:41) who confirmed that reward management was not only about pay and employee benefits. Reward management was equally concerned with non-financial rewards such as recognition and provision of learning and development opportunities. Reward management was also not all about increased job responsibility. In addition, permanent status was preferred by newly qualified educators after several years teaching in Ireland. The young educators also desired obtaining contracts of employment of indefinite duration. In Greece, France and

Spain, as well as in Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands and Poland life time status was preferred by educators. These findings also apply to the South African public TVET sector inclusive the education sector in general (E.C., 2013:54).

As illustrated in Table 6.24 *rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0) was the result since it was proven that there was a negative or inverse statistically significant relationship between present pay (-0.43992) and public TVET educators' job satisfaction at the 0.1 level of significance.*

The relationship between present pay and job satisfaction was weak but there was an inverse relationship. Compensation plays a major role in job satisfaction and in building an employee's organisational citizenship. It also gives the employee the impetus to perform. The negative but significant relationship between present pay and public TVET educators' job satisfaction could be attributed to the fact that compensation has different values for each employee. Different employees may perceive pay as being meaningful and acceptable differently (Snelgar and Louw, 2013). The other argument that could be given is that financial rewards motivate employees since people need money to meet their basic needs. This meant that money could provide valued outcomes to public TVET educators. Money could also be a symbol that indicates the recipient's value to the organisation. Besides this, it has been proven that money can act as a value itself (Chanza *et al.*, 2013:3; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63). Once again, the above findings are evidence that research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed since answers to the research questions were in the affirmative.

Money could also satisfy the need for self-actualisation. However, money could lack intrinsic motivation. This meant that because of its association with valued rewards money often took on the position of a reward. However, money acquires significant motivating power because it symbolises so many tangible goals. Because of this pay is often the dominant factor in the employee's choice of an employer. Money is also an important consideration when one decides to or not to stay in an organisation. Irrespective of the good things that money can influence an employee to do as discussed above; doubts have been cast on the effectiveness of money as a motivator. While lack of money could cause dissatisfaction, money does not result in lasting satisfaction. It is still emphasised that people have different needs. Some people could be much more motivated by money than others. What cannot be assumed is that money motivates everyone in the same way and to the same extent (Moore and Bussin, 2012:5). In this study it was proven that it was true that not all educators were motivated

by extrinsic or monetary rewards. Money played a huge role in the motivation of employees or some employees, but it can only be reinforced by intrinsic rewards. This meant that money could motivate employees to a certain degree and to a higher degree if it is used in combination with non-monetary rewards. The same applies to non-monetary rewards; they must be combined with monetary rewards to be more effective.

To conclude this part, it could be surmised that people worked for money, but they worked even more for meaning in their lives. People may also work to have fun, meaningful work and trust, thus refuting the notion that money is the only or major employee motivator. It could be further argued that organisations that ignored this fact essentially bribed their employees and ultimately paid the price in the form of lack of employee loyalty and commitment. Pay may not be substituted for working environments high on trust, fun and meaningful work (Cao *et al.*, 2013:64; Papier, 2008).

Once again in Table 6.7 it was discovered that there was a weak significant relationship between present opportunities for promotion (-0.48992) and job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significance.

Once again, the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected. The inverse but significant relationship between present opportunities for promotion could be ascribed to the fact that in South Africa educators were worried about no clear career-pathing which left most of the educators with limited chances of promotion. Since 2002 entry levels for educators in South Africa differed and were solely based on formal qualifications. In the past the education system had no provision for educator (inclusive public TVET educators) salary progression until a Post Salary Structure and several incentives including the ODS strategy were introduced. Before the above-mentioned incentives were introduced several educators inclusive public TVET educators remained on the same level for several years. This is one of the factors that contributed to low job satisfaction and demotivated educators in general inclusive public TVET educators to seek opportunities elsewhere as previously discussed (DoE, 2005: 96). In Greece a study revealed that educators in general inclusive TVET educators were satisfied with pay and promotional opportunities alluding to the fact that in a reward strategy an organisation could combine extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for a long-lasting effect (Bussin, 2014; Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327).

From Table 6.26 it was shown that there was a statistically significant relationship between staff morale of public TVET educators with the independent variable (Intrinsic rewards) at the 0.1 level of significance. Morale can be defined as the confidence, enthusiasm and discipline of a person or group at a time. Morale is also confirmed to be a result of the job satisfaction the employees possess. In the United Kingdom morale was confirmed to be a result of student learning and achievement. In addition, in 1999 Scott, Cox and Dinham confirmed that relationships with colleagues and status were important factors that influenced morale and job satisfaction of educators in general inclusive TVET educators. The image of teaching as well as professional development also influenced morale of educators in UK and lay in the domain of intrinsic rewards. These rewards (intrinsic), as alluded to earlier on were centred on learner and educator achievement. In contrast with the above, in a study in Turkey, Turkish special educators showed that more experienced educators had less job satisfaction than less experienced educators. In the study conducted in Turkey, intrinsic rewards were used as determinants of the levels of educator job satisfaction. These findings corroborated the results found by the National Centre for Educational Studies in the USA in a study in 1997. In public institutions of learning in the USA this study revealed that younger less experienced educators had higher levels of morale as compared to older and experienced educators. However, in private institutions of learning relationships were found to be bipolar. This meant that the very young and very old educators had the highest levels of job satisfaction and morale as did the least and most experienced (George *et al.*, 2008).

From Table 6.26 it was illustrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between the independent variable (intrinsic and extrinsic rewards) with the level of education of public TVET educators job satisfaction in the Western Cape at 0.1 level of significance. It was shown that the more public TVET educators were educated to the masters' level the more were they satisfied with their jobs. In a study carried out on educators in Nigeria, it was confirmed that dissatisfaction with their living and academic growth opportunities resulted in low job satisfaction among educators. In other words, low status, lack of promotion, lack of career advancement opportunities and low allowances played a role in academic staff dissatisfaction. In addition, job dissatisfaction was also found to be a result of dissatisfaction with inadequate opportunities for career related skills development (Papier *et al.*, 2012:2; Fields, 2013:3; Bassak, 2014:104-105).

It could be argued that the more educated public TVET educators were the more satisfied they were with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they received. From Table 6.9 it was illustrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between level of education and job satisfaction of public TVET educators who held a degree at master level at the 0.1 level of significance. Public TVET educators who held a Master's degree appeared more satisfied with their jobs as compared to those who held lower qualifications. The statistically significant relationship between education levels of public TVET educators' job satisfaction could be ascribed to the intrinsic rewards offered. The rewards offered satisfied higher-level needs of self-actualisation and personal development. These are intrinsic rewards derived from factors inherent in the way in which work is designed and is often related to job content (Nujjo and Meyer, 2012). Educational levels were also proven to be sources of job satisfaction in Europe where young educators who chose teaching as a career and promised to remain in teaching for several years were awarded scholarships to improve their qualifications (E.C., 2013:14).

From Table 6.27 it was illustrated that a statistically significant relationship existed between the job satisfaction of public TVET educators and the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they received at the 0.1 level of significance. As discussed before, money was confirmed in several studies as an important motivator as it supplied many things from fulfilling basic needs and fulfilling basic needs such as food and shelter (Papier, 2008).

However, there is an argument that intrinsic rewards appeal more to the inner person and has a more long-lasting motivational effect as compared to extrinsic rewards. The problem with money is that once it is finished its motivating effects diminish. The motivating effects of intrinsic rewards such as praise for a job well done are long lasting (Moore and Bussin, 2012:4; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63). However, it is confirmed that compensation has different values for each employee. Different employees may view compensation as having different meanings and acceptability (Chanza, Snelgar and Louw, 2013; Cao *et al.*, 2013:63).

The findings discussed above could be since public TVET colleges were using a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Total rewards) when rewarding public TVET educators. The Total Rewards Model leverages elements such as compensation, benefits, work-life, performance, recognition, development and career opportunities. Therefore, the model is considered more effective, hence the significant relationship between it and the job satisfaction of public TVET educators with intrinsic

and extrinsic rewards at the 0.1 level of significance (WorldatWork, 2006; Bussin, 2014).

As shown in Table 6.27, it was noted that at 0.05 level of significance there was a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and the age of respondents. This is a very interesting observation as it was discovered in previous studies that in South Africa, for example, among educators aged 25 to 34 resignations accounted for 80% of terminations in the education sector in general inclusive the public TVET colleges. The main reasons given for this development were that young educators were giving the education profession a try while waiting for employment opportunities elsewhere. Maybe the statistically significant relationship at 0.05 level of significance referred to older educators who were now just about to retire and would have self-actualised (ETPD SETA, 2009/2010:32; ELRC, 2005:38). In Europe young educators who promised to stay in the education sector were offered scholarships (E.C., 2013:14). This means that with the right intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET Colleges can be able to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of the educators. These findings are evidence that research questions 1-4 for this study were fully addressed and answers to the research questions were in the affirmative.

However, as discussed previously, a study of Turkish special educators showed that more experienced educators had less job satisfaction than less experienced educators. These findings corroborated findings by the National Centre for Educational Studies in the USA in a study in 1997. The study revealed that in public schools young and less experienced educators had higher levels of job satisfaction. However, in private schools this relationship was bipolar. The very youngest and oldest educators had highest levels of job satisfaction as did the least and most experienced educators (George et al., 2008). Once again, the above findings provided answers in the affirmative to research questions 1-4 posed in this study.

7.7.3 Summary of hypotheses for this study

The hypotheses for this study were summarised, described and discussed under this section after being tested. Please also note that the acronyms given denote the null and alternative hypotheses of the main problem, hypotheses of sub-problem 1, hypotheses for sub-problem 2 and hypotheses for sub-problem 3 respectively as previously stated.

- NB: H_1 mp = Alternative hypothesis for main problem
 H_0 mp = Null hypothesis for main problem
 H_1 sp1 = Sub problem 1 Alternative hypothesis
 H_0 sp1 = Null hypothesis for Sub problem 1
 H_1 sp2 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 2
 H_0 sp2 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 2
 H_1 sp3 = Alternative hypothesis for sub problem 3
 H_0 sp3 = Null hypothesis for sub problem 3

7.7.3.1 Hypotheses for the main problem (H_1 mp and H_0 mp)

H_0 mp: No relationship exists between public TVET educators' satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET College Councils and the job satisfaction and morale (dependent variables) of public TVET educators.

This hypothesis (H_0 mp) was rejected since it was proven that there was a significant relationship between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and educators reduced or low job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significant. This meant that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards impacted the job satisfaction of educators negatively or positively depending on what educators were offered by public TVET colleges. If not offered what they perceived as fair, educators moved into job opportunities elsewhere where they felt they would receive fair rewards.

Further to the above finding, the null hypothesis (H_0 mp) was rejected since it was proven that there was a negative significant relationship between present pay (-0.43992) and educators' job satisfaction at 0.1 level of significance. A significant relationship existed between the two variables although it is a very weak or negative relationship. The fact remains that there was a negative relationship between dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET Colleges and educators reduced or low job satisfaction (dependent variable).

7.7.3.2 Hypotheses for sub problem 1 (H_1 sp1 and H_0 sp1)

H_0 sp1: No relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and educators experiencing of low morale (dependent variable).

The null hypothesis (Ho sp1) was rejected since an inverse or negative (-0.48992) relationship did in fact exist between the two variables at 0.1 and 0.05 levels of significance. In essence, a significant relationship existed between the dependent and independent variable under investigation. A significant relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (dependent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators experiencing of low morale (dependent variable). As previously mentioned, it was proven that a significant relationship existed at 0.1 level of significance between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and educators' low, or reduced morale. However, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable was inverse or negative (-0.43992). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected based on reasons given above.

7.7.3.3 Hypotheses for sub problem 2 (H₁ sp2 and Ho sp2)

Ho sp2: No relationship exists between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (dependent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase of early educator exits or turnover (dependent variable).

The null hypothesis (Ho sp2) was rejected as it was evident that indeed a relationship existed between the two variables (independent and dependent). When educators are dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they leave the organisation for better opportunities elsewhere as expressed in the hypothesis H₁ sp2. However, in this study it was discovered that educators in the sample stayed longer and one of the reasons they stayed longer in the college was attributed to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by the public TVET College or they were now old and did not find the prospects of moving into another job elsewhere attractive and motivating.

In addition, the null Ho sp2 was rejected because a significant relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and the attrition rates or educator turnover rates (dependent variable) experienced by the institutions.

The null hypothesis (Ho sp2) was rejected since it was proven that there was a close relationship between tenure and educator turnover rates. If educators were satisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they stayed longer in the organisation, if not they left the TVET College for better employment opportunities elsewhere. However, it

should be noted that educators may have opted to stay longer in a public TVET college for other reasons other than those expressed above (See Figures 6.1 and 6.2).

7.7.3.4 Hypotheses for sub problem 3 (H₁ sp3 and H₀ sp3):

H₀ sp3: No relationship exists between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase in lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable) in the teaching profession.

The above stated null hypothesis (H₀ sp3) was rejected on the basis of the fact that it was proven that a relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase in lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable) in the teaching profession. It was discovered in the study that educators were absent from work because they did not feel motivated to be at work because they felt unfairly remunerated and did not find teaching interesting and well rewarding. In addition, educators were absent from work because of industrial actions and engaged in activities to supplement their meagre incomes as mentioned previously.

7.8 Multiple regression analysis: Regressing demographic variables against job Satisfaction

From Table 6.28 it was illustrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between the age of public TVET educators and extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET College Councils and their job satisfaction at 5 per cent level of significance with a p value of $p < 0.037$. This was discussed and interpreted in the previous sections and several questions were raised. However, if a close look was made of the above findings, a weak relationship existed between age and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges. The research questions were addressed in that the answers from the above discussed findings showed that different rewards appealed differently to different age groups in a staff force. It could be argued that rewards that appealed to young educators may not necessarily have appealed to older and experienced educators to the same degree. Therefore, it was suggested that a public TVET college could come up with a combination of rewards, may be the Total Rewards strategy that could appeal to both old and young educators. The research

questions posed were fully addressed in this instance and answers to the research questions were in the affirmative.

At the same time in Table 6.28, it was illustrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between post levels of public TVET educators and their job satisfaction at 5 per cent level of significance with a p value of $p < 0.044$. Once again research questions 1-4 were shown to have been addressed fully in this case and the answers were in the affirmative. The point brought out here was that although there was a weak relationship between post levels of educators and job satisfaction, the relationship between the variables should not be discounted as it revealed useful information that explained the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. The relationship might have appeared weak but still it had an influence on the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. Once again, the first two research questions posed in this study are fully addressed and answers given to them were in the affirmative.

The level of education that public educators held also had a statistically significant relationship with their job satisfaction at 5 per cent level of significance with a p value of $p < 0.051$. This could be interpreted as meaning that the more senior the position the more fulfilling the position was. Among female South African educators (in the education sector in general, inclusive the public TVET sector) job satisfaction revolved around their rapport with their learners, teaching and job security. However, the results discussed above were at variance with findings in a study which discovered that among educators aged between 25-34 years of age in South Africa, resignations accounted for 80% of terminations. This age group often occupied Post level 1 positions in the public TVET sector (ETPD SETA, 2009/2010:32; ELRC, 2005:38). However, research questions 1-4 were adequately addressed in the affirmative. If satisfied with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges, educators were likely to lengthen their tenure. Resignations and terminations were also likely to be reduced, and young educators were motivated to stay in the teaching profession.

Table 6.29 also showed that there was a strong statistically significant relationship between the numbers of years in a position (Tenure) with the age of a public TVET educator with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of 0.611 at 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed). As previously discussed this was confirmed by ETDP SETA (2008:32), ELRC (2005:38) E.C. (2013:14), who alluded to the fact that young educators tried out teaching while they waited for better opportunities elsewhere. Young educators had to

be enticed into remaining and staying in the teaching profession by being offered scholarships in Europe after promising to stay in the teaching profession for some years. The above discussed finding once again addresses fully research questions 1-4 posed in this study. The findings revealed that age and tenure were closely related and had a lot to do with the job satisfaction of employees in an organisation. When educators were still young they were more adventurous, they still wanted to explore and seek better opportunities elsewhere. It was suggested that public TVET colleges had to come up with the right combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to restrain young educators from seeking greener pastures. However, public TVET colleges were cautioned not forgotten to ensure that they had to come up with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that also appealed to older educators to retain them and also preserve the skills and experiences they possess.

In as far as tenure was concerned, Table 6.28 illustrated that tenure had a very weak but statistically significant relationship with the number of years in a position with post level and level of education respectively 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed). The Pearson correlation (r) for number of years in a position, post level and level of education with tenure were -0.516, -0.478 and -0.230 respectively at 0.1 level of significance. In a study carried out in England, there was evidence that high salaries and quicker salary advancements facilitated recruitment of high-quality educators. At the same time, educators who received higher salaries did not find it attractive to leave their jobs. Educators kept their jobs and did not leave the teaching profession and did not find plausible reasons to leave the profession as the chances for them doing so were very slim. In Ireland, newly qualified educators preferred permanent status as well as obtaining contracts of employment of indefinite periods and tended to stay longer in the teaching profession. In Greece, France, Spain, Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands and Poland, life-time status was preferred (E.C., 2013:14, 54).

The above discussed findings fully addressed research questions 1-4 posed for this study and whose answers were in the affirmative. However, the reader was warned and cautioned not to ignore or underrate the weak relationships among tenure and number of years in a position, post level and level of education. The above-mentioned relationships may have appeared weak but may have had significant influence on the job satisfaction and morale of educators.

Table 6.28 illustrated that the number of years in a position had a positive statistically significant relationship with post level and level of education with Pearson correlations

(r) of 0.305 and 0.291 respectively at 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed). This could mean that the Department of Higher Education and Training through the public TVET College Councils (Which it has since taken over from the Department of Basic Education) was trying its best to improve conditions of service in public TVET institutions. In Finland educators in this sector were granted autonomy and considerable opportunities to influence curricula and course design. In addition, educators had the autonomy to take decisions regarding teaching methodology, learning materials and student assessments (Ministry of Education, 2006:24-25). Once again research questions 1-4 for this study were fully addressed and answers were in the affirmative.

Furthermore, in the study post level had positive statistically significant relationships with age of the respondents, the length of time in years one spent in a position, and level of education one had attained, at 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed). In the findings, research questions 1-4 were fully addressed and answers were in the affirmative.

It has been proven in previous research studies that affective commitment of employees is closely related to occupational outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover, absenteeism, career mobility, job security, employee retention and productivity. Employees who experienced job satisfaction were more motivated and showed commitment to their organisations. In addition, employees who were satisfied with their jobs were unlikely to abandon or leave their jobs especially when they were of an older age and were matured in terms of age (Salie and Schlechter, 2012:3; Nujjo and Meyer, 2013:1, 4; Imam *et al.*, 2013:271-272).

The Pearson correlation coefficients for the above-mentioned variables were 0.341, 0.305 and 0.221 respectively, at 0.1 level of significance (2-tail). Post level had an inverse statistically significant relationship with tenure at 0.1 level of significance (2-tail). The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) of the above-mentioned variable was -0.478.

Finally, Table 6.29 showed that level of education had a statistically significant relationship with age, number of years in a position and post level at 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed). The Pearson correlation coefficients (r) of the above discussed variable as compared to level of education at the 0.1 level of significance (2-tail) were 0.282, 0.291 and 0.221 respectively. In addition to the above, level of education had a

negative but significant relationship with tenure and had a Pearson correlation (r) of -0.230, at 0.1 level of significance (2-tailed) (Muijs, 2004). The findings addressed the research questions in that they provided answers of what public TVET Colleges could do to increase educators stay in a position and making post levels more attractive in order to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of educators. It can be argued that if educators have high job satisfaction and high morale, it follows that turnover and absenteeism is reduced.

7.9 Regression of dependent variable - job satisfaction

From Table 6.30 it was shown that the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards, and job satisfaction was statistically significant at the 0.1 level. Both Pearson correlations calculated were positive and were $r = 0.346$, and $r = 0.271$ respectively (Muijs, 2004:166-167). This confirms that job satisfaction of public TVET educators which resulted in high or low employee morale was dependent on the type of rewards offered by an employer as previously discussed.

However even if total rewards were offered job satisfaction of public TVET educators may have also been due to several other factors that may have induced it. The employer may have provided or may not have provided for these factors as discussed in the previous sections. For example, in Greece a study revealed that educators were satisfied with the job itself and their supervision. In another study in Greece it was confirmed that pay and promotional opportunities as well as autonomy were positively correlated to the job itself. Supervision and the educational organisation itself were also positively related to the job itself. In Lesotho Monyatsi (2012) discovered that in addition to institutional policies and practices, working conditions, supervision and human relations were significant measures that could help to improve job satisfaction which would result in high employee morale (Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327; Monyatsi, 2012:220). Once again, the above discussed findings addressed the research questions in that they provided answers to the research questions. The findings also served as a warning to public TVET Colleges. The colleges should not only consider intrinsic and extrinsic rewards as sufficient enough to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of the educators. Public TVET institutions are urged to pay serious attention to issues such as types of supervision given, educator autonomy to make decisions on how to do their jobs, the job itself, relationships among educators themselves, relationships among educators and principals, and relationship between educators and the learners.

In Western Australia most of secondary school educators inclusive learning institutions that offered technical and vocational training, considered classroom teaching success, acknowledgement and recognition of a job well done by the employee as some important factors associated with job satisfaction. In addition, participation in decision making and the latitude of educator to decide how to perform their jobs (autonomy) were also identified as factors that contributed positively to the job satisfaction of employees. The studies conducted in Western Australia ascertained that intrinsic factors seemed to play a primary role in bringing about job satisfaction amongst employees. In the United Kingdom (UK) job satisfaction was believed to be influenced by students learning and achievements. In 1999 Scott, Cox and Dinham discovered that relationships amongst colleagues (the closeness of the relationships amongst colleagues) was also considered as very important by female South African educators. The status that educators held and enjoyed in the community was also perceived as an important factor that influenced job satisfaction of educators (George *et al.*, 2008; SACE, 2011).

7.10 Summary of extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales

In Table 6.31 the adjusted R square was between 0 and 1. The Adjusted R square of 0.228 was between 0.11–0.3. The Adjusted R value of 0.228 showed the existence of a modest fit between the given model and the gathered data. Data was processed through SPSS Version 23. In other words, the value of 0.228 suggested that the predictors (extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales) were modest at predicting the job satisfaction of public TVET educators. This meant that the results that the study produced can be relied upon as a true reflection of what was happening on the ground. The results were generalizable. This meant that the results had scope of applicability in one organisational setting (the public TVET sector) to other settings like the education sector in general. It is evident that the results of the study have a wider range of applicability in terms of solutions gathered. This makes this study more useful to the intended users and stakeholders (Muijs, 2004:166-167; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

7.11 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Before delving into discussions and interpretations of analysis of variance (ANOVA) there is a need to clarify how it works. The two-way ANOVA enables the researcher to examine the effect of non-metric independent variables on the dependent variable including the interaction effects that exist between the independent variables (or factors). An interaction effect exists when the effect of one independent variable (or one factor) on the dependent variable is measured on a nominal scale and the

dependent variables on the interval or ration scale. In addition, the F-test is the key statistical test for an ANOVA model. The F-test determines whether there is more variability in the scores in one sample than in the scores of another sample. The key question is whether the two samples (but in this case there is one sample) variances are different from each other or whether they are from the same population. The F- test breaks down the variance into a total sample and illustrate why ANOVA is analysis of variance.

Table 6.32 illustrated that the extrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) and the intrinsic reward satisfaction (Scale) statistically significantly predicted job satisfaction of public TVET educators at 0.1 level of significance. The significance level at 0.1 level of significance meant that the probability that random variation alone accounted for the differences in the means of the dependent variables was very small. This made the researcher willing to conclude that the result was statistically significant (Leech *et al.*, 2011:111; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:322; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:546).

7.12 Summary

Emerging and important findings were discussed under this chapter. The data collected using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Questionnaire was statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23. The discussion was hinged on and focused on raw data and processed demographic information about the participants. Results derived from the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction were also discussed. All the above discussed dimensions were compared and confirmed with findings in relevant previous studies or the literature review. In addition, correlations between the different dimensions of job satisfaction, multi-regression analysis, the significant differences between biographical variables and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were also discussed. Hypotheses were tested and discussed based on discussions carried out on inferential statistics gathered from the study. In the process the main problem null hypothesis, sub problem 1 null hypothesis, sub problem 2 null hypothesis and sub problem 3 null hypothesis were all rejected for the reasons given and discussed previously. Chapter Eight which follows Chapter Seven draws conclusions from Chapter Seven and makes recommendations to the audience or readers of this study.

CHAPTER EIGHT CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The main goal of this study was to investigate and determine how educators' dissatisfaction with rewards offered by public TVET institutions impacted their morale and job satisfaction. This study was developed using a quantitative research design. The research questions and hypotheses were outlined, and the sample described as well as the sampling design used. The data collection method using the JDI, and data analysis methods utilised were discussed and explained. Data was processed and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23. The research problems were also further discussed in this section. The aims and objectives of the study were also articulated. Overall and main conclusions of the study were discussed. The limitations of the research were not left out, they were also discussed. Recommendations on how to improve the job satisfaction of public TVET educators and possible further areas of research were suggested. Thereafter a relevant summary to the whole dissertation was provided (Quinlan *et al.*, 2015:380-1).

8.2 Problem of the research

Problem statements of the research were arranged and explained in the given order starting with the main problem statement, Sub problem 1 statement, Sub problem 2 and Sub problem 3 statements.

8.2.1 Main problem

Public TVET educators in the Western Cape experience dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and this resulted in reduced or low job satisfaction of educators since 2002.

8.2.1.1 Explanation of main problem

Public TVET educators in the Western Cape have been experiencing dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. These rewards were paid by public TVET College Councils on behalf of the Department of Higher Education and Training. (The Department of Higher Education and Training has since taken over the role of paying educators salaries). Educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards resulted in educators' low job satisfaction since 2002. One in every four educators in general had a sense of job dissatisfaction towards the teaching profession. In addition, 33.7% of educators had lack of care, interest and concern about teaching. The educators did not also show the zeal and interest that teaching was a profession that

they always desired to belong. In addition, a further 38.2% of the educators had negative morale towards teaching as they felt they were not deriving job satisfaction from the profession (Hall, Altman, Nkomo, Peltier and Zuma, 2005:1; Department of Basic Education, 2005:73).

8.2.2 Sub problem 1

Due to dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions on behalf of the Department of Higher Education and Training 38.7% of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators in the Western Cape have been experiencing reduced or low morale since 2002.

8.2.2.1 Explanation of sub problem 1

Due to dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape thirty eight percent (38.7%) of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators have experienced low morale since 2002. In addition, educators in general are no longer interested in teaching and psychologically withdraw from their work. Because of the above educators have low job satisfaction and morale. Educators do not teach learners to the required levels of learning. Therefore, learners are receiving sub-standard education. This means that educators' dissatisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards affects the quality of learning the learners should receive in a negative way (Davids, 2010:8).

8.2.3 Sub problem 2

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western have contributed to the national 5.6% early educator exists or turnover rate since 2006.

8.2.3.1 Explanation of sub problem 2

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western Cape contributed to the national 5.6% educator turnover rate experienced since 2006. The effect of this problem was that the South African government had to replace about 20 000 educators in general annually in the education sector in all provinces. Please note that since 2002 educators in general have been seconded to public TVET institutions by the Department of Basic Education. (However, note that the DHET has since taken over control and management of public TVET institutions). Educators have left the education sector in general inclusive the public

TVET sector. The government was not training enough educators to replace those who left teaching for one reason or the other (Davids, 2010:8; George *et al.*, 2008).

8.2.4 Sub problem 3

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape, public TVET institutions in the Western Cape have contributed to increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions and any other from) and eventually to an increase of 42% of lost teaching and learning in the teaching profession since 1995.

8.2.4.1 Explanation of sub problem 3

Due to educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards public TVET institutions in the Western Cape contributed to the loss of 42% of national working days in the teaching profession since 1995. The 42% working days lost in teaching resulted from educator absenteeism in its many forms in the 14-year period since 1995 and this was experienced in all provinces in South Africa. For example, because of industrial action activities led by the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) and other trade unions in all the other provinces including the Western Cape, the effective and efficient operation of public TVET institutions and other institutions of learning were disrupted since 1995 (George *et al.*, 2008).

In conclusion, the main problem was that public TVET educators were dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in this study. Because of this public TVET educators experienced lack of job satisfaction which resulted in low morale. Lack of job satisfaction and low morale negatively impact public TVET educators' affective commitment. Public TVET educators ended up leaving the teaching profession and psychologically withdrew from work. Because of this the argument on best intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to offer public TVET educators raged on. To date there has been no solution to this problem. As this debate continues to rage on, the morale of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators is negatively impacted. For example, 33.7% of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators in a sample of 20 626 educators in a study conducted by NAPTOSA (2002) (Please note that educators who taught in public TVET institutions during the period under review were seconded to these institutions by the Department of Basic Education) were found to have an indifferent level of morale towards teaching (Hall *et al.*, 2005:1; George *et al.*, 2008). In addition, 37% of male educators in a 2004 research

conducted by the Department of Basic Education regretted their initial choices of becoming educators (Department of Basic Education, 2005:74).

In addition to the above discussion low job satisfaction of educators is manifested through educator turnover. Educators were leaving the teaching profession for other attractive alternative teaching jobs overseas. Educators in general inclusive public TVET educators were forced from their profession by attractive emigration opportunities in Europe. General dissatisfaction and demotivation with conditions of service also played a prominent role in driving educators out of the teaching profession. Bottlenecks that prevented public TVET educators from benefitting from promotional opportunities and the non-existence of a clear career pathing route also contributed to educator attrition (Department of Basic Education, 2005:7).

Because of high turnover of educators, in a study on educator supply and demand Crouch and Perry (2003:496) identified a huge looming shortage of educators in the teaching profession in South Africa. Crouch and Perry (2003) attributed the huge looming educator shortage to factors such as the impact of HIV/AIDS among others. Other factors identified which contributed to the huge looming educator shortage were rushed administrative processes to control educator training capacity in the 1990s. Lack of interest in the profession among young people was also one of the factors that led to acute educator shortages. Crouch and Perry (2003:496) and Hall *et al.* (2005:1) argued that 20 000 educators in general inclusive public TVET educators had to be replaced annually in South Africa from 2006 due to educator turnover.

8.3 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were classified as shown below into the Main objective, Sub-objective 1, Sub-objective 2 and Sub-objective 3.

8.3.1 Main objective

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in reduced or low job satisfaction of educators.

8.3.2 Sub objective 1

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in 38.7% of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators experiencing low morale since 2002.

8.3.3 Sub objective 2

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape result in an increase of 5.6% early educator in general inclusive public TVET educator early exits or turnover since 2006.

8.3.4 Sub objective 3

To determine whether educator dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape resulted in increased absenteeism (in the form of industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase of 42% lost teaching and learning time since 1995.

8.4 Conclusions

Conclusions to the study were divided into two categories. Firstly, the overall conclusion was given. After that the main conclusions were given.

8.4.1 Overall conclusion

The overall conclusion drawn from the research was that statistical analysis revealed that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards significantly predicted the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the sample. This meant that morale and job satisfaction among public TVET educators in the Western Cape was significantly related to the type of rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) offered by public TVET institutions. In other studies, it was confirmed that beside extrinsic and intrinsic rewards there were other factors an employer could consider in motivating public TVET educators. For example, the job itself especially in terms of how it is designed, and the public TVET educational institution's working environment and atmosphere could be utilised in enhancing an educator's job satisfaction and morale as confirmed by findings from studies undertaken by other researchers (Monyatsi, 2012:220; Gkolia *et al.*, 2014:327).

In addition to the above discussed conclusion, an employer could enhance employee job satisfaction and morale by fulfilling their monetary and non-monetary expectations. Other rewards that could be used to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of educators were for example granting autonomy to public TVET educators in decision making and assigning educators well designed jobs. Improving relationships among stakeholders was also very important in enhancing an educator's morale, job satisfaction and affective commitment. The above discussed were important findings

of this study which were corroborated by several researchers (George *et al.*, 2008; SACE, 2011). As implied in the previous paragraph, the above-mentioned findings were corroborated by (Leech *et al.*, 2011:111; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:322; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:546). ANOVA calculations also showed that the extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales statistically significantly predicted the job satisfaction of public TVET educators in the sample at 0.1 level of significance. The p value of $p < 0.01$ meant that the probability that random variation alone accounted for the differences in means of the dependent variables (levels of staff morale, job satisfaction, turnover and absenteeism) was very small.

After testing the hypotheses, the findings which attested to the impact that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards have on public TVET educator job satisfaction and morale were illustrated. In addition, all the three null hypotheses were rejected, and this showed that indeed dissatisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards had an impact on the morale and job satisfaction of educators in public TVET institutions in the Western Cape.

The null hypothesis of the main problem (H_0 mp) was rejected and this was indicative of the fact that a significant relationship existed between the dissatisfaction of educators with extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards (independent variable) and educators reduced or low job satisfaction (dependent variable). At the same time when this hypothesis (H_0 mp) was tested, the first research question was fully answered and addressed. The main research objective was also achieved. The null hypothesis of the main problem (H_0 mp) was rejected since it was established that there was an inverse (-0.43992) relationship between the dependent and independent variable.

In addition, the null hypothesis (H_0 sp1) for the first sub problem was rejected. A significant relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (dependent variable) offered by public TVET institutions and educators' low morale (dependent variable). The null hypothesis (H_0 sp1) was rejected since it was proven that a significant relationship existed between an educator's dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and an educator's low morale at 0.1 level of significance. However, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable was inverse or negative (-0.43992) but still there was a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable.

The null hypothesis (H_0 sp1) which stated that there was no relationship between an educator's dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable)

offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an educator experiencing of low morale (dependent variable) was rejected. This null hypothesis (H_0 sp1) was rejected because an inverse or negative (-0.48992) relationship existed between the two variables (independent and dependent) at 0.1 and 0.05 levels of significance. In essence, a significant relationship existed between the dependent and independent variable under investigation although it was negative as implied in the previous discussion. However, it should be noted that a relationship between the two variables existed even though it was inverse or negative.

Furthermore, the null hypothesis (H_0 sp2) for the second sub problem was also rejected. The null hypothesis stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction of with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase in educator in general inclusive public TVET educators early exits or turnover (dependent variable). However, it was proved that there was a close relationship between tenure and educator turnover rates. If educators were satisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they stayed longer in the organisation, if not they left the public TVET institutions for better employment opportunities elsewhere.

The null hypothesis (H_0 sp2) for sub problem 2 was rejected as discussed in the previous paragraph. The null hypothesis stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction of with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and an increase in educator in general inclusive public TVET educator early exits or turnover (dependent variable). The null hypothesis (H_0 sp2) was rejected as it was evident that indeed a relationship existed between the two variables. When educators are dissatisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards they left the organisation for better opportunities elsewhere as expressed in the hypothesis H_1 sp2. However, in this study it was discovered that educators who participated in the study stayed longer or extended their tenure for length periods. One of the reasons they stayed longer in the public TVET college sector was attributed to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by the public TVET College (See Figure 6.19).

The null hypothesis (H_0 sp3) for the third sub problem was rejected. The null hypothesis (H_0 sp3) stated that no significant relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form

industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase of 42% in lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable) in the teaching profession since 1995. The null hypothesis (Ho sp3) was rejected because dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards was found to be closely related to several behaviours related to absenteeism for example in the form of psychological withdrawal from work, engagement in activities to supplement income, absence from work and engaging in industrial actions and ultimately loss of learning and teaching time in the teaching profession.

In addition, the null hypothesis (Ho sp3) was rejected as implied in the previous paragraph. The null hypothesis stated that no relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET institutions in the Western Cape and increased absenteeism (in the form industrial actions or any other form of absenteeism) and eventually an increase of 42% in lost teaching and learning time (dependent variable) in the teaching profession in general inclusive the public TVET sector since 1995. The above stated null hypothesis (Ho sp3) was rejected based on a statistically significant relationship that existed between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and absenteeism. A statistically significant relationship existed between educators' dissatisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (independent variable) offered by public TVET colleges and absenteeism (dependent variable) in the form of psychological withdrawal from work, engaging in secondary employment activities to supplement income, absence from work without official leave, industrial actions and as a result learning and teaching time was lost in the teaching profession. It was discovered in the study that educators were usually absent from work because they did not feel motivated to be at work because they did no longer found teaching it interesting. In addition, educators were absent from work because of industrial actions and engaged in secondary employment like hawking activities to supplement their incomes.

To support the above discussed findings, Njanja *et al.* (2013:14), Aguinis (2013:13), George *et al.* (2008), the E.C. (2013:13), Gkolia *et al.* (2014:327), Mafini and Pooe (2013:1) and Berger and Girardet (2015:108) confirmed that rewards were not just about pay and employee benefits. The above cited researchers discovered that reward management was supposed to focus on non-monetary rewards such as recognition, learning and development opportunities as well. Good organisation of learning institutions and the atmosphere of the learning institution was also considered very important in enhancing the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators. In

addition, it was discovered that educator's participation in decision making, classroom teaching successes and independence in curricula development increased the job satisfaction and morale of educators and enhanced educator job satisfaction and morale. This was revealed by processed information which related to questions 1 and 2 of the study which were answered in the affirmative.

Furthermore, factors such as salary, career progression and promotional opportunities were confirmed as contributing to job satisfaction which resulted in morale of public TVET educators. Relationships among co-workers were also confirmed in the study as factors that contributed to job satisfaction. It was also confirmed that in Greece educators derived their job satisfaction from the type of supervision they received from their principals. However, in a study by the European Commission in 2013 it was confirmed that high salaries and quicker salary advancements facilitated attraction and retention of high calibre educators (E.C., 2013:14, 54). This is where it was emphasised in response to research questions 1 and 2 that the findings were emphasizing and recommending to organisations such as public TVET institutions that they should not focus only on intrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Factors such as career progression opportunities, opportunities for promotion, relationships among co-workers, good learning and teaching atmosphere, autonomy to make decisions on how to teach subjects allocated to them, and type of supervision used by management were very important in enhancing the morale and job satisfaction of educators. These important factors were not supposed to be neglected or ignored.

8.4.2 Main conclusions

The main conclusions of this study were listed down and discussed under different subheadings as shown below. The main conclusions served to buttress the overall conclusion described above. In other words, conclusions under this section supported the main conclusion that public TVET colleges needed to come up with a combination of both monetary and non-monetary rewards to enhance the job satisfaction and morale of educators in the public TVET college sector.

8.4.2.1 A combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Total rewards)

Under this sub-heading the key conclusion corroborated the importance of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Total rewards) as a key and combined contribution to job satisfaction which ultimately could result in public TVET educators' morale being enhanced. Implied in the discussions was the fact that a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards could be a better solution to the enhancement of the job satisfaction

of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators as it was revealed in the findings that educators looked for different rewards in their work. It was however revealed that all employees cannot do without monetary rewards as monetary rewards allowed them to meet their basic needs. In that case total rewards are expected to help in meeting public TVET educators' different needs in terms of reward satisfaction (Bussin, 2014; Cao *et al.*, 2013:64). This finding addressed the requirements of all the research questions posed in the study.

8.4.2.2 Prolonged tenure of different ages groups

One of the conclusions from this study was that all age groups represented in this study had prolonged tenure with public TVET colleges. The longer the educators stayed in their jobs the more mature they became or appeared to be. This could have been because the different age groups may have developed affective commitment with their respective public TVET colleges due to their maturity. Satisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic rewards may also not be discounted in contributing to more prolonged tenure educators had with public TVET institutions. For example, the introduction of the Laptop Initiative and the OSD strategy by the department of Basic Education for the benefit of educators in general inclusive public TVET educators could also may have encouraged educators to extend their tenures for longer periods of time. In their studies Salie and Schlechter (2012:3), Imam *et al.* (2013:217-272) and Nujjo and Meyer (2012:4) found that affective commitment was closely related to job satisfaction, morale, absenteeism and employee retention. Educators with job satisfaction were more motivated and committed to their organisations and stayed longer in the organisation.

The above discussed findings however contradicted findings by ETPD-SETA (2008) and ELRC (2005:38). In these studies researchers found that 80% of resignations (turnover) in the South African education sector between 2005 and 2010 were represented by ages of between 25 and 34. The reason given for this development was that there was a higher attrition rate amongst age ranges 25 to 34 of young people who joined the teaching profession as gimmick as they waited for better job opportunities elsewhere. However, the above findings were contradicted by a study in the USA mentioned by George *et al.* (2008) in which it was confirmed that young and less experienced educators were more satisfied in their jobs more than older and more experienced educators. There is need for public TVET colleges to craft a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that can attract and retain young and less experienced educators in the teaching profession.

8.4.2.3 Short term contracts give educators a sense of job insecurity

From the findings in the study, it was also concluded that most of public TVET educators in the public TVET sector and in the study were on short term contracts of employment of one-year duration renewable at the end of each year. Being on contract employment was found to have a mean of 2.093 and standard error of 0.041. Permanent employment was found to have a mean of 2.072 and a standard error of 0.035. This showed that more short-term contracts of employment were offered to public TVET educators. These contracts are renewed on good performance annually as a condition. These short-term contracts of employment created in public TVET educators a sense of job insecurity. This conclusion was echoed in studies carried out by the European Commission in 2013. In these studies, it was discovered that permanent and fulltime status as well as contracts of employment of indefinite duration were more preferred by educators in Greece, France, Spain, Belgium, Finland, Hungary, the Netherlands and Poland. This could also be the case in South Africa as it is no exception.

8.4.2.4 Public TVET colleges are retaining more female educators

Another conclusion that was derived from the study was that public TVET colleges were managing to retain more female than male educators. Female educators were in the majority in numbers or proportions of gender representation of academic staff in public TVET Colleges. This could be translated to mean that the situation was like that because female educators were more resilient than male educators. Irrespective of the several changes to the TVET Act (Referred to as the FET Act at that time) since 1995, which created uncertainties about their future and excessive workloads among many other challenges, females remained steadfast and the majority in this sector. This may imply that public TVET Colleges may have to find out further, through research what made female educators stay longer in the TVET sector as compared to men. However, studies by SACE (2011), ETPD SETA (2009/2010), ELRC (2005:38) and Pitsoe (2013:310) confirmed that female educators' morale and motivation to stay in the education sector was boosted by close relationships with colleagues, principals (supervision) and learners' results among other reasons.

8.4.2.5 Bottlenecks in career pathing and salary advancement opportunities

In this study another conclusion that was drawn was that there were clear career pathing and salary advancement opportunities in the public TVET sector. However, it was not as easy as the career pathing showed that educators would get promoted once it became their turn to do so. It was revealed in the study that it was not easy for the

educators to get promotional opportunities as envisaged. This study found that Post level 1 had a mean of 2.115 and a standard error of 0.023. Post level 2 had a mean of 2.054 and a standard error of 0.034. Post Level 3 had a mean of 2.077 and a standard error 0.080. It was further discovered that there was a statistically significant relationship between Post Levels and job satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance with a p value of $p < 0.044$. Most of public TVET educators represented by 60.38% of the sample were stuck in Post Level 1 which is an entry point level. There was a bottleneck in terms of promotional opportunities and salary advancement in Post Level 1. Post Levels 2 and 3 which represented promotional levels constituted 39.62% of the sample. In studies carried out by the Department of Education (2005:96), Thirulogasundram and Sahu (2014), Adegboyega *et al.* (2015) and the E.C. (2013:54) it was confirmed that the issue of bottlenecks in promotional opportunities and salary advancements in Post Level 1 was one of the causes of low job satisfaction, low morale and high turnover among educators.

8.4.2.6 Other factors influencing educator morale and job satisfaction

It is concluded that the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators in the Western Cape is influenced by other factors besides intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges. These are factors that educators look for in their work other than money as confirmed by Nujjo and Meyer (2012). Statistics derived from this study also served to confirm the conclusions reached. For example, a Master's degree had a mean of 2.495 and a standard error of 0.054. A Degree had a mean of 1.944 and a standard error of 0.034. "Other" which included Engineering qualifications had a mean of 1.965 and a standard error of 0.040. Diplomas had a mean of 1.926, a standard error of 0.043. It can thus be concluded from the findings that the higher the educational qualifications public TVET educators held the higher were their levels of job satisfaction and morale. In this study it was also established that there was a statistically significant relationship between level of education, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and job satisfaction of the sample at 0.1 level of significance, with a p value of $p < 0.051$. This conclusion was corroborated by studies carried out by Fields (2013:3), Papier *et al.* (2012:2), Bassak (2014) and Cao *et al.* (2013:64). These studies confirmed that adequate career-related development opportunities enhanced employee job satisfaction. The Ministry of Education in Finland (2006:24-25) also confirmed that if educators were afforded a free reign to influence curricula development and course design, it enhanced their job satisfaction and morale.

8.4.2.7 Older educators find it less attractive to venture into other jobs

Another key conclusion that was made was that the older the educator the less attractive they found it motivating to venture into other jobs or opportunities elsewhere. In this study it was discovered that there was a statistically significant relationship between numbers of years one was in a position (tenure) with ages of respondents at 0.1 level of significance. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) calculated was 0.611. These findings were confirmed by studies carried out by ETPD SETA (2008:32), ELRC (2008:38) and E.C. (2013:38). These studies confirmed that in South Africa young educators took their chances by trying out teaching while waiting for opportunities elsewhere. In Europe young educators who chose teaching as a profession were offered scholarships after promising to remain in the teaching profession longer. The main challenge that European education sectors faced though was what to do about ageing educators.

8.4.2.8 Rewards offered by public TVET colleges mean different things to TVET

Educators

It was also concluded from the study that rewards offered by public TVET Colleges had different meanings for individual public TVET educators. From this study intrinsic rewards had a mean of 2.6673 and a standard error of 0.55499. Extrinsic rewards had a mean of 2.4080 and a standard error of 0.65699. Morale had a mean of 1.4675 and a standard error of 0.41020. Employee job satisfaction had a mean of 1.9487 and a standard error of 0.3182. This conclusion was echoed in the studies carried out by Chanza *et al.* (2013), Cao *et al.* (2013) and Moore and Bussin (2014). These studies confirmed that money was not everything that employees looked for in their work. People looked for different aspects of job satisfaction in their work as implied before. Due to this, it was therefore incumbent upon respective public TVET colleges to find out what rewards or combination of rewards best satisfied their employees. However, from the statistics given above, a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic (total rewards) was recommended as ideal for remunerating the educators. Public TVET colleges needed to come up with combinations of rewards that addressed individual needs of educators. This would help enhance the job satisfaction and morale of public TVET educators.

Related to the above was that there was confirmation that employment conditions had to be improved to enhance the morale of public TVET educators and educators in general. Around this period public TVET educators were seconded to public TVET

colleges from high schools and primary schools by the Department of Basic Education (Department of Basic Education, 2005:79-81).

The Department of Basic Education confirmed that educators were expected to attend to their students for 1800 hours per year. This translated to 7 hours per day which covered over 257 days. This was commonly reduced or collapsed into 200 days per year. In addition, within these time constraints educators were expected to perform a variety of tasks such as extra-curricular activities beside their teaching load. Extra-curricular activities swallowed up to 80 hours of professional development time per year. Educator excessive workload was also another possible cause of high educator turnover in the education sector. However, educators were considered to have favourable working hours as well as the benefits of long college holidays. Irrespective of the above-mentioned perceived benefits, letters from educators in the newspapers revealed that in addition to their normal teaching and learning duties, educators were expected avail themselves after hours and over weekends for extra-curricular activities. These extra-curricular activities included activities such as sports, parents' evenings, college activities and training sessions for personal development. Educators also took the work that they could not complete at work home. Educators often had to spend extended hours at home on lesson planning, setting of tests and examinations, marking of tests and examinations, and administrative work. This left educators with little or no time to spend with their families and resulted in reduced job satisfaction and morale (Department of Basic Education, 2005:80; Soudien, 2010:58).

From studies conducted by Adedeji and Olaniyani (2011) and the Department of Education (2005), it was confirmed that the causes of increased educator workload were more administrative tasks which resulted from different curricula introduced now and again as in the case of constant changes to the F.E.T Act. Because of location educational institutions, (rural, urban, and semi-urban) the nature of responsibilities of educators differed considerably in terms of historical issues of the learning institution and location concerned. In addition, time spent at educational institutions by educators depended on historical differences of schools. What occupied educators' time most was also influenced by the historical aspects. For example, some educational institutions always expected educators to stay longer within the institution during working hours. Public TVET college sizes and class sizes in terms of overcrowding, shortages of learning materials and resources and increases in administrative tasks for staff were other problems that stressed educators. Gender based differences on what activities and responsibilities educators engaged are still persistent in some colleges. Female

educators are still discriminated against in terms of promotions to senior more positions. Different cohorts of learners spend different amounts of time on specific activities often caused by the nature of the learning curricula taught. As a result, educators find it difficult to meet demands of Outcomes Based Education and Training (OBET) at public TVET colleges. The above-mentioned problems are compounded by acute shortages of teaching and learning resources and infrastructure. The effect of the requirements of the implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) was another cause of concern among the educators. Once again, the above findings in different studies carried out in South Africa confirmed that money was not the only thing public TEVT educators looked for in their work. There are other factors that motivated educators that they looked for in their jobs that have nothing to do with money. If the issues discussed above are not adequately addressed by public TVET colleges the result would be lack of job satisfaction and morale.

8.4.2.9 A model fit between given model and data collected using the Job Descriptive (JDI) questionnaire

In conclusion there was a fit between the given model and the data collected utilising the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). It was confirmed by Muijs (2004:166-7) and Sekaran and Bougie (2016) that the value of the Adjusted R square of 0.228 suggested that the predictors (extrinsic and intrinsic reward satisfaction scales) were modest in predicting the job satisfaction and morale of public Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) educators in the Western Cape.

8.5 Limitations of the research

Several limitations which might have contributed to unexplained variances in this study were identified. These limitations were listed below and their implications for future research were discussed.

8.5.1 Increase of sample size to increase statistical power

The sample size of $n=265$ was suspected to have reduced the statistical power. Implications of this limitation meant that the result of the research must be viewed with caution until additional data was collected and added by increasing the sample size. As the sample (n) was increased statistical power increased. Of all the factors that affected statistical power sample size is the easiest to manipulate. However, it should be noted that researchers ought to pay great attention to planning their studies to ensure adequate statistical power. Statistical power calculations should be determined before data is collected as these calculations are a central aspect of an effective study

design. The increased statistical power, if sufficient could help to support the conclusion that there was a statistically significant relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered to public TVET educators in the Western Cape and their job satisfaction (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:301; Tredoux and Durrheim, 2013).

8.5.2 Restriction of research to the Western Cape

This research was restricted to the Western Cape. Due to this restriction research findings may not be generalised to the whole of South Africa since a stratified purposive sample was used. The population of public TVET educators was supposed to be derived from the 50 TVET colleges in South Africa. The population of public TVET educators was estimated to be approximately 5753 and 6255 in 2008 and 2009 respectively (Department of Basic Education, 2010:27). In addition, the population of public TVET educators in the Western Cape, excluding management was estimated to be approximately 1535 educators (See Table 1.1) (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). Sample statistics such as the sample mean, the sample standard deviation and the variation in the sample were used as estimates of the population parameters. In this case there was a need to ensure that the sample values did not fall outside the population parameters of the South African population of public TVET educators which is suspected to have occurred (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:238).

8.5.3 Lack of triangulation of findings

It is also worthy to note that the use of the JDI alone may not have helped to triangulate the findings. The study could have also utilised the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which is also used for measuring employee job satisfaction and morale. Triangulation is a technique that is associated with using the mixed method approach which might have been the case in this study. However, the idea behind triangulation is to give one more confidence in given research results if the use of different methods leads to the same results. Triangulation requires that research is addressed from multiple angles and therefore the method of triangulation can be used for that purpose. The method of triangulation means using multiple methods of data collection and analysis. This approach may assist in giving the data collected some degree of authenticity and credibility (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:106; Creswell, 2014:201).

8.5.4 Inclusion of variables such as supervision, job content, relationships with principals and learners to determine job satisfaction and morale

This study focused on the impact of rewards (extrinsic and intrinsic) offered by Western Cape public Technical Vocational Education Training Colleges on educators' job

satisfaction and morale. The dependent variables that were included in the model were job satisfaction, morale, turnover and absenteeism. However, it was noted that there were other dependent variables that could have been included in the model as well to find out to what extent they contributed to educators' job satisfaction and morale. These are variables such as supervision, autonomy or latitude to make decisions on how one wants carry-out one's functions as an educator, design job content, relationships with principals and students as well as relationships with other co-workers to mention a few examples (Moore and Bussin, 2014).

8.5.5 Impact of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on public TVET educators

The study could have also ascertained how expatriate public TVET educators were impacted upon by extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape. Future studies could ascertain how many educators were foreign (expatriates) and elicit for data from these educators on the impact of rewards offered by public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape on their job satisfaction and morale and compare this with results from South African educators' perspective on the same topic. If this was done a complete and holistic picture of how rewards impacted on public TVET educators' job satisfaction and morale in general would be established.

8.5.6 Relocation of researcher from Cape Town to Windhoek

The other main challenge faced by the researcher was that he relocated to Windhoek from Cape Town in 2012. Because of this it was difficult for the researcher to coordinate the completion of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) as data was collected. However, this problem was managed using designated contact persons at respective public TVET colleges in Cape Town and ended a big success.

8.5.7 Failure of researcher to secure sponsorship

The other problem encountered was that this study did not manage to attract a sponsor even from the university itself. The researcher had to utilise own meagre financial resources to cover all the costs incurred in the study. These costs included costs of printing documents, editing, travelling to points of data collection and use of the Internet, which were quite high.

8.5.8 Irregular face-to-face consultations with supervisors

Another problem faced by the researcher was that he was now based far away from the university and as such he did not have face-to-face communication with the co-supervisors on a regular basis. The interaction between the student and the

supervisors was through emails, which was a bit impersonal. It could have been much better for the supervisors and the student to have had periodic face-to-face meetings for consultative purposes if he had remained in Cape Town.

8.6 Recommendations

As previously stated in the introduction, a few doable, reasonable and meaningful recommendations in relation to the research carried out were given and stated below.

8.6.1 Utilisation of the Total Rewards Model

It is recommended that the public TVET sector try to utilise reward strategies such as the Total Rewards Model to attract and retain young educators who are currently uninterested in joining the teaching profession. Besides good salaries, scholarships could be used to reward young educators who will have promised to stay in the teaching profession so that that they improve their qualifications. Career-related development opportunities can also be provided for staff to study up to Master and Doctoral levels so that staff can specialise in their different disciplines of specialisation.

8.6.2 Involving female educators in decision making

The public TVET sector could continue motivating female educators who are the majority to remain in teaching. In the Western Cape, in this study it was estimated that 60.52% of public TVET educators were female and 39.48% were male (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015:32). Female educators could be motivated to stay longer in the teaching profession by involving them in decision making and in the design of and curriculum development. Efforts should also be made to encourage male teachers to join and remain in teaching by using incentives such as scholarships in the case of young educators.

8.6.3 Removal of bottlenecks in established career paths and post salary structures

The public TVET sector is encouraged to remove bottlenecks in the established career paths and Post Salary Structures among other strategies. This would ensure that bottlenecks that hinder public TVET educators to progress either laterally or vertically in their careers are removed. There is also a need to emphasize career pathing that can motivate educators to stay in the classroom by providing teaching and learning-related progression opportunities as well as making it possible for all educators to access laptops through the Laptop Initiative at all salary levels from Post Level 1 up to director levels. Now, it is only educators in management levels (Post Levels 2-3) who have access to the laptops in the public TVET sector.

8.6.4 Two-year probationary period for Post Level 1 educators

The public TVET sector is encouraged to introduce a probationary period system of two years duration in which the performance of Post Level 1 educators is monitored and appraised. Using a standard criterion after two years if the performance of probationers meets the set standards they should be declared permanent and as well as being eligible for promotion to Post Level 2. Those who are unsuccessful can be redeployed to other areas in need of other relevant skills they possess.

8.6.5 More research on the effect of turnover of ageing public TVET educators on the public TVET sector needed

More research needs to be conducted on grey areas such as the effect of turnover caused by ageing public TVET educators on the education system in the public TVET sector. In addition, research can also be conducted on the impact of failure to attract and retain young people into joining the teaching profession to guarantee that there is a constant inflow or supply of competent and trained educators in the public TVET sector. Studies could also be carried out to determine to what degree the TVET sector relies on expatriate staff from neighbouring countries and beyond. Further research could also determine the nature of expatriate staff conditions of service. Furthermore, research could also help identify what contingent measures could be put in place to develop own public TVET educators in the event of the expatriates deciding to go back to their countries in future.

8.7 Summary

The objective of this study was to investigate and determine the impact of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered by public TVET Colleges in the Western Cape on the morale of the educators. Using the quantitative research design, it was concluded that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards impacted on the job satisfaction and morale of educators in Western Cape public TVET institutions. That being the case, it was recommended that it was fundamental for public TVET colleges in the Western Cape to conjure the right combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Total Rewards) to enhance educator morale and job satisfaction. The conclusions reached implied that the right combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards had to be struck if the morale and job satisfaction of public TVET College educators was to be improved. It was concluded that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards had an impact on the morale and job satisfaction of educators in the public TVET sector, public TVET institutions just had to craft the right combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to use. It is also important to understand the extent or degree to which extrinsic or intrinsic rewards individually

impacted on the job satisfaction of the educators is dependent on the right combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards being conjured. Hence there is a need to strike a balance between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards offered to public TVET educators if their job satisfaction and morale is to be enhanced.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Directorate: Research



Audrey.wyngaard2@pgwc.gov.za

tel: +27 021 467 9272

Fax: 0865902282

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20120601-0070

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mr. A. Jeremiah

Dear Mr. A. JEREMIAH

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE REWARDS ON STAFF MORALE IN WESTERN CAPE PUBLIC TVET COLLEGES

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Approval for projects should be conveyed to the District Director of the schools where the project will be conducted.
5. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
6. The Study is to be conducted from **16 January 2013 till 31 July 2013**
7. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).

8. A photocopy of this letter should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
9. is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
10. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
11. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
12. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

For: **HEAD: EDUCATION**

DATE: 04 June 2012

APPENDIX B: JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

My name is Andrew Jeremiah, a Doctorate student in Human Resource Management with Cape Peninsula of University of Technology (CPUT). I am conducting a doctoral research on the topic: "Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards utilised in Western Cape Public Technical Vocational Education Training (TVET) colleges as determinants of educators' job satisfaction." Please assist in the finalisation of this research project by completing this questionnaire. The information supplied will be used for research purposes only and your identity remains anonymous.

Instructions:

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that you may have about your present job. There are no right or wrong answers. You are asked to genuinely express how you feel about your present job on five (5) keys areas; namely your Work in present job, Present Pay (Compensation, Remuneration, Rewards), Present Opportunities for promotion, Supervision on present job, and Co-workers. **Your answers will be treated in the strictest confidence.**

PROFILE:

Age:

Tenure: Permanent / Contract

Gender: Male / Female

Number of years in position:

Post Level:

Level of education:

Public TVET College:

- A. Think of the work that you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe work in your present job? In each given statement or phrase, TICK (✓) the words or phrase that closely describes your work in your present job on a sliding scale of 7 sliding to 1. Seven (7) being Very Well and 1 being Not well at all.

Work in present job

		How does this describe my work in my present job?						
		Very Well	Good	Satisfactory	Average	Fair	Poor	Not well at all
		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1.	Fascinating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Routine	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Satisfying	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Boring	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Stretches me	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Respected	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Useful	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Worthwhile	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Overworked	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Challenging	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Frustrating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Simple	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Results seen	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Gives sense of accomplishment	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

B. Think of the pay (compensation, remuneration or rewards) you receive now. How well do the following words or phrases describe your present pay (compensation, remuneration or rewards)? In each given statement or phrase, please TICK (✓) the word or phrase that closely describes your present pay (compensation, remuneration, or rewards) on a sliding scale of 7 sliding to 1. Seven (7) being Very Well and 1 being Not well at all.

Present pay (Compensation, Remuneration or Rewards)

		How this describes your present pay (compensation, remuneration or rewards)?						
		Very well	Good	Satisfactory	Average	Fair	poor	Not Well at all
		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1.	Well paid	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Fair	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Bad	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Not meeting living expenses	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Barely live on income	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Income provides for luxuries	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Less than I deserve	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Highly paid	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Underpaid	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	No incentives	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Insecure	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Just enough to survive on	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Satisfactory	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Can cope with inflation	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

C. Think of opportunities for promotion or to advance in your career that you have at the moment. How well do the following words or phrases describe your present opportunities for promotion? In each given statement or phrase, please TICK (✓) the words or phrases that closely describe your present opportunities for promotion on a sliding scale of 7 sliding to 1. Seven (7) being Very well and 1 being Not well at all.

Present opportunities for promotion

		What are my present opportunities for promotion?						
		Very well	Good	Satis.	Average	Fair	Poor	Not at all
	Rating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1.	More chances for promotion	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
2.	Promotion on merit	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
3.	Infrequent promotions	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
4.	Opportunities are limited	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
5.	Dead – end job	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
6.	Unfair promotion policy	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
7.	No clear policy on promotion	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
8.	Regular promotions available	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
9.	Provides career development opportunities	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
10.	No chance of promotion	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
11.	Promotion is meaningless	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
12.	No hope of promotion	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
13.	A pipe dream	7	6	5	4	3	2	2
14.	Not something to think about	7	6	5	4	3	2	2

D. Think of the type of supervision you are receiving now. How well do the following words or phrases describe how you are being supervised? In each given statement or phrase, TICK (✓) the words or phrases that closely describe the type of supervision that you are receiving on your present job, on a sliding scale of 7 sliding to 1. Seven (7) being Very well and 1 being Not well at all.

Supervision on present job

		What type supervision do I receive on my present job?						
		Very well	Good	Satisfactory	Average	Fair	Poor	Not at all
		7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1.	Asks for my opinions	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Encourages teamwork	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Encourages participation	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Praises good work	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Does not delegate	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Motivating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Open and frank	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Annoying	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Gives close supervision	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Knows the job well	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Exercises favouritism	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Around when needed	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Good role model	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Gives autonomy to decide	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

E. Think of co-workers that you work with now. How well do the following words or phrases describe how you interact and treat each other as co-workers? In each given statement or phrase, Please TICK (✓) the words or phrases that closely describe your relationship with your co-workers on a sliding scale of 7 sliding to 1. Seven (7) being Very Well and 1 being Not well at all.

Co-workers

		Whom we interact with and relate to.						
		Very well	Good	Satisfactory	Average	Fairly well	Poor	Not well at all
	Rating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1.	Stimulating	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Diversified	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Disciplined	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Ambitious	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Supportive	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Responsible	7	6	5	4		2	1
7.	United	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Lazy	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Jealous	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Gossips a lot	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Friendly	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12.	Initiative/ Creative	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Does not question authority	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14.	Easy to make friends	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT

APPENDIX C: SAMPLE SIZE TABLE

From [The Research Advisors](#)

There are various formulas for calculating the required sample size based upon whether the data collected is to be of a categorical or quantitative nature (e.g. is to estimate a proportion or a mean). These formulas require knowledge of the variance or proportion in the population and a determination as to the maximum desirable error, as well as the acceptable Type I error risk (e.g., confidence level).

But why bother with these formulas?

It is possible to use one of them to construct a table that suggests the optimal sample size – given a population size, a specific margin of error, and a desired confidence interval. This can help researchers avoid the formulas altogether. The table below presents the results of one set of these calculations. It may be used to determine the appropriate sample size for almost any study.

Many researchers (and research texts) suggest that the first column within the table should suffice (Confidence Level = 95%, Margin of Error = 5%). To use these values, simply determine the size of the population down the left most column (use the next highest value if your exact population size is not listed). The value in the next column is the sample size that is required to generate a Margin of Error of $\pm 5\%$ for any population proportion.

However, a 10% interval may be considered unreasonably large. Should more precision be required (i.e., a smaller, more useful Margin of Error) or greater confidence desired (0.01), the other columns of the table should be employed.

Thus, if you have 5000 customers and you want to sample a sufficient number to generate a 95% confidence interval that predicted the proportion who would be repeat customers within plus or minus 2.5%, you would need responses from a (random) sample of 1176 of all your customers.

As you can see, using the table is much simpler than employing a formula.

Required Sample Size[†]

Population Size	Confidence = 95%				Confidence = 99%			
	Margin of Error				Margin of Error			
	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	19	20	20	20	19	20	20	20
30	28	29	29	30	29	29	30	30
50	44	47	48	50	47	48	49	50
75	63	69	72	74	67	71	73	75
100	80	89	94	99	87	93	96	99
150	108	126	137	148	122	135	142	149
200	132	160	177	196	154	174	186	198
250	152	190	215	244	182	211	229	246
300	169	217	251	291	207	246	270	295
400	196	265	318	384	250	309	348	391
500	217	306	377	475	285	365	421	485
600	234	340	432	565	315	416	490	579
700	248	370	481	653	341	462	554	672
800	260	396	526	739	363	503	615	763
1,000	278	440	606	906	399	575	727	943
1,200	291	474	674	1067	427	636	827	1119
1,500	306	515	759	1297	460	712	959	1376
2,000	322	563	869	1655	498	808	1141	1785
2,500	333	597	952	1984	524	879	1288	2173
3,500	346	641	1068	2565	558	977	1510	2890
5,000	357	678	1176	3288	586	1066	1734	3842
7,500	365	710	1275	4211	610	1147	1960	5165
10,000	370	727	1332	4899	622	1193	2098	6239
25,000	378	760	1448	6939	646	1285	2399	9972
50,000	381	772	1491	8056	655	1318	2520	12455
75,000	382	776	1506	8514	658	1330	2563	13583
100,000	383	778	1513	8762	659	1336	2585	14227
250,000	384	782	1527	9248	662	1347	2626	15555
500,000	384	783	1532	9423	663	1350	2640	16055
1,000,000	384	783	1534	9512	663	1352	2647	16317
2,500,000	384	784	1536	9567	663	1353	2651	16478
10,000,000	384	784	1536	9594	663	1354	2653	16560
100,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16584
300,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16586

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Professional researchers typically set a sample size level of about 500 to optimally estimate a single population parameter (e.g., the proportion of likely voters who will vote for a particular candidate). This will construct a 95% confidence interval with a Margin of Error of about $\pm 4.4\%$ (for large populations).

Since there is an inverse relationship between sample size and the Margin of Error, smaller sample sizes will yield larger Margins of Error. For example, a sample size of only 100 will construct a 95% confidence interval with a Margin of Error of almost $\pm 13\%$, too large a range for estimating the true population proportion with any accuracy.

Note that all of the sample estimates discussed present figures for the largest possible sample size for the desired level of confidence. Should the proportion of the sample with the desired characteristic be substantially different than 50%, then the desired level of accuracy can be established with a smaller sample. However, since you can't know what this percentage is until you actually ask a sample, it is wisest to assume that it will be 50% and use the listed larger sample size.

The number of sub-groups (or "comparison" groups) is another consideration in the determination of a sufficient sample size. Since the parameter must be measured for each sub-group, the size of the sample for each sub-group must be sufficiently large to permit a reasonable (sufficiently narrow) estimation.

Treat each sub-group as a population and then use the table to determine the recommended sample size for each sub-group. Then use a stratified random sampling technique within each sub-group to select the specific individuals to be included.

If you would like to calculate sample sizes for different population sizes, confidence levels, or margins of error, download the Sample Size spread sheet and change the input values to those desired.

If you would like to calculate sample sizes for different population sizes, confidence levels, or margins of error, download the Sample Size spreadsheet and change the input values to those desired.

The formula used for these calculations was:

$$n = \frac{X^2 * N * P * (1-P)}{(ME^2 * (N-1)) + (X^2 * P * (1-P))}$$

Where :

n = sample size

X² = Chi – square for the specified confidence level at 1 degree of freedom

N = Population Size

P = population proportion (.50 in this table)

ME = desired Margin of Error (expressed as a proportion)

This formula is the one used by Krejcie & Morgan in their 1970 article “Determining Sample Size for Research Activities” (*Educational and Psychological Measurement*, #30, pp. 607-610).

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APPENDIX D: KREJCIE AND MORGAN SAMPLE SIZE TABLE

The ever-increasing need for a representative statistical sample in empirical research has created the demand for an effective method of determining sample size. Determination of sample size differs depending on the research design. For instance, survey research design requires huge sample size for representation; in census, everyone in the target population is selected to participate in the study, hence the sample size is equal to the size of the target population; in experimental research design, with treatment and control groups, the sample size may differ in each group.

There are different ways of determining a sample size. For this guide, sample size determination formula for infinite population ('unknown') and finite population ('known') are briefly discussed.

Sample Size Formula for Infinite Population

The following sample size formula for infinite population (more than 50,000) is used to arrive at a representative number of respondents when population estimate is known (Godden, 2004):

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \times p(1-p)}{M^2}$$

Where:

n = Sample Size for infinite population

Z = Z value (e.g. 1.96 for 95% confidence level)

p = population proportion (expressed as decimal) (assumed to be 0.5 (50%))

M = Margin of Error at 5% (0.05)

Example

The following worked out example uses a population proportion (P) of 30% (0.3) to determine a sample size (n) of an infinite population.

Note

You can use a population proportion based on established statistics of the population you are targeting. For instance, you may target 30% (0.3) of a population in particular

location of your study (as in the worked-out example). You may also opt to use the standard population proportion of 50% (0.5) which is the maximum sample size one can select from a population.

Sample Size Formula for Finite Population

If the target population is finite, the following formula (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) may be used to determine the sample size.

$$S = \frac{X^2NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-P)}$$

Where:

S = Required Sample size

X = Z value (e.g. 1.96 for 95% confidence level)

N = Population Size

P = Population proportion (expressed as decimal) (assumed to be 0.5 (50%))

d = Degree of accuracy (5%), expressed as a proportion (.05); It is margin of error.

Table for determining sample size for finite population

To simplify the process of determining the sample size for a finite population, Krejcie & Morgan (1970), came up with a table using sample size formula for finite population.

Table 3.1									
<i>Table for Determining Sample Size of a Known Population</i>									
N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	1000000	384
<i>Note: N is Population Size; S is Sample Size</i>					<i>Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970</i>				

Note:

There is no need of using sample size determination formula for 'known' population since the table has all the provisions one requires to arrive at the required sample size. For a population which is equal to or greater than 1,000,000, the required sample size is 384.

APPENDIX E: LIST OF PUBLIC TEVT INSTITUTIONS INCLUDED IN THE INVESTIGATION

1. West Coast TVET
2. College of Cape Town TVET
3. False Bay College TVET
4. Boland TVET
5. Northlink TVET
6. South Cape TVET