

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**THE ROLE OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN TEACHERS'  
LEADERSHIP FOR LEARNING WITHIN ABOABO  
EDUCATIONAL CIRCUIT**



**COLLINS TETTEH ABENI**

**2016**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**THE ROLE OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN TEACHERS'  
LEADERSHIP FOR LEARNING WITHIN ABOABO  
EDUCATIONAL CIRCUIT**



**A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education  
and Communication Science, Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies,  
University of Education, Winneba in partial fulfilment of the requirements for  
award of Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership) Degree.**

**JUNE, 2016**

## DECLARATION

### STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Collins Tetteh Abeni declare that this dissertation, with the exception of the quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE: .....

### SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

**NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM**

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE: .....

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Glory, honour and praise be to the Almighty God for granting me the breath, grace and strength to at last, successfully sail through this programme, Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership).

It is also worth stating that, I am deeply indebted to my supervisor, Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam of the Department of Educational Leadership, University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi for the encouragement and the tireless effort he made in reading and making fruitful suggestions on the manuscript despite his heavy schedule. Again, I am grateful to Prof. Martin Amoah, Dr. Stephen Baafi-Frimpong, Mrs. Martha Danso, all of the University of Winneba- Kumasi for the various roles they played for the success of this work.

In addition, I wish to express my gratitude to colleagues, Gethsemane Prayer Tower, Mr. Jude Cobbina, family and friends, especially Felicia Adoma Gyasi; some programme mates like Benedict Acheampong, Efua Amoah, Mrs. Pearl Anane Busia, just to mention a few, would have to be recognised for allowing themselves to be accordingly used to bless me in this manner.

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Abeni and my sister,  
Evelyn Abeni.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
GLOSSARY	xii
ABSTRACT	xiii
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	4
Purpose of the Study	5
Objectives of the Study	5
Hypotheses	6
Assumptions	6
Significance of the Study	6
Delimitations	7
Limitations	8
Organisation of the Study	8



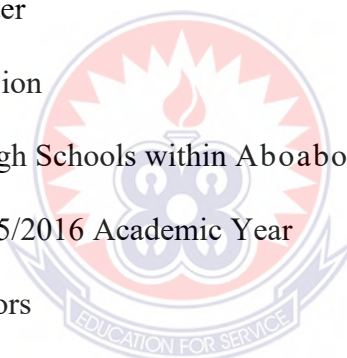
<b>CHAPTER TWO</b>	10
<b>REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</b>	10
Introduction to the Chapter	10
Leadership for Learning Defined	11
Teachers as Leaders for Learning	12
Leadership for Learning: Level of Teachers' Performance	13
Leadership and Leadership for Learning: Performance	14
Transformational Leadership vis-a-vis Learning: Follower Development and Performance	16
Effects of Motivation on Leadership for Learning: Pupils' Overall Academic Achievement	18
Leadership Forms/Types and Leadership for Learning	22
Motivation, Leadership Style and Leadership for Learning: Teachers' Way of Leading Pupils to Learn	23
Concept of Motivation	30
Types of Motivation	33
Intrinsic Motivation	33
Extrinsic Motivation	36
Bridging Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation	38
The Essence of Intrinsic Motivation	39
Teachers' Motivation in Ghana	42
Teachers' Attitude towards Teachers' Motivation	43
Factors Influencing Teacher Motivation in Ghana	45
Motivational Theories	49
Maslow's hierarchy of need theory	50

Explanation of terms	50
Herzberg's two – factor theory	51
Expectancy theory	53
ERG theory	54
Equity Theory (Inequity Theory)	57
Ways of restoring equity	58
McGregor's theory X and Y	59
Goal-Setting theory	60
Reinforcement Theory	60
Leadership	62
Transactional Leadership	63
Charismatic Leadership	65
Transformational Leadership	65
Association of Transactional and Transformational Leadership	66
Leadership Styles	71
Situational Leadership	73
Learning	74
Humanism	75
<b>CHAPTER THREE</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>77</b>
Introduction	77
Philosophical Claim	77
Research Design	79
Population	81



Sample and Sampling Technique	81
Instrumentation	83
Pilot-testing	85
Data Collection Procedure	86
Data Analysis	87
<b>CHAPTER FOUR</b>	<b>89</b>
<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b>	<b>89</b>
Introduction	89
Relationship between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning	90
Hypothesis 1: The more teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit are motivated intrinsically, the higher Leadership for Learning is.	90
Relationship between Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning	93
Hypothesis 2: Among teachers within the Aboabo Educational Circuit, there is no positive significant correlation between extrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning	93
Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation as against Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation	96
Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between Aboabo Educational Circuit teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in terms of Leadership for Learning.	96

<b>CHAPTER FIVE</b>	98
<b>SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	98
Summary	98
Conclusion	99
Recommendations for Practice	99
Recommendation for Future Research	100
<b>REFERENCES</b>	101
<b>APPENDICES</b>	120
A). Research Questionnaire	120
B). Introductory Letter	128
C). Letter of Permission	129
D). List of Junior High Schools within Aboabo Educational Circuit as at 2015/2016 Academic Year	130
E) Construct Indicators	131



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Transformational Leadership Styles and Behaviours	69
Table 3.1: Initial Sample size and sampling technique	83
Table 3.2: Final Sample size and sampling technique	83
Table 4.1: Spearman's rho Correlations Matrix of Intrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning	90
Table 4.2: Spearman's rho Correlations Matrix of Extrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning	93
Table 4.3: Wilcoxon Sign- Rank Test describing Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation	96
Table 4.4: Wilcoxon Sign- Rank Test on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation	96



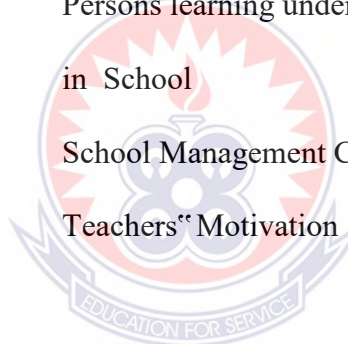
## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: Satisfaction versus Dissatisfaction	52
Figure 2.2: Equity Theory of Motivation	59



## GLOSSARY

AEC	:	Aboabo Educational Circuit
B. E. C. E.	:	Basic Education Certificate Examination
CS	:	Circuit Supervisor
EM	:	Extrinsic Motivation
ETM	:	Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation
IM	:	Intrinsic Motivation
ITM	:	Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation
LfL	:	Leadership for Learning
PTA	:	Parents, Teachers Association
Pupils (Students)	:	Persons learning under the close supervision of a teacher in School
SMC	:	School Management Committee
TM	:	Teachers' Motivation



## ABSTRACT

The study sought to ascertain the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in teachers' Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. The researcher sought to: find out whether a significant relationship existed between teachers' intrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit, establish whether correlation between teachers' extrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is significant, and determine whether a significant difference existed between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit in terms of Leadership for Learning. The researcher used correlational design for the study. The instrument was pre-tested and reliability was acceptable at .863 alpha value. The researcher used Spearman's rho correlation and Wilcoxon Sign-Ranks test as analytical tools to analyse data gathered from 27 teachers through the use of a questionnaire. It was found that there is no significant relationship between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning. Similarly, it was found that Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation has no significant correlation with Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. The study established a significant difference between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation within Aboabo Educational Circuit. It is recommended that officers within Aboabo Educational Circuit should provide teaching resources such as Teachers' Guide, Lesson Note Books and whiteboard markers to make classroom teaching interesting and attractive. Moreover, School Management Committees within Aboabo Educational Circuit should assist in the provision of accommodation for teachers. Moreover, education officers should begin to have periodic interaction with teachers to give them feedback on their performance.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### **Background to the Study**

The growth of every economy is reliant on human resource development, and education plays a vital role in this regard. According to Teferra and Greijn (2010), education is the fundamental drive of a knowledge economy. It is the greatest investment that a nation can make for quick development of its economic, political, sociological and human resources (Ekundayo, 2010). The reason is that lack of it, especially appropriate education, partly accounts for the conflicts, distraction and confusion in many parts of the world (Teferra & Greijn, 2010). Learners at all levels of education, primary, Junior High School (JHS), Senior High School (SHS), Tertiary, constituting the human resource base of the country therefore need quality training which truly ought to be spearheaded by teachers.

In the view of UNESCO (2006), teachers are the most important factor in determining the quality of education that learners receive. In other words, the teacher is seen as the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement. Subsequently, the inability of teachers to function both as instructors and real leaders to give out their superlative service will amount to waste of time and national resources. This idea is truly in conformity with the thoughts of some other researchers (Adentwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010; Koomson, 1998).

Ukeje (1976) explained that, “ indeed the quality of the school and that of the teaching personnel so permeate each other that a vicious circle is created in analysis of their inter-relationships for we cannot have good schools unless we have good teachers” (p. 309). Similarly, Koomson (1998) argued that one of the major constraints that account for the seemingly low standard of education in developing

countries is inadequacy of quantity and quality qualified teachers. “As the axiom goes „The blind cannot lead the blind“, thus, good teachers would, other things being equal, help provide good quality education” (Adentwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010, p. 44). Meanwhile, Voluntary Service Organisation (VSO) also maintained that Teachers’ Motivation is fragile and is on its last legs though teachers’ performance in contributing to learning is strongly influenced by Teachers’ Motivation (VSO, 2002). It is worth mentioning that Teacher Motivation encompasses Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation.

The issue of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation is central because of its correlation with the quality of education (Javaid, 2009). Quality of education includes teachers’ success in influencing pupils to learn, thus, Leadership for Learning. Leadership for Learning involves teachers engaging themselves in various leadership roles such as making use of resource persons from the community and other schools and promoting initiative by allowing pupils to experiment. However, government, being the largest stakeholder of education in Ghana seems not to be doing much to solve the problem of quality education by sustaining and or improving Leadership for Learning which is primarily focusing on the teacher related factors (Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teachers’ Motivation) of education. No wonder a survey by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) in conjunction with Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) to determine teacher attrition rate showed that out of 190000 teachers on the field, 10,000 leave annually (Adentwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010).

Previous studies investigating why Ghanaian teachers leave the profession cited inadequate salary, low prestige for teachers and lack of opportunities for promotion as the major factors (Bame, 1991; Godwyll & Ablenyie, 1996). In addition,



more recent studies have found poor or non-implementation of conditions of service and deplorable socio-economic conditions in rural areas where most teachers work (Cobbold, 2007). Bennel (2004) also remarked that teachers' pay and other material benefits were too low for individual and household survival needs to be met in developing countries, such as Ghana. This finding of Bennel (2004) also support the Education For All (EFA) report of 2005, which revealed that teachers in developing countries such as Ghana often receive earnings that are insufficient at providing them with a reasonable standard of living. The situation at Aboabo Educational Circuit seems to be a direct reflection of the account given by Bame (1991); Godwyll and Ablenyie, (1996); Bennel (2004) and Cobbold (2007). The government of Ghana and other stakeholders of Aboabo Educational Circuit, to a larger extent, have a responsibility to ensuring that teachers are motivated to lead learning to the best of their abilities.

Motivation, according to Futrell (1998), is the "arousal, intensity, direction, and persistence of efforts directed towards job tasks over a period of time" (p. 461). It is that which induces a person to act in a certain way (Afful-Broni, 2004). It is the driving force behind every activity (Turkson, 2007). Therefore, Teachers' Motivation refers to all that is done by interest groups to make teachers happy, satisfied, dedicated and committed in such a way that they bring out their best at their places of work so that parents, students and the society will greatly benefit from their services. Motivation can also be defined as the propelling force behind the activation or energisation of goal-oriented behaviours. In this context, the goal of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit is to be producing pupils with a high sense of Leadership for Learning, therefore, making the issue of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation a vital subject to be investigated.

## **Statement of the Problem**

Teachers play a significant role in pupil's life even beyond academic success by way of being influential regarding character, values and moral moulding. This is especially so when the teacher is enthusiastic or motivated about the job that he does or is doing, even as a leader or instructor. It is to this effect that according to Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (2003), improving the quality of primary education in Ghana is crucial to the nation's quest for improved living conditions, increased economic development and hope for a better future was made.

Within Aboabo Educational Circuit, there has been deteriorating standards of professional conduct, including serious misbehaviour (in and outside of work), poor preparation of teaching materials especially lesson notes, lack of continuous pupil assessment and general poor professional performance. Teacher absenteeism is unacceptably high and rising, time on task is low and falling, and teaching practices are characterised by limited effort (Adansi North Education Office, 2015). These situations within the circuit seem to indicate that teachers are not intrinsically and extrinsically motivated.

Educational officers within the circuit seem to be overwhelmed with this development and they are therefore challenged with the exact ways to put the situation under control. Akanbi (2012) investigated the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on employees' performance. Results indicated that there existed a relationship between extrinsic motivation and the performance of employees, while no relationship existed between intrinsic motivation and employee's performance, a contradiction of the findings of Dornyei (2001), and Akuoko, Dwumah And Wahab (2012). Several studies have found that teachers believe financial rewards have a positive impact on motivation, which translates into effective performance as in

Leadership for Learning (Bennell, 2004; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Tachie, Tenkorang & Ghartey, 2012; Adjei & Musah 2013).

Considering these contradictions, it is necessary to conduct an investigation such as this. That is why the topic, “The Role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in Teachers’ Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit” was chosen for study.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The general purpose of the study was to ascertain the role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in Teachers’ Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit in order for suggestions to be made to boost Teachers’ Motivation and Leadership for Learning as well.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The study specifically sought to:

1. find out whether a relationship exists between teachers’ intrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is significant.
2. establish whether correlation between teachers’ extrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is significant.
3. determine whether significant difference exist between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit in terms of Leadership for Learning.

## **Research Hypotheses**

In order to achieve the set objectives of this study, the study intends to test the following hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub> 1: there is no significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit.

H<sub>0</sub> 2: there is no significant correlation between extrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit.

H<sub>0</sub> 3: there is no significant difference between teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in terms of Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit.

## **Assumptions**

The assumptions of the study are the following:

1. that teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit are motivated intrinsically and extrinsically.
2. that teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit are homogeneous with reference to personal, academic and geographical characteristics.
3. that Leadership for Learning is measured by the rate at which pupils pass Basic Education Certificate Examination.

## **Significance of the Study**

First and foremost, the researcher believes the completed dissertation is serving the purpose of being a source of reference to the academic community. By and large, the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study will be a body of literature relating to the role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation in Leadership for

Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit which could be used as the basis for similar studies to be conducted in the future.

Again, the study throws light on the intensity of the existing association between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation, Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning. It is also bringing to light the differences, if any, between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation in terms of Leadership for Learning. This will allow Circuit Supervisors and headmasters of various schools, as well as other stakeholders, such as, SMCs, PTAs, and chiefs within Aboabo Educational Circuit to formulate of desirable policies (strategies) that would help improve the role of Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation in Leadership for Learning in each institution. Moreover, the completed research report has filled the void in existing current knowledge since no such a study has been conducted within Aboabo Educational Circuit before. Subsequently, it has helped practitioners like circuit supervisors and headmasters to uplift their way of dealing with teachers as this report provided them with first-hand new knowledge about teachers with the circuit. Moreover, the study determined whether teachers are more motivated extrinsically or intrinsically. In other words, it made available relevant information relating to the type of motivation prevalent among Aboabo Educational Circuit teachers.

### **Delimitations**

The study was carried out in public Junior High Schools within Aboabo Educational Circuit, Adansi-North district. The schools were selected for study because of the deteriorating professional standards of teachers within the circuit suggesting lack of their motivation. Teachers were the participants used for the study. Regarding its content scope, the study investigated the role of intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation in teachers" leadership for learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. Indicators of intrinsic motivation the study investigated included satisfaction of teachers derived from teaching, enjoyment of teaching, recognition and career development. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation included externally administered rewards like salary, free accommodation, weekly duty and extra teaching allowances and study leave.

### **Limitations**

The study had the following limitations which affected the generalisability of the research findings. First and foremost, the researcher used only questionnaire though literature has confirmed that the use of only questionnaire impedes the ability to collect additional relevant data by way of observing, probing and seeking clarification of questions while the questionnaire was being completed (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

In addition to the above, the researcher conducted the investigation in only public Junior High Schools using non-probability sampling techniques. This limited the ability of valid generalisations made from the data.

### **Organisation of the Study**

The study was organised under five chapters. Chapter One dealt with the introduction of the study, thus, background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, the significance of the study, delimitations and the limitations of the study. Chapter Two reviews relevant related literature of the topic studied that was relevant to the researcher.

Chapter three describes the methods used to conduct the study. These included philosophical basis, the research design, the population, sample and sampling procedures, the research instrument employed, data collection and data analysis procedure. Chapter Four contains the results and discussion.

Finally, Chapter Five provides a summary of the study, conclusions as well as recommendations of the study.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

In this chapter, Motivation and Leadership for Learning as concepts are defined. Types of motivation are also explained. Other areas that make up this chapter include Bridging Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation, The Essence of Intrinsic Motivation, Teachers' Attitude towards their Motivation, Teacher Motivation in Ghana, Factors Influencing Teachers' Motivation in Ghana, Motivational Theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of need theory, Herzberg's two – factor theory, Goal-Setting Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, Ways of restoring equity and Equity Theory (Inequity Theory). Not only these, but Transformational Leadership, Charismatic Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Servant-Leadership, Servant Leadership Theory, Servant Leadership: Leaders and Followers, and Situational Leadership.

Another major variable considered was learning. Other auxiliaries to the chapter are Leadership Styles and Leadership for Learning: Student Achievement, Effects of Motivation on Leadership for Learning: Pupils' Overall Academic Achievement, Leadership and Leadership for Learning: Performance, Leadership for Learning (LFL): Level of Teachers' Performance, Teachers as leaders for learning, The Best Learning Theory.



## **Leadership for Learning Defined**

Leadership for Learning simply means making learning the pivot around which all leadership engagements in the school evolve. Thus, employing any or all leadership behaviour(s) or style(s), with its consequential leadership type(s), with the prime purpose of facilitating learning. It implies that learning is linked to leaders' leadership role or interest. Learning should be at the centre of leaders' and teachers' administrative tasks such as correspondence, meeting attendance, record keeping and managerial activities such as planning, budgeting, controlling and supervision in the school (Ghana Education Service: Teacher Education Division, September, 2014). In other words, it connotes teachers' ability and willingness to positively influence pupils learning by directly or indirectly creating a learning environment, whether within or outside the school in a way that motivates or compels pupils to achieve maximum results to meet the expectations of stakeholders. It is in view of this that Safo and Adentwi (2011) posit that learning depends on the interest (motivation) of the teacher, the type of learning outcome, and the nature of learners. Beyond making provision for physical environment such as structures, tables and chairs, cupboards, textbooks, chalks, computers, just to mention a few, learning environment also encompasses teachers' display of capacity of harmonising or appropriately matching both teaching strategies/techniques with learning styles of pupils to yield maximum results. Leadership for Learning is both a conscious (intentional) and unconscious (incidental) influence by teachers to facilitate the internal learning process to promote the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes that bring change in behaviour.

## Teachers as Leaders for Learning

Learning and leadership are conceived of as activities linked by the centrality of human agency within the framework of moral purpose (Macbeath & Dempster, 2009). In other words, whatever activity we engage in as human beings has a moral dimension. This is linked to putting in efforts to effect change and managing such a change to make life meaningful. Hence, as a leader for learning, one has the moral obligation to help your teachers, pupils and other stakeholders to change their attitudes towards the fulfillment of the primary purpose of schooling: learning. It must be noted that learning takes place at all levels of the school from the teacher to the pupil. Leadership is also found at all levels and must be seen as a right and responsibility of all. Learning and leadership are interdependent and must not be looked at as separate activities. Leaders need to learn and as they lead they learn. When we learn, we become confident in learning. In order to lead learning, teachers (being leaders) must promote and participate in teacher learning and development activities as well as have continuous professional development by way of:

1. initiating INSET to help with teachers' teaching and learning.
2. being informed of relevant topics for class lessons through teaching and learning interactions
3. making use of resource persons from the community and other schools.
4. find resources such as books and projects for pupils
5. whenever possible, get access to the internet
6. encouraging initiative by allowing pupils to experiment, knowing they have your support (Ghana Education Service: Teacher Education Division, September, 2014).

## **Leadership for Learning: Level of Teachers' Performance**

The researcher may classify Leadership for Learning into low, moderate and high to determine whether the performance level of teachers in the Junior High School is high, moderate or low. Bennell (2004) commented that increasing hours of work, larger class sizes, more subjects, and constantly changing curricula are quoted as major demotivators in many countries. The large class sizes and heavy workloads in relation to pay (the effort-price of work) also make teachers opposed to the introduction of new teaching methodologies and other innovations, hence, affecting their performance which is mirrored in students' overall academic achievement.

There is a wide range of views about teacher motivation in Africa and South Asia, most of which are country specific. However, there appear to be escalating concerns that unacceptably high proportions of teachers working in public school systems are poorly motivated due to a combination of low morale and job satisfaction, poor incentives, inadequate controls and other behavioural sanctions. For example, the 2000 EFA Country Assessment for Pakistan notes that poor Teachers' Motivation is an immense problem, which is seriously compounded by political interference (Bennell 2004).

It is widely asserted that low Teachers' Motivation is mirrored in deteriorating standards of professional conduct, including serious misbehaviour (in and outside of work), and poor Leadership for Learning (professional performance). Teacher absenteeism is unacceptably high and rising, time on task is low and falling, and teaching practices are characterised by limited effort with heavy reliance on traditional teacher-centered practices in most part of the country. Again, teachers are allotting less and less time to extracurricular activities, teaching preparation, and marking. The World Development Report (2004) neatly recapitulates these concerns about teachers.

Bennell (2004) lamented that "Cases of misconduct among teachers are distressingly present in many settings: teachers show up drunk, they are physically abusive, or they simply do nothing (p.8). This is not low-quality teaching, this is not teaching at all". Timilehin (2010) reported that teachers' job performance was very moderate.

According to Ajayi and Oguntoye (2003), if workers are anticipated to perform well on their job, they have to be motivated. If the needs of the workers are without fail unsatisfied and there is no possibility of satisfaction, they may perform below expectation. Studies such as those of Ibukun (1997), Adepoju (1998), Ajayi and Ayodele (2002) and Akundayo (2002), have reported that motivation is a determinant of productivity which is a proxy for Leadership for Learning. This implies that lack of motivation is likely to uphold poor job satisfaction and performance leading to low Leadership for Learning.

### **Leadership and Leadership for Learning: Performance**

Virtually, Every Teaching and Learning Engagement (TLE) calls for teachers to conduct a variety of activities; some essential, others, less so. Since TLEs differ, activities to make effective contributions also differ across TLEs. More often than not, administrators (managers) believe that employee performance involves the contributions employees make to the organisation's goal attainment (Heneman, Schwab, Fossum & Dyer 1990). In Ghana's educational setup, and for that matter in the Aboabo Educational Circuit the overriding goal remains making pupils learn; and it is being measured according to the success attained by pupils in examination (Basic Education Certificate Examination (B. E. C. E.)).

It can also be said that teachers are performing well when they are productive. Productivity in the context of this research is how well teachers facilitate Leadership for Learning. However, productivity itself entails both concern for effectiveness and efficiency (Robbins, 1998). Effectiveness according to Robbins refers to goal accomplishment and efficiency also evaluates the ratio of inputs consumed to outputs achieved.

According to Hakala (2003), employee (teachers'') performance is also the manner in which an employee does a job by its 'effectiveness ', where effectiveness is explained in terms of factors such as quality, quantity, timeliness, technical ability, knowledge of job functions, initiative, cooperation, emotional stability, vision, decisiveness, coordination and resourceful. Individual performance is generally established by three factors, namely, motivation: the desire to do the job, ability: the capability to do the job, and the work environment: the tools, materials, and information needed to do the job. If a teacher lacks ability, officers can provide training or replace him. If there is an environment problem, officers can also usually make adjustments to promote higher delivery. But if motivation is the problem, officers' task is more challenging. Individual behaviour is a complex phenomenon, and the officers may not be able to figure out why the employee is not motivated and how to change the behaviour. Thus, motivation plays a vital role since it might control negative performance (of teachers). It is plausible, therefore, to conjecture that, there is a correlation between motivation and Leadership for Learning (performance), so the more teachers are motivated, the higher and better Leadership for Learning would be.

## **Transformational Leadership vis-a-vis Learning: Follower Development and Performance**

Transformational leadership theory is a prominent representative of the new theories that have occupied centre stage in leadership research in the last two decades. Follower development and follower performance are the targeted outcomes of such leadership. However, there has been no conceptual framework, or systematic research, for examining the impact of transformational leadership on follower development (House & Aditya, 1997). Transformational leadership has been shown to have a positive relationship with performance (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Yet a causal relationship between transformational leadership and follower performance has only rarely been demonstrated, because most prior studies have had static, correlational, or non-experimental designs (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996).

The past two decades have heralded some convergence among organisational behaviour scholars concerning a new genre of leadership theories, alternatively referred to as "transformational," "charismatic," and "visionary" leadership. Despite different emphases in each theory, Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) asserted that "it can be safely concluded that there is a strong convergence of the findings from studies with charismatic leadership and those concerned with transformational and visionary leadership" (p. 84).

The full-range leadership model differentiates between transactional and transformational leaders. Transactional leaders exert influence by setting goals, clarifying desired outcomes, providing feedback, and exchanging rewards for accomplishments. Transformational leaders exert additional influence by broadening and elevating followers' goals and providing them with confidence to perform beyond

the expectations specified in the implicit or explicit exchange agreement. Transformational leaders exhibit charismatic behaviours, arouse inspirational motivation, provide intellectual stimulation, and treat followers with individualised consideration. These behaviours transform their followers helping them to reach their full potential and generate the highest levels of performance.

A principal aspect of transformational leadership is its emphasis on follower development. Transformational leaders evaluate the potential of all followers in terms of their ability to fulfil current commitments, while also envisioning expansion of their future responsibilities. In contrast, transactional leaders expect followers to achieve agreed-upon objectives but do not encourage them to assume greater responsibility for developing and leading themselves and others. Although transformational leaders' ability to develop followers to their full potential is central to the theory, very little is known about how such leaders so develop followers.

This lack of knowledge led House and Aditya (1997) to conclude, "There is little evidence that charismatic, transformational, or visionary leadership does indeed transform individuals, groups, large divisions of organisations, or total organisations, despite claims that they do so... There is no evidence demonstrating stable and long-term effects of leaders on follower self-esteem, motives, desires, preferences, or values" (p. 443). In the absence of a theory outlining the developmental aspects of transformational leadership, some researchers have integrated different sources to begin building a conceptual framework encompassing three main domains of follower development: motivation, morality, and empowerment.



## **Effects of Motivation on Leadership for Learning: Pupils' Overall Academic**

### **Achievement**

The authors of theories presented in preceding parts of this work tried to put in plain words what motivate people to work. The answer to this question is important because it is obviously good to comprehend what influences people's behaviour. However, it is not the only rationale for a great curiosity in the topic of motivation. Officer(s) might look for ways to motivate teachers because they assume that motivation can lead to some positive outcomes for school setup. The question that can be posed is "Does motivation really influence people's performance at work?" Various researches conducted indicate that, undeniably, there is a relation between motivation and performance (Deci & Gagne, 2005), consequently, Leadership for Learning.

As indicated by Olorube, (2004), teachers' motivation and job satisfaction are important because they determine educational success and performance. Olorube added that these two research variables are graded alongside professional knowledge, skills, centre competencies, and educational resources to determine educational success and efficiency. Bennell (2004), after defining work motivation as the psychological processes that influence individual behaviour with respect to the attainment of workplace goals and tasks specified that low job satisfaction (as a result of increasing hours of work, larger class sizes, more subjects, and constantly changing curricula) and low incentives amongst teachers in less developed countries eventually affect teachers' performance. If workers are expected to perform well on their job, they have to be motivated (Ajayi & Oguntoye, 2003). If the needs of the workers are time after time unsatisfied and there is no possibility of satisfaction, they may perform below expectation.



However, motivation and performance cannot be considered as equivalent phenomena. The peculiarity between them was noted by Vroom (1964). He suggested that effective accomplishment of a task is not only connected to motivation but also to other factors. The picture that surfaced from his studies suggested that even if people are motivated they cannot perform well if they do not own abilities to fulfil the task. In Vroom's point of view, motivation and abilities are equally important. In his opinion, more is to be gained by increasing ability from people who are highly motivated to realise the task than from those who are not motivated.

In other words, performance is not constantly increasing when the level of motivation is growing. Vroom (1964) cited an early study of Yerkes and Dodson which showed that highest level of motivation does not translate to the highest performance, especially when the task is difficult. In fact, extremely high levels of motivation lead to lower performance than moderate levels. This relation is explained in two ways. The first one assumed that high levels of motivation slim the cognitive field. The second one suggests that highly motivated people are scared of failure and that results in a lower performance. Other authors, cited in Pinder (1998), named several factors that might limit employees' performance such as restricted practices of their superiors, limits of company policies and physical work environment - lightening, temperature, noise or availability of materials.

Limitations of peoples' performance are an important theme. However, it seems that there are more studies that hunt for the answer to the question, "what can positively influence performance of employees?" Organisations often draw on incentives to motivate their employees. If we take into consideration incentive programmes, it comes up that they lead to enhanced performance of employees if the mechanism of the programme includes competition between employees to earn a

bonus. Another important feature of incentives programmes is their time-span. Frey and Osterloch (2002) in their book about successful management by motivation stressed an important fact that can explain the association between performance and motivation. They suggested that different people have different goals in their life. Therefore, particular motivators manipulate performance of individuals differently. There are employees who are motivated extrinsically. The authors divided them into two types: Income maximisers and Status seekers. Income maximisers are only interested in earning money for consumption goods and they find work an unpleasant duty. Status seekers search for social comparisons. Work, for them is a tool to gain "positional goods" that shows their high status.

Employees can be also motivated intrinsically. There are three groups of them characterised by specific features. Loyalists identify personally with the goals of the organisation they work for. Formalists are focused on procedures and rules existing in an organisation, while Autonomists pursue their own ideology. Defining these types of employees helps to predict which kind of motivators are effective in increasing individuals' performance. As an example, performance-related pay increases performance of income maximisers, especially when it is paid out as money rather than fringe benefits. The condition that has to be met is that employees see clear affiliation between compensation and performance. Status seekers can also be motivated by wages as long as they let them differentiate themselves from other people. In their case, compensation does not have to be in a form of money. They would rather favour other benefits that directly show their status. Conversely, status seekers would directly be influence by promotion but income maximisers would be motivated only when it comes with pay.

Performance-related pay can also diminish performance. Loyalists may understand this kind of rewarding as a hint that their work is considered by an organisation as inadequate. Formalists also may feel that organisation tries to alter the way they work. Finally, autonomists would lose their intrinsic motivation because their self-fulfilling work concept is put in doubt. Non-financial rewards also need to be matched with employee types. For example, praise would be preferred by status seekers but would be not motivating at all for income maximisers who cannot buy anything for it. Autonomists may feel that management is trying to absorb them into the organisation and Formalists may not appreciate praise as they "just do their job".

Another way to increase performance is implementing commands and sanctions. This way would be effective for formalists who understand them as a guide. On the other hand, it can dramatically lessen performance of other types of employees. Income maximisers, status seekers, loyalists and autonomists see commands as restrictions, what result in crowding-out their intrinsic motivation to work. Participation can be a helpful instrument that positively affect performance of autonomist but it would be treated as waste of time by income maximisers and status seekers as they are not interested in the work itself. Finally, autonomy, understood as possibility to make own decision is crucial for loyalist and would definitely increase their performance. For other types of employees, autonomy would not be an effective way of increasing their efforts. The characteristics of types of employees presented here advocate that people have different expectations and desires at work. Some rewards can be really rewarding for them but others are rather perceived as factors that negatively influence their performance (Frey & Osterloch, 2002).

It is worth stating that, Leadership for Learning (academic achievement) too has a bearing on teacher motivation. That is why it is specified that high academic performance (Leadership for Learning) leads to high motivation, which in turn becomes feedback to influence future performance. Better performance (achievement) leads to high rewards. This improvement in motivation is because of employees' feeling that they are receiving rewards in proportion to their performance. On the other hand, if there are inadequate rewards for one's level of performance, dissatisfaction will occur.

### **Leadership Types and Leadership for Learning**

Evidence suggests that effective leaders exhibit a higher level of transformational leadership than transactional leadership (Hetland & Sandal, 2003). Transformational leadership has been found to be associated with superior work performance and employee attitudes (Zagoršek, Dimovski & Skerlavai, 2009). Research has indicated that transformational leadership is more associated with positive emotions experienced by employees, whereas transactional leadership is more associated with negative emotions. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate employees by clearly articulating a promising and compelling vision for the future. They provide support to employees, encourage employees to learn and develop, and build good relationships with employees, which then nurture employees' favourable perception of the company (school). Transactional leadership offers rewards (or threatens punishments) for the performance of desired behaviours and exerts more control. This type of leadership results in compliance and can be effective in some circumstances, but it is less likely to generate trust and commitment to work (Zagoršek et al., 2009) and positive evaluation of the company. For the purpose of this study, "employees" is taken to be pupils.

## **Motivation, Leadership Style and Leadership for Learning: Teachers' Way of Leading Pupils to Learn**

Bloom (1976) in relation to student achievement described classroom alterable variables. Alterable variables are those classroom variables that can be changed in such a manner that student learning can be improved. Moreover, by altering the variables, learning conditions can be identified that enable virtually all students to learn at a high standard. Nonetheless, if this would be effectively and efficiently achieved, then it should be a masterpiece of good leadership style(s) flowing from the stream of moderate/ high Teachers' Motivation.

The first alterable variable Bloom reported as important when measuring achievement was time versus time-on-task. Time available for learning has been described as a time-on-task variable. Further, the amount of time the student has been actively engaged in the learning process has demonstrated quantitative as well as qualitative differences. If the instruction is poor, and students are unable to understand the lesson, they cannot actively engage in the learning process.

The next alterable variable that might affect student achievement is cognitive entry characteristics. These characteristics tend to be highly alterable because they are the specific knowledge abilities or skills, which are necessary prerequisites for the learning task. These prerequisites correlate + .70 or higher with measures of achievement in a participant. Furthermore, these prerequisites, when identified and measured, replace intelligence and aptitude tests in the prediction of later achievement. Therefore, according to Bloom, cognitive entry characteristics demonstrate a high correlation with achievement and have a causal effect on later achievement. Cognitive entry characteristics would be extremely important with sequential learning tasks, where the knowledge base for learning say, task B is determined by mastery of task A.

Bloom's next alterable variable in the classroom includes the use of formative testing. Achievement tests are used for summative purposes; the learning value of summative testing is limited. Limited learning takes place because the student is not given the opportunity to correct mistakes or learn from the summative testing procedure. Student scores on summative tests are converted to grades or other indexes that compare each student's scores with a set of norms. This alterable variable, if used for formative testing, would be an integral part of the formation of the learning process. When Bloom researched the effects of formative testing, he found that when formative tests and corrective procedures were used, the proportion of students reaching the mastery standard increases on each subsequent task until as high as 80% or 90% of the students are able to reach the mastery standard on the final learning task.

Formative tests ensure that most students have the necessary cognitive prerequisites for each new learning task. Consequently, students have increased interest in learning and greater confidence in their own ability to learn. Moreover, this formative testing procedure may be considered as an example of cybernetic feedback - corrective procedures. This periodic formative testing can be used to ensure that learning has taken place. Teacher developed tests, quizzes, and program tests are examples of formative tests.

Bloom's next classroom alterable variable consists of the teaching process and the teacher. The relationships between teacher characteristics and student learning have been represented by correlations of less than  $+0.20$ . However, Bloom (1976) suggested that perhaps researchers had not studied the correct teacher characteristics. Bloom's research indicated three characteristics of teaching that are alterable in the classroom - cues, reinforcement, and participation. Cues refer to the instruction as to what is to be learned. Reinforcement refers to the reward the student receives for his or her learning.

Reinforcement is important because research relates student learning to the variety and frequency of reinforcement. Participation is the student actively engaging in the learning process.

Cues, reinforcement, and participation are important alterable learning variables because Bloom indicated that teacher interaction with students in the classroom reveals that teachers frequently direct their teaching and explanations to some students and ignore others. Students in the top third of the class are given the greatest teacher attention. Students in the bottom third of the class receive the least attention and support. This lack of interaction with lower students is alterable and could serve to improve student achievement.

Bloom indicates that the classroom teacher can have a significant effect on student achievement (Leadership for Learning), while other researchers indicated that the classroom teacher exerted very little influence. If evidence from Bloom's study should prove helpful information in identifying those alterable classroom variables that influence student achievement, then, teachers can do much to promote Leadership for Learning.

Achievement gains according to Sanford and Evertson (1983) are determined to a great degree by time-on-task and time allocated to learning. Students who spend more time on task tend to demonstrate more achievement gains than students who spend less time on task. Travers (1972) examined the work of Harry and Margaret Maslow which emphasised the importance of external stimuli in the classroom. According to Maslow, the classroom teacher must provide an adequate amount of external stimuli for students. An under stimulated classroom may contribute to discipline problems. They further indicated that classroom lethargy, disciplinary problems, and lack of learning are caused by an insufficiency of stimuli.



Dyer (1973), a retired vice-president of the Educational Testing Service, in his accountability report on the public schools, indicated that it is important for teachers to be accountable for student learning in consent with students' parents, the administration, staff, and fellow teachers. All of these constituencies, according to Dyer, share a joint responsibility for making sure student learning is at its highest level.

Moreover, Dyer reported that for student learning, inputs consist of all the characteristics a student brings to the learning process such as his/her physical make-up, past learning, interest, values, feelings about him- or herself and others. The inputs are the initial student status. Outputs are the comparable attributes of the same student when he has completed a segment at a specific learning point. This, notes Dyer, is the student's final status for the time period and becomes the initial period for the next learning task. The educational process consists of all of the activities that take place between the student's initial status and his/her final status. The education process is all of those activities, either planned or unplanned, that aim to help the student learn. Conditions in the home, the community, and the school are all part of the student learning process.

Ross (1984) reported that using achievement test score information makes it possible to rate and to pay teachers on the basis of how well students learn. The use of test-score information can be used to rate and to pay teachers on the basis of how well students learn as opposed to tying compensation to the number of credits teachers accumulate. Ross recommended analysing two or three years' worth of class scores to identify a trend. Moreover, teachers with outstanding test scores could be a helpful resource to teachers who consistently demonstrate low-test scores.



Rothstein (1997) suggested that student achievement is difficult to compare over time because of factors such as changes in curricula, student population changes, unreliable background data, and inconsistent test administration. These factors make the analyses of variables affecting student achievement problematic. Further, Rothstein asserted that objective measures of student achievement over a period of time are difficult to acquire.

Sanders and Horn (1998) found that ethnicity, socio-economic level, class size, and classroom heterogeneity were poor predictors of student academic growth. Effectiveness of the teacher was the major determinant of student academic progress which is a very noticeable endorsement of Leadership for Learning. Teacher effectiveness was measured by a statewide testing programme, which tests each student each year in several academic subjects with the application of a statistical approach that enables a massive multivariate longitudinal analysis. Since an individual student's academic growth is followed over time, the student is his or her own "control." This method allows the removal of exogenous factors that influence achievement and that are consistently present with each student over time. The effects of teachers on student achievement were found to be both additive and cumulative. Sanders and Horn recommended a component linking teacher effectiveness to an effective evaluation system.

Sanders and Horn (1998) cited the study conducted by Sanders and Rivers (1996), which found that more African-American students than would be expected in their study were assigned to ineffective teachers. Student achievement, as measured by achievement tests, within both the White group and the African-American group were the same when they were assigned to effective teachers. In essence, African-American and White students made the same academic progress when assigned to teachers of

comparable effectiveness. This information is important to understanding student achievement and student learning outcomes.

Guskey (1998) in his discussion of student achievement noted that a learning outcome of the Kentucky's Education Reform Act is that all Kentucky students, not only affluent students, will learn. Schools with high percentages of students from low socio-economic strata need extra guidance and assistance, extra resources, and extra time. Guskey reported that the teachers in Kentucky are rising to the challenge by helping students of all backgrounds to learn. Guskey noted that the percentage of poor children attending a school could be used to predict initial results on statewide testing. However, academic improvement cannot be predicted by socio-economic status. In essence, Guskey asserts that socio-economic status can serve as a baseline data point, but that increases in student achievement cannot and should not be predicted on the basis of student family income level.

Traina (1999) did a historical study of 125 prominent Americans to identify the characteristics of a good teacher. He found three characteristics that were described time and again: competence in the subject matter, deep caring about students and their success, and distinctive character. He emphasised the power of the combination of these attributes. Covino and Iwanicki (1996) studied of the behaviours of effective, experience teachers, and identified the constructs of effective teaching. Berliner and Rosenshine (as cited in Covino & Iwanicki, 1996) found the following direct instructional variables that consistently related to student achievement:

Positive correlations were found when teachers gave directions about the task students were to engage in, focused on academics, covered more content, monitored to ascertain student engagement, asked lower level concrete questions, gave academic feedback, and operated classrooms with warm, friendly environments. (p. 327).

Doyle (as cited in Colvino & Iwanicki, 1996) found that effective teachers give clear directions, establish rules, explain rules, quickly stop inappropriate behaviour, and utilise activities that students can enjoy with a high rate of success. These findings are important in assessing an effective teacher for student achievement.

Teacher expectation is another important component of Leadership for Learning (student achievement). The Rosenthal and Jacobson, (1968) study demonstrated how students performed relative to teacher expectations. Rist (as cited in Covino & Iwanicki, 1996) noted that higher- ability students, compared with lower-ability students, were called on more often by teachers, received more attention from teachers, and were worked with more by teachers. This aspect of student achievement is important because students achieve at higher levels when their teachers believe in their ability and when students are engaged in the learning process for longer periods of time.

Time-on-task and time to learn are important variables to assess Leadership for Learning. One of the earliest studies on learning-time was conducted by Joseph Rice in 1897. Rice's study involved time as the only independent variable. Specifically, his study looked at the effects of an extra 15 minutes per day for spelling instruction (Anderson, 1984). The amount of learning time is important to student achievement because students enter into the learning environment with varying degrees of knowledge. Therefore, when classroom learning time is fixed, some students will almost certainly learn at a high level, some at a moderate level, some at a low level, and some will not learn at all.

Anderson (1984) reported student achievement gains in one school that incorporated the time component of the Achievement Directed Leadership (ADL) program. This time component specifically focused on "student engaged time" - the

amount of time students actually spend working on and trying to accomplish assigned academic tasks. The ADL programme's time-on-task component consisted of incorporating three general areas of allocated time for student learning: (1) utilisation of scheduled time, (2) reduction in the amount of non-academic time, and (3) reorganisation of the time scheduled for academic work. Each of the three components had very specific tasks teachers were to follow with the goal of increasing learning time and subsequent academic achievement by students. In a discussion of time-on-task and student achievement, Anderson makes the point that a 5 minute increase in the instructional day translates to 15 hours over 180 school days. Guskey (1998) recommended additional learning time for schools with high percentages of low socio-economic students. All that has been discussed so far demands that teachers go extra mile beyond just a container of knowledge, an indication that warrant teachers to be either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

### **Concept of Motivation**

Motivation, historically, is from a Latin word "movere", meaning "to move". Relating to this, Ibukun (1997) contended that motivation is the inner drive that activates or moves an individual to action in which an individual is compelled to act in a certain manner by his inner drive. Moreover, motivation is defined by Pride, Hughes and Kapoor (2009) as "the individual internal process that organises, directs, and sustains behaviour; the personal "force" that causes a person to behave in a particular way". Similarly, Guay et al. (2010) explained motivation as "the reasons underlying behaviour" (p. 712). Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as "the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something" (p. 106). Jashua-Amadi, as cited in Azigwe (2009) described motivation as the satisfaction employees derive from activities in an organisation or worker relationship that makes them work at their best.

Douglas, as cited in Azigwe (2009) also argued that motivation is, “not by pushing them in the right direction as control mechanisms do, but by satisfying basic human needs of achievement, a sense of belonging, recognition and self – esteem”(p.188).

Furthermore, Jones and George (2008) said of motivation as “psychological forces that determine the direction of a person’s behaviour in an organisation, a person’s level of persistence in the face of obstacles” (p.519). In a similar vein, Bennell (2004) defined motivation as the psychological processes that influence individual behaviour with respect to the attainment of workplace goals and tasks. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward - one that satisfies their needs (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Tracy, 2000; Armstrong, (as cited in Ofoegbu (2004)). In a similar direction, Archer, Adentwi and Sam (2008) wrote that motivation has to do with the forces that maintain and alter the direction, quality and intensity of behaviour. Similarly, motivation is the intensity of a person’s desire to engage in some activity (Dessler, 2001). Also, motivation is that which induces a person to act in a certain way, according to Afful-Broni (2004) or anything that drives, stimulates and pushes an individual to want to engage in an activity (Kenney, 2014).

Motivation is thought to be responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it (Dornyei, 2001). So, Ifinedo (2003) demonstrated that a motivated worker is easy to spot by his or her agility, dedication, enthusiasm, focus, zeal, and general performance and contribution to organisational objectives and goals. Employee motivation was defined as the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity directed towards the achievement of personal goals (Hoy & Miskel, 1987).

To simplify things, Futrell (1998), said that motivation connoted “the arousal, intensity, direction and persistence of effort directed toward job tasks over a period of time” (p. 103). He advised that, despite the fact that all those elements should be part of a motivational programme, management must determine the extent to which each element is emphasised for a particular employee. In this particular study, the researcher subjecting the various definitions above to critical scrutiny, would want to throw light on some inconsistencies even though I appreciate the quantum of knowledge the various writers have added to knowledge.

To begin with, Joshua-Amadi, cited in Azigwe (2009), in trying to define motivation focused on the outcome of motivation, which is, “the satisfaction” but not motivation as a process or activity. Better still, his definition by virtue of the clause, “... employee derive from activities in an organisation or worker relationship ...” narrowed his definition down to only intrinsic motivation (which is only a type of motivation) instead of motivation in general. In contravention to the opinions of Joshua-Amadi, Douglas, also cited in Azigwe (2009), seemed to consider motivation as a process when he said that motivation is “...by satisfying human needs”. However, his shortcoming was that he refused to link his definition to the rationale or reason behind the act of motivation. Thereby, he, like Archer, Adentwi and Sam (2008) and Kenney (2014), made everything appear to be purposeless or something done without any specific goal, which indeed seems not accurate, though appreciated by the researcher. Finally, all that the investigators were seeking to highlight was that barring the fact that motivation cannot be concretely defined or described, the researcher, in this study, proposed that embedded in any strong definition of motivation ought to be the following elements for the purpose of complete understanding:

1. the fact that it is a process.
2. the causes, motivators, drives or needs (be it a person or thing which is not limited to motivation)
3. either natural (intrinsic) motivation or artificial (extrinsic) motivation only
4. direction of effort or behaviour
5. degree, depth or rate of effort
6. the purpose or rationale behind the whole process

Putting all these together, the researcher defined motivation as the identification of the need(s) either by the person himself or some other person which when properly and consistently administered over time awakens and influences one's behaviour in an unusual manner for accomplishing personal and organisational goal(s) for the good of society.

### **Types of Motivation**

Motivation, generally, is broadly considered in two forms, namely, Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and Extrinsic Motivation (EM).

### **Intrinsic motivation**

Intrinsic motivation will be internal when individuals are inner-directed. In this type of motivation, the individuals set internal standards for traits, competencies, and values that become the root for their ideal selves (Leonard, Beauvais & Scholl, 1999). Persons are then motivated to engage in behaviours that reinforce these standards and later achieve higher levels of competency.

This source, Leonard, Beauvais and Scholl (1999), is similar to the need for achievement, internal motivation to overcome challenges, and Katz and Kahn's (cited in Barbuto, 2005) ideal of internalised motivation resulting from role performance



such as being delegated to and being allowed to participate in decision making. Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler and Tipton (1985) labelled individualism in terms similar to those used to describe intrinsic motivation. Developmental theorists have described a similar stage using such terms as full formal operational (Piaget, 1972) and social system. Similar motives are styled as a need for achievement (Murray, 1964), need for esteem (Maslow, 1954), motivating factors (Herzberg, 1968), and growth needs associated with developing one's potential.

Bandura (1986) described self-evaluative mechanisms, self-regulation, and personal standards in terms similar to those used to describe intrinsic motivation. Katz and Kahn (cited in Barbuto, 2005) described a motive similar to intrinsic motivation as "self-expression derived from role performance." This motive also has been termed as intrinsic motivation to overcome challenges and intrinsic motivation to pursue personal achievement.

A teacher (leader) who is inspired by intrinsic motivation prospectively value individual pupil and the inherent strengths and contributions each make. This teachers' use of individualised consideration is likely to inspire pupils to see the goals of the teachers as well as goals for personal growth. If people are motivated to accomplish certain kinds of work or to engage in certain types of behaviour for the sheer fun of it, then intrinsic motivation is befalling. For this source of motivation, the work itself turns to be the incentive because workers enjoy what they are exploiting. Similar constructs to intrinsic motivation can be found extensively in literature. Developmental theorists have described a similar motive by means of the terms heteronomous morality (Kohlberg, as cited in Barbuto, 2005). Other need-based descriptors analogous to intrinsic include early existence needs, intrinsic pleasure needs and physiological needs (Maslow, 1954, Murray, 1964, Alderfer, as reported in



Barbuto, 2005). Bandura (1986) describes sensory intrinsic motivation and physiological intrinsic motivation in terms parallel to those used to describe intrinsic motivation. This motive also has been articulated as intrinsic motivation to obtain task pleasure and intrinsic task motivation devoid of external controls or rewards.

Past researchers (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Staw, cited in Barbuto, 2005) have used the term intrinsic motivation to represent personal satisfaction derived from achievement of goals or tasks. Intrinsic motivation, from the classical explanation is either the immediate enjoyment or pleasure during the activity, and then on the satisfaction that results from its achievement. Intrinsically motivated teachers find enjoyment and pleasure in the work they do (Barbuto, Fritz & Marx, 2002). Teachers' enjoyment of their work environment could inspire pupils to emulate the teachers' behaviour and incorporate enjoyment into their learning (Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, cited in Barbuto 2005).

Behaviour motivated intrinsically also occurs when individuals adopt attitudes and behaviours congruent with their personal value systems. Strong ideals and beliefs are paramount in this motivational source (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Individuals motivated in this way believe in the cause and have developed a strong sense of duty to work toward the goal of the collective.

Bellah et al. (1985) describe habits of the heart in terms similar to this perspective of intrinsic motivation. Developmental theorists describe a similar motivational stage as post-formal operational (Piaget, 1972), principled orientation, inter- individual, and autonomous. Need theorists describe a similar motive as self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954).

Intrinsic motivation looked at from this angle is different from the previous four sources of motivation because it is clearly marked by the absence of self-interest (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Motivation from this source occurs when individuals believe in the cause. By contrast, individuals motivated by the fun of work or its results need to enjoy the work being performed. Individuals with high levels of intrinsic motivation are stimulated by personal challenge and self-regulation. Those with high levels of intrinsic motivation are driven solely by a belief that the goals of the organisation are both worthwhile and achievable.

Transformational leadership behaviours are most typically seen in persons who trust and believe in the goal of the organisation, naturally expanding to belief in the organisation's course. Barbuto and Scholl (1999) examined motivation's predictive value for influence tactics and found significant correlations between goal internalisation motivation and both inspirational appeals and rational persuasion. From a transformational leadership perspective, it is expected that goal internalisation will relate to inspirational leadership and charismatic behaviours. Barbuto et al. (2000) found significant relationships between leaders' goal internalisation and use of transformational leadership behaviours. We expect similar findings in this study.

### **Extrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic reward motivate individuals when they perceive their behaviour will lead to certain extrinsic tangible outcomes, such as pay, promotions, bonuses, etc. (Kelman, cited in Barbuto, 2005). This source of motivation integrates with alienative and calculative involvement, exchange theory, and legal compliance and external rewards. Developmental theorists have described a similar motive as concrete operational (Piaget, 1972), instrumental, imperial, and opportunistic. Similar

instrumental motives have been described by need theorists as a need for power, a need for safety (Maslow, 1954), or late stages of existence needs.

Considering extrinsic motivation in this manner is different from the classic extrinsic or external motivation (Staw, 1976) in that this motive is derived from tangible external rewards. The classic definition includes social rewards and interpersonal exchanges. This motivation is characterised by optimising self-interests and with the recognition that everything or want has its tangible price.

Extrinsically motivated leaders (teachers) see the value in a reward system for employees (Barbuto, Fritz & Marx, 2002). Similarly, transactional leaders work within a system of reward/punishment for employees (Bass, 1990). It is expected that leaders who are high in extrinsic motivation will likely also be higher in transactional behaviours.

Motivation also tends to be externally based when individuals are other-directed and seek affirmation of traits, competencies and values from external perceptions. The ideal self is adopted from the role expectations of reference groups, explaining why individuals high in extrinsic motivation behave in ways that satisfy reference group members, first to gain acceptance, and after achieving that, to gain status.

This source of motivation is similar to social moral involvement, extrinsic interpersonal motivation described by Staw's (1976) and social inducements, conformity to group attitudes, and communion. This source of motivation also resembles social identity theory, in which the focus is on establishing and maintaining social reference and standing (Ashforth & Mael, cited in Barbuto, 2005). Developmental theorists have described a similar motivational stage as interpersonal, early formal operational (Piaget, 1972), and conformist.

Other researchers have described similar types of motivation as a need for affiliation need for love, affection, and belonging (Maslow, 1954), and as relatedness needs. Classic articulations of social rewards or social exchanges are consistent in concept and motivational explanation with external motives.

Intrinsic Motivation embodies the person and his or her emotions, encompassing fun, rust, and self-worth, all of which are derived from internal influences. These qualities are similar to those needed for transformational behaviours (Bass, 1990). An extrinsically-combined process really derives from the surroundings of the person (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). People influenced by an extrinsic motivation are motivated by prestige, rewards and status, perhaps more suitable to transactional and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1990).

### **Bridging Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation**

As originally identified by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1957), motivation being a broad concept could be viewed in two forms or types, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Abratt and Klein (1999) accepted that intrinsic motivation is that derived from the job content, job satisfaction and by the work “itself”. They expatiated by acknowledging that when they talk about “Job content”, they are referring to the fact that the job meets people’s needs or expectation, employees’ goals will be achieved or there are opportunities for personal growth. What they refused to highlight is the one in control of it. However, Nickels, McHugh and McHugh (1999), filled that gap when they indicated that “the most important person to motivate, of course is the individual himself. One way to do that is to find the right job in the right organisation...” (p.288). “Some internal motivations are frequently related to the satisfaction of innovating and creating a new approach,

solving problems, making a contribution, surpassing established standards and goals, or learning and working with a dynamic group of people” (Daily Graphic, Tuesday, April 26, 2005, p.16). Intrinsic motivation is self-generated factors that influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a particular direction. These factors include responsibility (feeling that the work is important and having control over one’s own resources), autonomy (freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement (Armstrong, 2007).

Abratt and Klein (1999), further postulate extrinsic motivation to be what is done for people to motivate them, thus, salary, job security, working conditions, fringe benefits, recognition and status. “External (extrinsic) motivation involves using motivators that come with a job, and they include pay, office space, benefits and safety. A dangerous worksite or pay at survival level demotivates many employees” (Daily Graphic, Tuesday, April 26, 2005, p.16). Clearly, extrinsic motivation relates to what is done to or for people to stimulate them. These include rewards such as increased pay, praise, or promotion, and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay or criticism, (Armstrong, 2007). It is also influenced by external factors such as salary, providing better working and living conditions and opportunities for in-service training.

### **The Essence of Intrinsic Motivation**

In the mid-1960s, a psychologist Fredrick Herzberg conducted a study. He demanded that workers rank various factors in order of importance relative to motivation. His question was, “what creates enthusiasm for workers and makes them work to full potential?” He presented these as his results:

1. Sense of achievement
2. Earned recognition
3. Interest in the work
4. Opportunity for growth
5. Opportunity for advancement
6. Importance of responsibility
7. Peer and group relationship
8. Pay
9. Supervisors fairness
10. Company policy and rules
11. Status job security
12. Supervisor's friendliness
13. Working conditions

(Reported in Nickels, McHugh and McHugh, 2002, p. 411).

Herzberg's conclusion was that certain factors named motivators, did cause workers to be productive and gave them a great satisfaction and these factors mostly are job-content and self (within) related. The researcher speculated that, motivators (being the source of intrinsic motivation) are not only mostly job content related but the most crucial of all motivational factors. Specifically, it is in relation to the above that it was said, "But, it is equally necessary that teachers who devote their lives to the cause of education until their retirement are treated with respect and decorum" (Daily Graphic, March 31, 2005, p. 7). More so, some group of parents attached more importance to intrinsic (Job- related) motivation when they wondered, "Why a teacher whose duty is to teach should be given extra money to motivate him or her" (Daily Graphic, January 10, 2005, p.11).

In sum, the researcher used the story told of Gordon Bethune: a man who frantically changed the destiny of a company, „Continental Airlines“ when he assumed the position of Chief Executive Officer in 1994 as empirical evidence to emphasise his thought. With a critical look at eleven alternate actions he embarked on, all were directly linked to the job except the fifth, sixth and the eleventh, which were all salary-related (extrinsic need). Consequent to Gordon Bethune’s actions, the writer asserted “once the joke of the airline industry, continental is now among the most profitable carriers in the world, and its reputation among business travellers has soared near the top of the ratings” (Griffin, 2002 p. 487). In attributing importance with respect to the types of motivation, this is what Gordon Bethune himself had declared, “...I’ve never heard of a successful company that didn’t have people who like working there”. If the thought of Bethune is reworded, perhaps to make it more obvious, all that he was saying is that, for a company to be successful its employees must be enthused about the job content.

To this effect, if motivation were to be the earth, intrinsic motivation would have been the crust (the core); if it were an egg, intrinsic motivation would have been considered the yolk which is the “life” aspect of the egg and if it were man, intrinsic motivation, without exaggeration, would have been the breath. I have said somewhere else in this research work that extrinsic motivation generally may trigger motivation (satisfaction) but that which sustains (makes it lasting) or keeps it (alive or running) is intrinsic motivation. It is therefore not a mistake to attribute the importance of motivation to intrinsic motivation.

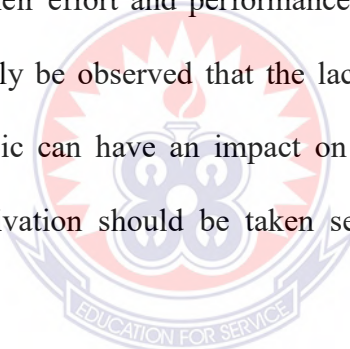
## **Teachers' Motivation in Ghana**

In spite of the challenges that the regular teachers face, and against other odds, they do the best they can to discharge their duties under the circumstances. Regarding the importance of teachers, Archer and also Armentano, as cited in Nyarko (2010), argued that teachers are the most important influence on student progress, even more important than socioeconomic status and school location. The point they were trying to put across was that until we put measures in place to up the quality of teachers we have in the country and their standard of living, we should understand that we will not be able to attract most of our best brains into the teaching profession. "Why do we not witness dynamism in our educational sector?" We seem to ignore the essential parameters that need to be addressed in order to experience real (positive) changes in our educational system, and rather focus on trivialities. We find it so easy in playing politics with education in the country and lose track in ensuring that the perennial challenges that have led to the destruction of our education system are confronted head-on.

The problems that confronted the education sector in the 20th century are still here with us in the 21st century; but we regrettably forget that we need to make difficult and bold choices in order to transform the fortunes of education in the country. We are quick to pay fat bonuses and end of service benefits to our soccer heroes and politicians respectively, but dither in giving the teaching profession a facelift. If the spontaneity and alacrity used in meeting the needs of these groups of people in our society are used to address the needs of teachers, we can be assured of smiling now instead of cursing our stars for our egregious educational standards.



This is a clear case of putting the cat before the horse. Teachers teach for several months without drawing a salary, and yet our governments live under the false illusion that the country is on the path to recovery. Over the years, newly trained teachers and those who are transferred to other districts have had to wait for, in most cases a year before they draw their first salary. What is painful is that these teachers are in the first place given peanuts, and to hold their salaries for months is an injustice. The overview of the research on motivation and performance clearly brought out some differences between the findings. Some motivational factors are more important to employees than others. There are authors who also indicate that a particular group of employees are motivated by other factors. Employee's level of motivation is also high when they expect that their effort and performance on the job will result in desired outcomes. It can generally be observed that the lack of motivation of teachers both intrinsic and that extrinsic can have an impact on performance. Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation should be taken seriously by employers and other stakeholders.



### **Teachers' Attitude towards Teachers' Motivation**

An organisation's liveliness, whether public or private, comes from the motivation of its employees, although their abilities play a crucial role in determining their work performance (Lewis, Goodman & Fandt, 1995). The teaching profession used to be a noble one, we are told; but in recent times, especially in Ghana, it is seen as a stopgap. There are a lot of people who would have loved to be working as teachers; however, the status of teachers in the country has ebbed to the extent that a lot of intelligent people shy away from the profession. Even the little respect that teachers had in the rural areas in the earlier years has eroded away due to the fact that

most teachers in the country live their lives one day at a time: an indication that they are poor ( Nyarko 2010), hence, poorly motivated, if any.

Teachers' motivation has to do with teachers' attitude to work. teachers' motivation could therefore be referred to as those factors that operate within the school system which if not made available to the teacher could hamper performance, cause stress, discontentment and frustration all of which would subsequently reduce classroom effectiveness and student quality output. This implies that teachers' motivation includes factors that cause, channel, sustain and influence teachers' behaviour towards high management and academic achievement standards in schools (Ofoegbu, 2004). According to Dornyei (2001) the following factors affect teachers' motivation: the school's general climate and the existing school norms, the class sizes, the school resources and facilities, general expectations regarding student potential, the school's leadership, decision-making structure and autonomy.

Practically, teachers, for ages past have expressed and still express their ill sentiment as far as teacher motivation or satisfaction is concerned. Their actions range from their lackadaisical attitude towards teaching, teaching only portions of the syllabus that interest them to a number of strike actions. From information gathered, they were able to register their hatred for the level of motivation pertaining as at then. According to the questionnaires responded to, both current and past practicing teachers alike were disappointed at issues such as inadequate remuneration, lack of opportunity for advancement and poor relationship with supervisors, (Bame, 1991). Mr. A.B Amoatey, the then Accra Metro Director of Education had publicly declared: I am aware of the environment in which you work, but you can always strive to improve upon the situation. What we need is commitment and the desire to make our

environment better than it is at the moment. (Daily Graphic Monday, January 10, 2005, p. 11).

While we patiently wait for teachers to strive to improve upon the situation, a group of teachers, on the 7<sup>th</sup> day of March, 2005 called upon the Ghana Education Service (GES) to publicly declare the areas in the country considered as deprived so that teachers who serve in those areas could claim whatever privileges are due them (Daily Graphic, Thursday, March 31, 2005, p. 7). In a similar situation, a group of students succinctly empathised, “Our teachers must be appropriately remunerated” (Daily Graphic, Tuesday, July 5, 2005, p. 7).

By and large, teachers are not happy about the kind of motivation they are experiencing currently. Regarding this, it is plausible to suggest that it is high time something remarkable is done about it. For, “overall performance is apt to be strong and sustained when both officers and staff are motivators. They are committed to the mission of the organisation; and work energetically to carry it out. They show up, take responsibility, co-operate with others, and follow through” (Daily Graphic, Tuesday, April 26, 2005, p. 16).

### **Factors Influencing Teacher Motivation in Ghana**

There are many factors that inhibit the teaching and learning process, thereby reducing and causing a decline in the quality of education that children receive and their performance. Among the factors that have adverse influence on the teaching and learning process when ignored is Teacher Motivation. The factors that influence the motivation of teachers are country-specific and can be categorised into two – intrinsic and extrinsic (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007). Intrinsic factors are those which come from within a person whereas extrinsic are those determined basically by the level and

type of external rewards available. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) posited that the motivational factors in developed countries are different from that of developing countries. However, within the Sub-Saharan African context, which includes Ghana, research has identified remuneration and incentives, conditions of service, working conditions and the professional status of the teacher to be the consistent extrinsic factors influencing teacher motivation (Bennell, 2004; Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

Like remuneration, incentives refer to a particular form of payment which is intended to achieve some specific change in behaviour. Incentives come in a variety of forms, and can be either monetary or non-monetary. Examples of monetary incentives are bonus payments for achieving a target, or an increase in budget levels. Non-monetary incentives could include study leave or enhanced leisure time. In a case study on teacher motivation and incentives in twelve countries within the Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, respectively, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007), revealed that, more than anything else, remunerations and incentives (pay) were the key factors underpinning teachers' morale and motivation, especially in the Sub-Saharan Africa. Adjei and Musah (2013) also noted in a descriptive survey that among the factors that affect teacher motivation in Ghana, teachers place more value on wages and salary as their most important motivational factors. Tachie, Tenkorang and Ghartey (2012), similarly, carried out a cross-sectional survey on motivation and job satisfaction of in the Cape Coast Municipality of Ghana, and concluded that teachers ranked salary as the most important factor that motivates them.

Indeed, careful analyses of the literature seem to suggest that salary is crucial in teacher motivation among the developing countries. The Ghanaian teacher like many other teachers the world over, would need money for the satisfaction of their

basic needs for survival and security. However, there are also studies that contradict the assumption that money is a motivator. Pink (2009) convincingly argues that money does not motivate people. According to him people are motivated to work harder when they have the ability to work on their own terms, thus, autonomous.

Teachers' motivation is also strongly related to working and living conditions. Students are not the only ones affected by poor quality buildings. The nature and quality of the built learning environment also has been shown to affect teacher attitudes, behaviours, and performance (Schneider, 2003; Buckley, Schneider and Shang, 2004). In a study of a large sample of teachers in Chicago and DC schools, researchers found that teacher retention/attrition decisions were significantly related to the quality of school facilities, even when controlling for other factors that might be perceived to impact attrition (Buckley et al., 2004). One third of Chicago teachers and more than half of the DC teachers were dissatisfied with their physical working conditions. Factors that most directly affected the quality of teacher work life included indoor air quality (IAQ), thermal controls, noise level and acoustics, adequate classroom lighting, and the amount of natural daylight. Teachers who perceived a detrimental effect on their health due to building conditions, or who were stressed by high noise levels, poor acoustics, and lack of thermal controls were more likely to seek employment elsewhere. In some other study on teacher policy and management in fragile and conflict-affected situations, World Bank (1995), argued that teachers grow increasingly de-motivated when they work and live in an environment where they consistently have insufficient resources to accomplish what is expected of them. They reviewed issues such as class sizes, workload, teaching resources, school infrastructure, status, security context, and working and living conditions as factors that affect teachers' levels of motivation.

Beyond the physical conditions of a school, social dynamics also affect teacher satisfaction, commitment, and behaviour (Tarter, Sabo & Hoy, 1995). Teacher attitudes and behaviours have been directly linked to student achievement. Among middle school teachers, teacher affiliation as well as collegial and committed behaviours was moderately related to student achievement (Hoy & Sabo, 1998). For high school teachers, disengaged and frustrated teacher behaviours were negatively correlated to achievement (Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991).

Relating to professional status as a motivator, Bennell (2004) noted that teachers in most developing countries are „semi-professionals“ mainly because of their relatively low levels of education and training compared to other professional occupations such as doctors, engineers and lawyers; and due to the sheer size of the teaching force, the teaching profession has become „employment of the last resort“ among university graduates and secondary school leavers in many countries (Salifu & Agbenyega, 2013). Consequently, teachers often lack a strong, long-term commitment to teaching as a vocation.

Pertaining to the influences of motivation on students“ academic achievement, one realises that attention needs to be given to Teachers“ Motivation to ensure quality teaching. In the context of this study, students“ academic achievement refers to the use of disciplinary knowledge with positive relationships with students in the classroom that lead to desirable learning outcomes. It comes about as a result of the existence of a conducive working environment coupled with the availability of adequate resources and all that relates to teachers“ motivation at the disposal of both teachers.

## **Motivational Theories**

Many great personalities have successfully contributed their quota when they accordingly propounded theories in different ages to help better understand or solve the problem of motivation. It is true that each of the theories has not been without criticisms. However, the researcher still deemed it appropriate to acknowledge their contributions; if nothing at all, they made attempts. It is not that they were at fault or their judgments were not right but the issue is, human beings are the most complex of all creatures and so, dealing with them is full of complexities.

In this work, by choice, the researcher considered in detail four theories, namely, Maslow's Theory of Need, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Expectancy Theory and Equity Theory as they have some bearing on this work. Broadly, these four theories belong to two categories, content and process theories. The others, just be mentioned for the sake of it, include Needs for Achievement, Affiliation, and Power, and Attribution Theory. Content theory assumes that all individuals possess the same set of needs and therefore prescribe the characteristics that ought to be present in jobs. In other words, it states that motivation is essentially about taking action to satisfy needs, and identifies the main needs that influence behaviour (Armstrong, 2007). Need theory was originated by Maslow (1954), and in their two-factor model, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1957) listed needs which they termed "satisfier". Process theory focuses on psychological processes which affect motivation, with reference to expectations (Vroom, cited in Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007), goals (Latham and Locke, cited in Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001) and perception of equity. Process theories stress the difference in people's needs and focus on the cognitive processes that create these differences.



## **Maslow's Hierarchy of Need Theory**

Abraham Maslow was a psychologist. He posited that individuals are motivated to satisfy unsatisfied wishes from a hierarchy of physiological, safety and security, social affiliation, esteem and recognition to self-actualisation, (Kim, as cited in Azigwe (2009)). Maslow rooted his theory on some basic principles. Bame (1991, p. 72) lists these principles as follows:

1. The “need network” for most people is very complex, with a number of needs affecting the behaviour of an individual at any one time.
2. In order of significance, there is a hierarchical arrangement of needs from basic physiological needs to the complex self-actualisation needs.
3. That, not until the lowest level needs are met, a person cannot strive to fulfil a higher need up in the hierarchy, such as self-esteem needs
4. A need ceases to be a motivator once it is fulfilled.
5. There are many more ways to satisfy higher-level needs than lower level needs.

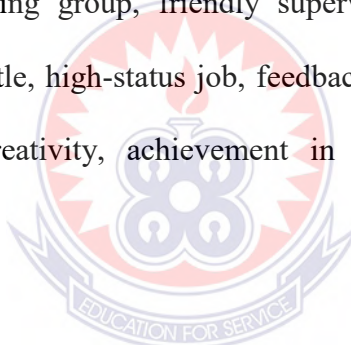
### **Explanation of terms**

- Self- actualisation needs- the need to realise one’s full potential as a human being. Examples are giving people opportunity to use their skills and abilities fully. Yeboah (2010) in an unpublished thesis put forward that self-actualisation needs refer to the need for growth, advancement, creativity, and challenges.
- Esteem needs- the need to feel good about one’s self and one’s capabilities, to be respected, recognised and appreciated. For instance, by granting promotions and recognising accomplishments.



- Belongingness needs- need for social interaction, friendship, affection, and love. Examples are good interpersonal relations and organising social function such as company picnics and holidays parties.
- Safety needs- need for security, stability, and a safe environment. Examples include job security, adequate medical benefits and safe working conditions.
- Physiological needs- basic needs for things such as food, water and shelter that must be met in order for a person to survive (Jones and George, 2008, p. 346 )

With reference to this theory, Steers and Porter (1991) suggest the following general organisational factors as important in satisfying different needs. They are: pay, pleasant working conditions, cafeteria, safe working conditions, company benefits, job security, cohesive working group, friendly supervision, professional associations, social recognition, job title, high-status job, feedback from the job itself, challenging job, opportunity for creativity, achievement in work and advancement in the organisation.



### **Herzberg's Two-factor Theory**

Adopting an approach different from Maslow's and Alderfer's, Frederick Herzberg focuses on two factors:

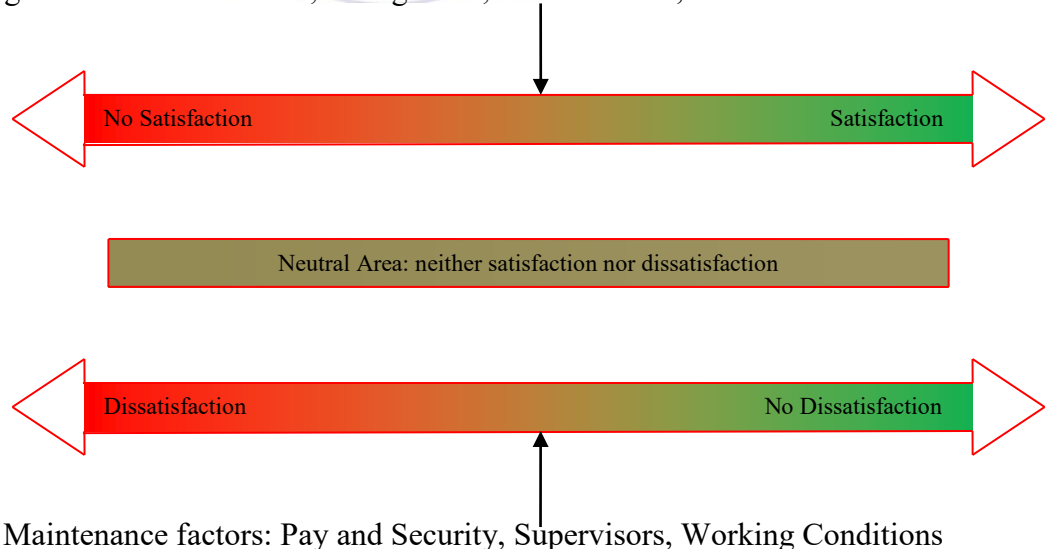
1. outcomes that can lead to high levels of motivation and job satisfaction and
2. outcomes that can prevent people from being dissatisfied.

According to Herzberg's motivator – hygiene theory, people have two sets of needs or requirements. That is, motivator needs and hygiene needs. His basic tenet is that being satisfied is different from being dissatisfied, (as reported in Yeboah, 2010). Motivator needs are related to the nature of the work itself and how challenging it is. Outcomes such as interesting work, autonomy, responsibility, recognition,

achievement, being able to grow and develop on the job help to satisfy motivator needs (Mullins, 2007). To have a highly motivated and satisfied workforce, Herzberg suggested managers should take steps to ensure that employees' motivator needs are met (Jones & George, 2008).

Those factors that are related to dissatisfaction are called hygiene or dissatisfier or maintenance factors. This is due to the fact that these factors are all related to the context (environment) of the job (Archer, Adentwi & Sam, 2008). They are also referred to as the extrinsic factors of motivation. Herzberg maintained that if these maintenance factors are present in the work situation, the employee will not necessarily be either satisfied or motivated. He or she will simply not be dissatisfied. If these factors are not forthcoming, the employee will be satisfied. Herzberg concluded that the opposite of job dissatisfaction was not job satisfaction. In effect, the hygiene factors are related to job dissatisfaction but not to satisfaction, and it makes up a continuum ranging from dissatisfaction to no dissatisfaction as shown in Figure 2.1.

Motivating Factors: Achievement, Recognition, Advancement, etc



**Figure 2.1: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: Satisfaction versus Dissatisfaction**

Source: Kinicki (2003, p. 268)

## **Expectancy Theory**

Expectancy Theory suggests that motivation depends on two things: how much we want something and how likely we think we are to get it. Thus, persons are able to calculate expectancies and instrumentalities, and will behave accordingly. Vroom (1964) pointed out that the following factors influence individual's expectancy perception: self-esteem, self-efficacy, previous success at the task, help from supervisors and subordinates alike, information necessary to complete the task and good materials and equipment to work with.

## **Assumptions**

Expectancy theory rests on four basic assumptions. They are:

1. It assumes that behaviour is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and the environment.
2. That people make decisions about their own behaviour in organisations.
3. That different people have different types of needs, desires and goals.
4. That people make choices from among alternative plans of behaviour based on their perceptions of the extent to which a given action will lead to desired outcome.

Peretomode (1991), referring to the works of some others, indicated that Vroom based his theory on three important concepts or variables, namely, expectancy, instrumentality and valence. They are derived from the relationship between efforts, performances and outcomes or rewards (Kreitner & Kinick, 1998). Expectancy is perceived action-outcome relationship that can vary in strength from the certainty that the act will result in the outcome.

Outcomes, according to Galbraith and Cummings, as reported in Peretomode (1991) are the perceived results of actions or of other result. Outcomes can be classified as either direct or indirect. Direct outcomes also known as first level outcomes are the immediate results of actions, the intents of the action. Indirect outcomes (second level outcomes) are the remote or incidental results of actions. Instrumentality refers to the perceived relationship between performance direct outcome and outcomes or reward (indirect outcomes). So, Silver, as cited in Peretomode (1991) has observed that the instrumentality construct highlights the notion that direct outcomes of action can be viewed as a means toward the accomplishment of goals or ends. That is, direct outcomes are the ends of particular action but may also be the means (instrumentalities) for attaining other ends. Whether an outcome is an end in itself or a means toward other ends is solely a matter of individual perception.

Valence simply means a person's preference for something. Technically, it refers to the perceived positive or negative value, worth, or attractiveness that an individual ascribes to potential outcomes, rewards or incentives for working in an organisation".

### **ERG Theory**

Clayton P. Alderfer (1972) is an American psychologist who extended and reformulated Maslow's theory. As a matter of fact, his theory can be considered as a variant of Maslow's theory. However, contradictory to Maslow's, his theory was developed specifically for explaining work behaviour in organisational settings (Steers, Porter & Bigley, 1996). Alderfer argued that the five need categories in Maslow's theory could be merged into three main categories, being "Existence",

“Relatedness”, “Growth”. Hence, the name of the theory (ERG) is adopted from the combination of the first letter of each need category (Hume, 1998).

The need of “Existence” refers to all forms of basic material and physiological needs required to maintain human existence. For example, the need for eating and drinking and other material needs in the work setting, like the need for pay, fringe benefits, and physical safety (Schneider & Alderfer, 1973). “Relatedness” is the need for meaningful interpersonal relations in the work settings with superiors, peers, and subordinates. However, the basic quality that distinguishes the relatedness needs from existence needs is that one cannot satisfy the relatedness apart from others, thus it cannot be satisfied without mutuality (Schneider & Alderfer, 1973). “Growth” needs are associated with the development of one’s potential (Steers et al., 1996). Schneider and Alderfer (1973) argued that satisfaction of this category occurs when a person engages problems which call upon him to make the most of his capacities and to build up new capabilities.

Although the ERG theory may seem to have much in common with the work of Maslow, his work has some substantial differences. Alderfer agreed with Maslow that when people satisfy their lower needs, they tended to move up the hierarchy from “Existence” needs, to “Relatedness” needs, and finally to “Growth” needs. However, unlike Maslow’s hierarchy, Alderfer argued that all different levels of needs may be activated and operated in a given person at the same time (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001). Therefore, any category of needs can be activated without the condition of fulfilling the other needs. In other words, the individual can be motivated by his desire for money (an Existence need), interpersonal relations (a Relatedness need), and by recognition (a Growth need)

simultaneously (Brooks, 2003). Accordingly, the order of the needs may differ from one person to another according to his preferences and own framework.

The flexibility of the ERG theory enables it to explain a wider range of human behaviour. For example, why some people seek to satisfy their needs for achievement or recognition, or can achieve a high level of self-actualisation although they may have a very low salary. Furthermore, Alderfer's ERG theory suggests that there is also a frustration-regression sequence, as when a higher level need remains unfulfilled and it appears difficult to be fulfilled, the individual may regress to lower level need which will drive his behaviour. For example, if an individual cannot satisfy his growth needs, frustration regression occurs, causing the individual to focus on fulfilling his relatedness or existence needs (Steers, 1996).

Overall, ERG theory can be considered as a refinement of the hierarchy need theory; it helps management and administration to understand its employees' behaviour and to realise that their employees have a set of needs that can be satisfied simultaneously. Accordingly, they can increase employees' motivation by understanding the nature of the relationship between these needs; for example, if management cannot satisfy the growth needs of their employees, they should redirect their efforts toward the other two need categories, then steps must be taken to fulfill the growth needs again (Samson & Daft, 2002).

However, few researchers have attempted to examine the ERG theory (Luthans, 1995, Steers et al., 1996). For example, Okpara (1996) investigated the level of job satisfaction among 600 Nigerian managers and found that pay (an Existence need) had a significant positive impact on managers' job satisfaction, and thus, their job performance. In a similar study, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) investigated the relationship between need satisfaction and job performance of 304

top managers and 213 frontline employees in the banking, retail, security and legal industries in South Africa. They found that higher-order needs, such as growth needs, can motivate both top managers and front-line workers and thus increase their job performance through increasing their self-esteem. Moreover, Rauschenberger et al. (1980) have examined both Maslow and ERG theories and show a high positive pattern between the different need categories of both theories. This disconfirms the dominance concept of the hierarchy theory and, at the same time, supports the ERG theory that any category of needs can take priority over the others despite the fulfilment of the others.

### **Equity Theory (Inequity Theory)**

This theory suggested that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for performance. The theory is based on the thesis that a major factor in job motivation, performance and satisfaction is the individual's evaluation of the equity or fairness of the rewards he or she is receiving, postulated by (Adams, 1965). Hodgetts and Altman, cited in Peretomode (1991) pointed out that the theory holds that in order to be motivated, individuals must believe that the rewards they are receiving are fair. Fairness over here is as to whether their salaries (rewards) commensurate with the work they are doing and is fair when compared to the salaries (rewards) others are receiving for the work they are doing.

Verily, the researcher accepted that the feeling of inequity could stimulate motivation. However, the concern is the bases upon which the employees make such comparisons. For instance, Equity Theory fundamentally considers pay as its basis of comparison at the neglect of others such as differences in company policies and job description, which the researcher speculated is a great limitation.

## Ways of Restoring Equity

When employees feel or perceive that inequity exists, a state of tension develops within them. The existence of perceived inequity creates tension that motivates most people to react to restore equity. In the work of Jones and George (2008), it was mentioned that when people experience underpayment inequity, they may be motivated to lower their input by reducing their working hours or may increase their outcome by asking for promotion or a rise in pay. However, per this research, the researcher postulate that people in trying to restore equity react either physically or by thinking (thought), all in the area of either positive or negative reaction. Below is the detail.

- Positive Reaction

Physical Action- when people experience underpayment inequity, they may be motivated to increase their inputs by increasing their working hours, putting forth more effort on the job, being punctual and regular, etc. so that their employers will realise and appreciate their performances. They will react similarly in the case of overpayment inequity.

Thought- when people experience underpayment inequity, they may change their perceptual comparison by believing that their areas of work or input of their “rivals” is of much importance or greater impart.

- Negative Reaction

Physical Action- when people experience underpayment inequity, they may be motivated to lower their inputs by reducing their working hours, putting forth less effort on the job, absenteeism, lateness, quitting the job, increased dissatisfaction and attempt to get compensation raised.



Thought- when people experience underpayment inequity, they may change their perceptual comparison by thinking that their areas of work or input are less important or their basis of comparisons are wrong. Consequently, they will end up being content and restore equity thereof. Peretomode (1991) provided the Figure 2.3 to mathematically explain how inequity is restored.

EQUITY EVALUATIONS		
O/IP= ratio		O/IRP= ratio result
OP/IP	=	ORP/IRP * Equity
OP/IP	> (greater than)	ORP/IRP * Inequity (Over-reward)
OP/IP	< (less than)	ORP/IRP * Inequity (Under-reward)
IP= inputs of person A ; OP= outcomes of person B; IRP= input of reference person B; ORP= outcomes of reference person B		

**Figure 2.2: Equity Theory of Motivation**

**Source:** Jones and George (2008, p. 281)

### McGregor's Theory X and Y

McGregor's Theory X and Y are essentially a set of assumptions about human behaviour in the work place. McGregor saw two noticeable sets of assumptions which are made by managers or administrators about their employees. Theory X emphasises and assumes that employees or individuals are inherently lazy, requiring coercion and control and avoiding responsibility. It also assumes that employees are only seeking security. McGregor's theory Y sees workers or people in a more favourable light. Employees are seen as enjoying work which is considered as natural as rest or play. They do not have to be controlled or coerced so long as they are committed to the

organisation. This theory claims that people or workers will not only accept, but will also seek responsibility (Robbins, 2001).

### **Goal-Setting Theory**

The philosophy behind goal-setting theory is that motivation is driven primarily by the goals or objectives that individual set for himself. Unlike the expectancy theory where the satisfactory outcome is the prime motivator, the goal theory suggests that it is the goal itself that provides the driven force. Locke (1975) first proposed the idea that working towards goals was in itself a motivator. His research indicated that performance improved when individuals set specific rather than vague goals for themselves. Locke further maintains that an individual's motivation is enhanced when feedback on performance is available. Gordon (1965) observes that goal setting focuses behaviour and motivates employees. As people receive on-going feedback on progress towards achieving their goals, their motivation increase and remains high. Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) contend that more recently, goal setting has been promoted through a widely used management technique called Management by Objectives (MBO). MBO is management system that incorporates participation in decision making, goal setting, and objective feedback. The goal setting theory has been successful in improving performance because the method directs attention, regulates effort, and increases persistence (Kreitneer & Kinicki, 1998).

### **Reinforcement Theory**

Reinforcement theory of motivation suggests that a given behaviour is a function of the consequences of earlier behaviour. Thus, all behaviour is determined to some extent by the rewards or punishments obtained from previous behaviour, which have the effect of reinforcing current actions. The two underlying assumptions of the

theory are that human behaviour which is followed by a pleasant consequence is more likely to be repeated. The other assumption is that if the consequence of a particular behaviour is unpleasant, the individual will tend to modify that behaviour. The four basic reinforcement strategies are:

1. Positive reinforcement - administration of positively rewarding consequence following desired behaviour.
2. Negative reinforcement – removal of negative consequences following desired behaviour.
3. Extinction- withdrawal of positive reward or reinforcing consequences of an undesirable behaviour.
4. Punishment - administration of negative consequences following undesirable behaviour.

Robbins (2001) argued that reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens to the person when he or she takes some action. He further argued that because it does not concern itself with what initiates behaviour, it is not strictly speaking a theory of motivation. However, Robbins observes that it does provide a powerful means of analysis of what controls behaviour. Consequently, it is included in this discussion of motivation.

The different theories discussed provide a framework with which to direct attention to the problem of how best to motivate people to engage in an activity or work. It is important to note that the theories are not conclusive. They all have their criticisms or have been subjected to alternative findings which purport to contradict the original ideas. However, the different theories provide a basis for study and discussion and for a review of the most effective motivational style (Mullins, 2002). Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) argued that motivational theories present managers and

administrators with a psychological puzzle because there is no motivation theory that is appropriate in all situations; all the theories are applicable in improving employee effort.

## **Leadership**

“Leadership is the eighth wonder of the world” according to (Burnison, cited in Naidoo, Lowies, & Pillay, 2014); and he suggested that it is easier to see and feel leadership than to actually define leadership. Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono, and Schultz, cited in Naidoo, et al. (2014) define leadership as the ability of an individual to coax the behaviour of others (individuals or teams, staff, and colleagues) into achieving a desired result, goal or objective. Leadership can also be defined as the ability to persuade others towards the achievement of a goal or objective (Luthans, cited in Naidoo, et. al., 2014). Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum and Staude, as well as Jones and George, all cited in Naidoo, et al., (2014) explain that leadership is a process of achieving organisational goals through resources and staff (either teams or individuals) and is not necessarily a subset of management. Vinkovic, cited in Naidoo, et al., (2014) points out that the similarity in all leadership definitions is that leadership is a process of influencing the activities of others” and involves a leader, a situation and the staff or followers.

Hersey et al. and Vinkovic, all cited in Naidoo, et al., (2014) agree that leadership style is influenced by their decision making ability, personality, the working environment and the situation at hand, thus leadership is all about the approach adopted by the leader. The factors that affect the situation is the leader, the readiness of the staff or followers, the supervisor and acquaintances, the organisational culture, the job requirements and the time available to make a decision. There is a

wide range of leadership styles that a leader may choose to use and these include motivational leadership.

### **Transactional Leadership**

Bradford and Lippitt (1945) designated laissez-faire leadership as a leader's disregard of supervisory duties and lack of guidance to subordinates. Laissez-faire leaders offer little backing to their subordinates and are inattentive to productivity or the necessary completion of duties. Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) studied boys' clubs in which adults were taught to lead each group as either a laissez-faire leader or a democratic leader. Laissez-faire leaders gave their groups complete freedom and offered little guidance. These groups proved to be confused and disorganised, and their work was less efficient and of poorer quality than the work of groups whose leaders displayed different behaviours. From the outset, laissez-faire has proven itself to be the most inactive, least effective, and most frustrating leadership style. Katz, Macoby, Gurin and Floor (1951) studied railroad section groups that were deemed to be unproductive. The leaders of these groups gave complete control to the group members and the members did not respond to the challenge. Studies show that policies and practices that reflect non-involvement of supervisors lead to low productivity, resistance to change, and low quality of work (Murnighan & Leung, 1976).

Management-by-exception has its roots in contingent reinforcement theories (Bass, 1990) whereby subordinates are rewarded or punished for a chosen action. Leaders practicing management-by-exception do not get involved with subordinates until failures or deviations in workflow occur (Bass, 1990). Intervention by the leader ensues only when a failure takes place and punishment or corrective action is necessary. The leader sets up pre-determined actions for specific failures and enforces

the punishments when necessary. Passive leaders incline to get involved only when necessary and refuse to set a plan of action. Such leaders expect only the status quo from subordinates, do not inspire exceptional work and wait to be notified of failures. Active leaders, unlike their passive counterparts, regularly search for failures and devise systems that warn of impending failures before they occur.

Teachers, being leaders who practice management by exception routinely provide negative feedback because they only initiate contact with subordinates when failures occur. This action stimulates subordinates to uphold the status quo and strive for perfection at their job. However, the behaviour does not encourage or foster growth of the person or job performance. In a management-by-exception environment, any non-routine circumstances will require leader intervention, because employees have not been encouraged to solve problems and have not been given the autonomy to develop confidence or to learn from experiences (Bass, 1990).

Leaders and followers both participate in a contingent rewards approach to management, because it reflects behaviour that is reciprocal in nature (Howell and Avolio, 1993). Each party agrees to a system of rewards and works to meet mutual expectations for certain achievements or behaviours (Bass, 1990). This approach stems partly from reinforcement theory and has been central to leadership theory and practice for many years. Bass (1990) described many examples from early Greek mythology in which contingent rewards were used by the gods. Blanchard and Johnson (1985) described transactional management as a simple process of creating strong expectations with employees, along with clear indications of what they will get in return for meeting these expectations. Most research has linked contingent rewards to positive organisational outcomes (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

## **Charismatic Leadership**

Charisma is believed to be the fundamental factor in the transformational process and is described as the leader's ability to generate great symbolic power. Weber (1947) first described the concept of charismatic leadership as stemming from subordinates' (or followers') perceptions that the leader is endowed with exceptional skills or talents. In its origins, charismatic leadership was a focus in studying political and world leaders (House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991). Research of charismatic leadership has consistently found significant relationships with follower trust, effort, and commitment (Lowe et al., 1996).

## **Transformational Leadership**

Bass (as cited in Barbuto, 2005) espoused a theory of transformational leadership that built on the earlier works of Burns (1978). The degree to which leaders are transformational was measured in terms of the leader's effect on followers. Followers of transformational leaders feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward leaders and are motivated to perform extra-role behaviours (Katz & Kahn, cited in Barbuto, 2005). Transformational leaders have been shown to increase followers' trust satisfaction and citizenship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Morrison & Fetter, cited in Barbuto, 2005). Leaders, high in transformational behaviours achieve maximum performance from followers because they are able to inspire followers to raise their criteria for success and develop innovative problem solving skills (Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

The transformational leader-follower relationship is viewed as one of mutual stimulation and is operationalised with three distinct characteristics: intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, and inspirational motivation (Bass &



Avolio, 1990). Individualised consideration describes leaders acting in the role of employee mentors (Bass, reported in Barbuto, 2005). Inspirational motivation defines leaders passionately, communicating a future idealistic organisation that can be shared. Intellectual stimulation describes leaders encouraging employees to approach old and familiar problems in new ways.

The motives inherent in the full-range leadership model have been examined surprisingly little during the past 20 years of transformational leadership research. This project, therefore, tests the specific relationships between leaders' sources of work motivation and the full range leadership behaviours used by leaders in the workplace. The next section reviews the motivation literature and develops the expected relationships between the variables of interest.

### **Association of Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

James MacGregor Burns writing in his book, „Leadership“, was the first to put forward the concept of „transforming leadership“. To Burns, transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (Burns, 1978). Burns went on to further define it by suggesting that, transforming leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with other in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Burns (1978) drew upon the humanistic psychology movement in his writing upon „transforming leadership“ by proposing that the transforming leader shapes, alters, and elevates the motives, values and goals of followers achieving significant change in the process. He proposed that there is a special power entailed in transforming leadership with leaders armed with principles [that] may ultimately transform both leaders and followers into persons who jointly adhere to modal values



and end-values. Burns saw the power of transforming leadership as more noble and different from charismatic leadership, which he termed „heroic“ leadership, and executive or business leadership. Despite this, it is surprising that most of the application of Burns“ work has been in these two types of leadership.

Bernard Bass developed Burns“ concept of transforming leadership in „Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations“ into „transformational leadership“ where the leader transforms followers – the direction of influence to Bass is thus one-way, unlike Burns“ who saw it as potentially a two-way process. Bass, however, dealt with the transformational style of executive leadership that incorporates social change, a facet missing from Burns“ work. For Bass, „transformational leaders“ may:

1. expand a follower“s portfolio of needs
2. transform a follower“s self-interest
3. increase the confidence of followers
4. elevate followers“ expectations
5. heighten the value of the leader“s intended outcomes for the follower
6. encourage behavioural change
7. motivate others to higher levels of personal achievement (Maslow“s „self-actualisation“).

Tichy and Devanna in their book „Transformational Leadership“ built further on the work of Burns and Bass in organisational and work contexts. They described the hybrid nature of transformational as not due to charisma. It is a behavioural process capable of being learned (Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Bass and Avolio suggested that transformational leadership is closer to the prototype of leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader, and it is more likely to provide a role model with which subordinates want to identify (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Both kinds of leadership are indispensable. Transactional leadership has remained the organisational model for many people and organisations have not progressed into or encouraged the transformational role needed to meet the challenges of our changing times. The goal of transformational leadership is to „transform“ people and organisations in a literal sense – to change them in mind and heart; enlarge vision, insight, and understanding; clarify purposes; make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles, or values; and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leaders display behaviours associated with five transformational styles:



**Table 2.1: Transformational Leadership Styles and Behaviours**

Transformationa	Leader Behaviour
1) <b>Idealised Behaviours:</b> living one's ideals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talk about their most important values and beliefs</li> <li>• Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</li> <li>• Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</li> <li>• Champion exciting new possibilities</li> <li>• Talk about the importance of trusting each other</li> </ul>
2) <b>Inspirational Motivation:</b> inspiring others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talk optimistically about the future</li> <li>• Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</li> <li>• Articulate a compelling vision of the future</li> <li>• Express confidence that goals will be achieved</li> <li>• Provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider</li> </ul>
3) <b>Intellectual Stimulation:</b> stimulating others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Take a stand on controversial issues</li> <li>• Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</li> <li>• Seek differing perspectives when solving problems</li> <li>• Get others to look at problems from many different angles</li> <li>• Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</li> </ul>
4) <b>Individualised Consideration:</b> coaching and development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems</li> <li>• Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been questioned before</li> <li>• Spend time teaching and coaching</li> <li>• Treat others as individuals rather than just as members of the group</li> <li>• Consider individuals as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</li> <li>• Help others to develop their strengths</li> <li>• Listen attentively to others' concerns</li> <li>• Promote self-development</li> </ul>
5) <b>Idealised Attributes:</b> Respect, trust, and faith	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Instill pride in others for being associated with them</li> <li>• Go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group</li> <li>• Act in ways that build others' respect</li> <li>• Display a sense of power and competence</li> <li>• Make personal sacrifices for others' benefit</li> <li>• Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome</li> </ul>

Source: **Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 94)**

Transformational leadership is a process in which the leaders take actions to try to increase their associates' awareness of what is right and important, to raise their associates' motivational maturity and to move their associates to go beyond the associates' own self-interests for the good of the group, the organisation, or society.

Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided.

The transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways. These leaders attempt to optimise development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimise the development of their organisation as well. High performing associates build high performing organisations.

Hooper and Potter (1997) extend the notion of transformational leadership to identify seven key competences of “transcendent leaders”: those able to engage the emotional support of their followers and thus effectively transcend change. The competences are:

1. Setting direction
2. Setting an example
3. Communication
4. Alignment
5. Bringing out the best in people
6. The leader as a change agent
7. Providing decision in a crisis and on the ambiguous

## Leadership Styles

Leadership as a key factor in determining organisational success has been studied extensively in the past century even in the management field (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Current leadership theories indicate that leadership behaviours can be categorised into two main styles: transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Bass and Avolio, 2000).

Transformational leadership is the most studied leadership style across disciplines. Transformational leaders are charismatic. They motivate subordinates and appeal to their ideals and moral values by creating and representing an inspiring vision of the future (Bass & Avolio, 1997). This form of leadership involves the creation of an emotional attachment between leaders and employees. Transformational leaders take a real interest in the well-being of their employees. As suggested by Jin (2010), transformational leadership integrates the elements of –empathy, compassion, sensitivity, relationship building, and innovation. It fosters a climate of trust, nurtures employees’ confidence, and encourages their individual development. In addition, transformational leadership includes the elements of participative decision making and sharing of power, as noted by Aldoory and Toth (2004).

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Morrman and Fetter (cited in Barbuto, 2005) suggested that six dimensions define transformational leadership behaviour: identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, setting high performance expectations, providing individualised support, and promoting intellectual stimulation. Identifying and articulating a vision involves leaders identifying new opportunities for the unit or the company, and developing, articulating, and inspiring employees with the vision of

future. Providing an appropriate model refers to leaders setting examples for employees that are consistent with the values they hold. Fostering the acceptance of group goals means promoting cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward common goals. High performance expectation refers to leaders demonstrating their expectations for excellence, quality, and high performance for employees. Providing individualised support means that leaders respect employees and attend to their personal feelings, needs, and well-being. Intellectual stimulation refers to leaders stimulating employees to challenge their status quo and to –think creatively, take risks, and participate intellectually (Harms & Crede, 2010).

Transactional leadership is an exchange process. It is a matter of contingent reinforcement of employees based on performances. It motivates subordinates by appealing to their personal desires, based on instrumental economic transactions. Transactional leaders generally use organisational bureaucracy, policy, power, and authority to maintain control; this style of leadership is occasionally referred to as authoritative (Bennet, 2009). Previous leadership scholars have identified contingent reward, which involves leaders clarifying roles and task expectations and providing contingent rewards on the fulfilment of contractual obligations, as the principal behaviour to represent transactional leadership because it captures the exchange notion fundamental to transactional leader behaviour. The transactions or exchanges included in contingent reward may include tangible (e.g., pay increases) or intangible (e.g., recognition) commodities.

Transactional and transformational leadership have been widely recognised as not mutually exclusive (Werder & Holtzhausen, 2009). As pointed out by Vera and Crossan (2004), good leaders know how to switch between a transformational and transactional leadership style in accordance with the situation (e.g., the environment,

strategy). Effective leaders can maximise their influence by employing both leadership styles. Furthermore, some scholars (Avolio, 1999) argued that transactions lay the foundation for transformations. Transformational leadership builds on –the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers, which is referred to as the argumentation effect (Bass, 1998). Therefore, a positive relationship is between transformational and transactional leadership styles.

### **Situational Leadership**

Situational leadership theory is based on the interaction among the dimensions of relationship behaviour and task behaviour, as well as follower readiness or maturity for performing a certain task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). In their view, followers are the most critical factor in leadership proceedings. Thus, as followers differ, so does the suitable method of management.

Northouse (2001) noted that the situational leadership examines how leaders can become effective in many different types of organisational settings involving a wide variety of organisational tasks. Further, directive behaviour involves clearly telling people what to do, how to do it, where to do it, and when to do it, and then loosely supervising their performance. Supportive behaviour involves listening to people, providing support and encouragement for their efforts, and then facilitating their involvement in problem-solving and decision making (Blanchard, 1991).

Northouse (2001) showed that the effective of leadership occurs when the leader can accurately diagnose the development level of subordinates in a task situation and then exhibit the prescribed leadership style that matches that situation. Blanchard (1991) explained that the key to being a situational leader

rests primarily on two variables. First the degree of difficulty of the task, second the development level of the person doing the task. Development level is the degree of competence and commitment an employee has to perform a particular task without supervision. Competence is a function of knowledge or skills which can be gained from education, training or experience; Commitment is a combination of confidence self-assuredness and motivation interest and enthusiasm (Blanchard, 1991). Thus, the amount of direction provided will depend on the development level of the employee and the task at hand.

### **Learning**

The process of acquiring this knowledge, skills and attitudes is labelled as learning. Learning is a process as well as the actual change in behaviour (Zook, 2001). The well-established definition of learning by most Psychologists is relatively permanent change in behaviour due to practice or experience. Moreover, Heinich (1996) defined learning as the development of new knowledge, new skills and new attitudes as individuals interact with the information and the environments. Learning is fundamentally an unobservable, internal, mental construction of knowledge (Zook, 2001). The first definition focuses on behavioural learning theory and the second and third focuses on cognitive and constructivist learning theories respectively. However, they all result in the same thing that is the development or construction of (new) knowledge, skills and attitudes result in behaviour change.

As far as learning is concerned, there have been several dominant theories of learning. Different learning theories have different implications for learning. The learning theories include Behaviourist, Cognitivist, Humanist and Constructivist and their implications on learning.



## **Humanism**

The most notable humanist theorist was John Dewey (Dewey, 1998). Other humanist education theorists include Carl Rogers (1990) and Abraham Maslow (1970). These argued that people learn by making their own discoveries, at their own pace and direction, with appropriate support. They envision teachers as facilitators of student-centred learning. It is based on the Socratic discursive approach where teachers discuss, thereby assisting the development of critical thinking. Learning is viewed as coming from experience and self-discovery, which is followed by some form of reflection on that experience with students at the centre of the learning experience. Autonomous learning is advocated, that is the student taking ownership of the new insights.

Dewey, a pragmatist in the United States (Hildebrand, 2008) described learning as learning to think. He advocated the benefits of having an experience and then reflecting on it, the only true test of learning being its practical result. He viewed education as being linked to social growth and contributions to society in general (Dewey, 1998). Dewey rejected authoritarian teaching methods, and regarded effective education as the ability to solve problems. He indicated how philosophical ideas can work in everyday life. He believed that educational principles should be emphasised by learning through activities and experience. He placed emphasis on the role of the teacher, and reflective practice, adopting a pragmatic approach to education (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998).

Abraham Maslow's (1970) theory of motivation revolves around the assumption that there are levels that a learner must progress through in order to reach a state of actualisation. This hierarchy of needs" model has been enormously influential. Carl Rogers" psychotherapy practices were client-centred, generally

called „talking therapy“. He argued that deep self-discovery significantly influences behaviour and attitudes (Rogers, 1996). Eric Berne’s Transactional Analysis places people into one of three ego states: Parent, Adult or Child. He argued that communication between people can go seriously amiss if attitudes become confused or lines become crossed (Berne, 1964). This theory of transaction relates to how people interact, and is commonly referred to within GES. If a teacher adopts the authoritative or critical parent’s ego state in difficult situations, it can be a source of conflict in dealing with the learner (pupil). Teachers are encouraged to stay in the adult state when communicating with pupil.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

This chapter presents the methods and procedures used in collecting and analysing data for the study. It describes the theoretical and philosophical claim, research design, population, sample and sampling procedure. It further describes the research instrument employed for the study, pilot-test of instrument, administration and procedure for data collection and analysis.

#### Philosophical Claim

Research is not „neutral“, but reflects a range of the researcher’s personal interests, values, abilities, assumptions, aims and ambitions; all sums up to be researcher’s philosophy. Indeed, although philosophical ideas remain largely "hidden" in research (Slife & Williams, 1995), they still influence the practice of research and need to be identified (Creswell, 2003). In this sense, it is to some extent propelling for every researcher to declare his philosophical position in conducting a given research. Kusi (2012) posits that it is even “unacceptable for a post-graduate research student to start discussing methodological choices without looking at the theoretical and philosophical underpinning of such choices” (p. 11). For this research, the researcher assumed the positivist’s stand.

Creswell (1998) had put forward that the positivist position is grounded in the theoretical belief that there is an objective reality that can be known to the researcher, if he or she uses the correct methods and applies those methods in a correct manner. Specifically, “positivistic approaches are founded on a belief that the study of human behaviour should be conducted in the same way as studies conducted in the natural sciences” (Collis & Hussey, 2003, p.52).

The concept of Positivism is directly associated with the idea of objectivism. In this kind of philosophical approach, scientists give their viewpoint to evaluate social world with the help of objectivity in place of subjectivity (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). According to this paradigm, researchers are interested to collect general information and data from a large social sample instead of focusing on details of research. According to this position, the researcher's own beliefs have no value to influence the research study.

The philosophy of positivism has some strengths and weaknesses. Among the strengths include generalisability. They can be generalised at a larger degree, with which the data for the same issue with different social context can be collected. Again, due to its quantitative approach, future predictions can be made. It is useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made (Cohen et al., 2007). In addition, validity in positivism is retained by the vigilant use of methods. According to Cohen et al. (2007), a reliable instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time.

In spite of all the strengths that the philosophy of positivism has, there are still some weaknesses that come with it. For instance, it is difficult to totally detach oneself from the hypothesis. It is almost impossible, but if successful the researcher is being unjust to himself. According to Cohen et al. (2007), expression is instinctive; it should not be made dumb. An instance is that, it fails to take account of researcher's unique ability to interpret his experiences and represent them to others. Also, inaccuracy in scientific data is likely to alter the end-results of the hypothesis. This can occur in any of the methods being pursued because the participants may choose random answers, hence, not providing a researcher with the authentic responses.

The researcher, having gone through the strengths and weaknesses, still supported positivism as a research paradigm because its features of generalisability, predictions, validity and reliability, and parsimony helped the researcher to carry out the research which is general and not particular, so as to be applicable universally. Moreover, its precision and parsimony saves time and provides sample for brief writing.

### **Research Design**

An important aspect of any research is the design. It is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the initial questions of the study and, ultimately, to its conclusions (Sarantakos, 2005).

This study employed a correlational design which was intended to examine the role of intrinsic and extrinsic teacher motivation in Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. This method was adopted for the research because it was necessary to collect quantitative data to elucidate whether or not findings on the role of intrinsic and extrinsic teacher motivation in Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit, Adansi North would agree with existing relating relevant literature on the topic and previous research findings.

The choice of the quantitative research (correlational design) method was further influenced by the research purpose, the data collection instrument, the sampling technique employed and the procedure for data analysis (Creswell, 2012). Quantitative research approach involves numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomenon that those observations reflect (Babbie, 2005). This allows the collection of quantitative data and also enables the use of quantitative methods in the analysis of data. Quantitative

approach is also frequently characterised with the assumption that there is a single “truth” that exists, independent of human perception (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and it is categorised into experimental and non-experimental design (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005). Among the non-experimental is correlation design.

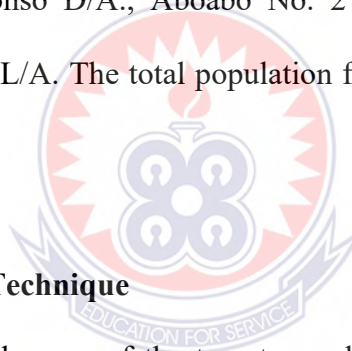
Correlational design provides “an opportunity for a researcher to predict scores and explain the relationship among variables” (Creswell, 2012, p. 338). Creswell explained that, “in correlational research designs, investigators use the correlation statistical test to describe and measure the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores” (p. 338). In correlational research, the investigator deliberately seeks to examine links (or relationships) between variables without introducing an intervention. It describes what exists at the moment, thus, conditions, practices, processes, structures, only to mention a few. Cohen et al., (2005) posited that the value of correlational research is its ability to teasing out simple relationships between factors and elements deemed to have some bearing on the phenomena in question in order to understand complexities characterising human behaviour. The purpose is often to generate hypotheses that can be tested in experimental research (Burns & Grove, 1999). This is typical of an explanatory form of correlational design.

An explanatory correlational research is a design in which the researcher is interested in the extent to which two variables (or more) co-vary, that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other (Creswell, 2003). It consists of a simple association between two or more variables. Various authors refer to explanatory correlational research as “relational” research (Cohen & Manion, 1994, p. 123), “accounting-for-variance studies” (Punch, 1998, p. 78), or “explanatory”

research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000, p. 360). Correlational research, however, does not bring to light the causes of a variation.

### **Population**

The target population of the study consisted of all teachers in public Junior High Schools (JHS) of Aboabo Educational Circuit, a circuit with 10 public JHSs. The population consisted of both males and females with varied age groups, marital status and different ranks and positions in the Ghana Education Service (GES). The accessible population was made up of eight public Junior High Schools in the Aboabo Educational Circuit. These schools were Fumso Ketewa L/A, Anomabo D/A, Nyankomase D/A, Saponso D/A., Aboabo No. 2 Methodist, Aboabo No. 2 D/A, Nsokote D/A, and Mem L/A. The total population from which the sample was drawn was 52 teachers.



### **Sample and Sampling Technique**

A sample is a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for generalising about the target population (Creswell, 2003). The rationale behind sampling is to ease a researcher's burden of trying to handle the entire population (especially, when the population is homogeneously characterised) which in most cases is very tedious, if not impossible and statistically not even prudent as it may cause some statistical errors. Nonetheless, though the sampling frame for this research, 50 respondents, was statistically large (Creswell, 2003), managerially, it was relatively small. Thus, it was within the control and manipulation of the researcher. If the opinion of Cohen et al. (2005), a sample size of thirty is held by many to be the minimum number of cases if researchers plan to use some form of statistical analysis

on their data. They suggest that researchers must obtain the minimum sample size that will accurately represent the population being targeted.

In this regard, the researcher “by exercising prudence and ensuring that the sample represents the wider features of the population with the minimum number of cases” (Cohen et al., 2005, p. 93) resolved to purposively consider 8 out of 10 schools. Respondents practically were selected using convenience and purposive.

The purposive sampling technique is a method where based on a decided sample size, respondents are selected from among total potential respondents with based on some specific criterion (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The condition was that, teachers and headmasters to be selected might have worked within the circuit for a minimum of one academic year. For the schools selected, they had the JHS status at least, three academic years ago. This was done to ensure that schools that were eventually selected, likewise, respondents who are teachers and headmasters have in the past contributed (whether positively or negatively) to the overall students’ Academic Achievement, thus, Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) within the Aboabo Educational Circuit, which for evidential purposes of learning, is operationalised by the researcher to be Leadership for Learning. Again, all female teachers, numbering 5 were purposively included to give a feminine voice to the research report.

With respect to the convenience sampling, it was so done to achieve an objective of having a statistically relatively large sample size which befits a correlational design. “In convenience sampling, the researcher selects participants because they are willing and available to be studied” (Creswell, 2003, pp. 145). „Convenience sampling, or as it is sometimes called, accidental or opportunity sampling involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and



continuing that process until the required sample size” Cohen et al., (2005, p. 103) of 50 respondents was to be obtained. At another end, Creswell (2003) suggested that approximately 30 participants were enough for a correlational study that relates variables. Convenience sampling was deemed appropriate for the work because the communities, hence, the schools within the educational circuit are quite wide apart from one another and are connected by deplorable road network. Moreover, the teachers within the circuit, by observation, were characterised by lateness to school, absenteeism, truancy and many others. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 summarises the targeted sample size (50), accessible sample size (27) and sampling techniques employed in this research.

**Table 3.1: Initial Sample size and sampling technique**

Respondents	Population	Targeted Sample Size	%	Sampling Technique
Public JHSs	10	8	80	Purposive
Female Teachers	5	5	100	Purposive
Male Teachers	45	45	100	Convenience

**Table 3.2: Final Sample size and sampling technique**

Respondents	Population	Accessible Sample Size	%	Sampling Technique
Public JHSs	10	8	80	Purposive
Female Teachers	5	2	40	Purposive
Male Teachers	45	25	56	Convenience

### **Instrumentation**

Questionnaire was the only instrument used to collect the relevant data to test the formulated research hypotheses to achieve the study’s objectives. Questionnaire was preferable to the researcher because it provides structured, often numerical data,

could be administered without the presence of the researcher, and affords researchers comparatively straightforward analysis (Wilson & McLean, 1994).

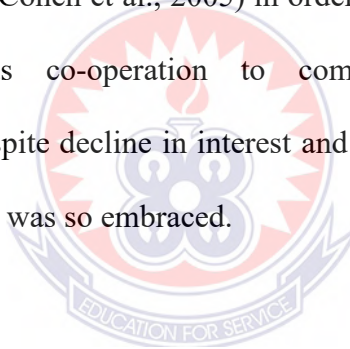
The questionnaire, though, could have been adopted for convenience sake (Cohen et al., 2005) was rather adapted to suit the context of the study with guidelines from related studies on "teachers' motivation" and "academic achievement" (Kenney, 2010; Badu-Nyarko, 2010; Akrofi, 2010; Vogt, 1999). Relevant thorough related literature reviewed as well as careful reference made to the research hypotheses and the study purpose aided in the design of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire, predominantly closed ended (Likert-type scale) was alienated into three sections (A, B, C). The closed-ended items were largely likert-type scale, thus sections „A“ being 7-point (ranging from „Entirely Agree“- „Entirely Disagree“) and „B“ being 5-point (also, ranging from „Not at all“- „Frequently, if not always“). Such a comparatively wide-ranged-options Likert-type scale was allowed respondents in partly to ensure validity and reliability of the instrument. Moreover, The five point scale was chosen because such a scale with middle (neutral response) ensures that respondents who are not sure of their motivation are not forced to make a definite choice which does not represent what they actually feel (Anderson, 1985).

Out of 64 items: Section „A“, measuring Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and Extrinsic Motivation (EM) had 30 items; Section „B“, measuring Leadership/Leadership for Learning had 21 items while Section „C“ had 13 items. Apart from items „C4“, part of „C6“ and „C12“, the researcher made use of closed-ended items to facilitate completion rate, to restrict respondents' responses, and to facilitate coding and analysis (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Oppenheim, (1992) supported this position as he alerted that highly structured, closed questions are useful, in that, they can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and

analysis. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample. The Likert-type scale was also important to show both the degree and direction of responses in line the purpose of the research (Albaum, Best & Hawkins, 1981).

Among the three sections of the instrument, „A“, „B“ and „C“, for the study, the last section, 'C' of the questionnaire was devoted to soliciting demographic data of respondents. This particular organisation was adapted following Sudman and Bradburn, (cited in Cohen et al., 2005) who explained that several nominal, demographic details might be considered personal and threatening by respondents, and thus, should have implications for their location within the questionnaire. Therefore, to ensure that initial sections („A“ and „B“) have high interest value, be simple, and encourage participation (Cohen et al., 2005) in order to achieve the covert purpose of respondents“ continuous co-operation to complete all questionnaire items (Oppenheim, (1992) despite decline in interest and or tiredness that may occur, such an organisation or design was so embraced.



### **Piloting of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was designed after detailed search of relevant literature before it was subjected to expert validation and a pilot trial. According to Neuman and Kreuger (2003), pre-testing tools or instruments for data collection in research improves quality of the data most especially their reliability. The questionnaire for the data collection was pre-tested two weeks before the actual data collection. Two schools within this same Aboabo Educational Circuit, deemed to have similar characteristics as the sampled eight schools were chosen for the pre-testing. It involved four teachers consisting of 2 teachers from each school. The essence of the pre-test was to determine the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The

responses from the pilot-test showed a high degree of understanding of the items by the respondents. This ascertained the construct validity of the instrument as the respondents did not find significant weaknesses, inadequacies, and ambiguities in the research instrument. However, even the few sighted weaknesses and ambiguities were corrected before actual administration. Content validity was ensured through an extensive review of literature on the subject to ensure that all major issues in connection with the research objectives had been fully covered and captured in the questionnaire to achieve the purpose.

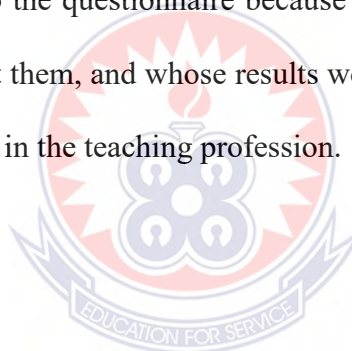
Analysis of the responses was carried out to check the reliability of the instrument. Reliability was found to be acceptable at 0.863 alpha value. The result on the pilot-test was shown to my supervisor and was approved. This paved way for the actual data collection.

#### **Data Collection Procedure**

The questionnaire was administered and collected on 16<sup>th</sup>-17<sup>th</sup> June, 2016 personally by the researcher. These two days fell within the very week, 13<sup>th</sup> -17<sup>th</sup> June, 2016, of WAEC's Basic Education Certificate Examination; a period considered by the researcher as when teachers were comparatively less busy. This, coupled with the researchers' interpersonal characteristics and determination, out of 28 questionnaires administered, 27 were retrieved. The personal administration and collection was preferred because it provided the opportunity to establish rapport with respondents. Additionally, it offered opportunity for the researcher to emphasise the importance of the study to the respondents. Ethical issues are highly relevant and require due consideration in any research (Sarantakos, as cited in Akrofi, 2010). Thus, I had an obligation to respect their rights, values, and desires of the respondents.

In line with these ethical issues, I went through the following steps to reach the respondents, thereby protecting their rights. The administration of the questionnaire was preceded by an introductory letter dated 17<sup>th</sup> July, 2015 to the CS through the Director which was granted 22<sup>nd</sup> October, 2015. The consent of the respondents also was obtained so that they could fully and voluntarily participate in the study. The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents in the covering letter attached to the questionnaire. To ensure the confidentiality of the respondents, the questionnaire did not require that respondents write their names, addresses, or phone numbers.

The exercise was successful because of the cooperation of respondents who were eager to respond to the questionnaire because they were made a part of a study which will directly affect them, and whose results would help put in place measures to increase their motivation in the teaching profession.



### **Data Analysis**

The computer software, SPSS, version 16 computer software was used to analyse the data. The completed questionnaires were firstly edited for completeness, accuracy and uniformity (Cohen et. al, 2005); coded and entered into the SPSS computer software for analysis. The statistical tools employed for the data analyses were all non-parametric, namely, Spearman's rank order correlation for the first 2 hypotheses and lastly, Wilcoxon test for hypothesis 3. The rationale for using these statistical tools were due to the non-randomised sampling technique used, skewed distribution of the data and the ordinal scale measurement used. Again, it was because two variables from the same sample (respondents) were correlated and differentiated (Cohen et. al., 2005, pp. 586-592).

Explicitly, the inputted data (indicators) were transformed or averaged, still with SPSS version 16 to main variables such as Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Variables, Motivation  $((IE+EM)/2)$ , Leadership for Learning, Transformational, Charismatic, Servant, Transactional, and Situational Leadership to allow usage of the mentioned statistical tools.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the data from the study and the discussions of findings. Whenever applicable, tables are provided to illustrate and support the interpretation to test the hypotheses.

The results are organised and discussed with regard to the various research questions that were formulated to guide the study. The implications of the findings are also considered in this section.



## Relationship between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning

One of the objectives of this study is to find out whether or not the relationship between Teachers' Intrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is significant. This is tested with one research hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the study. Table 4.1 presents the results.

### Hypothesis 1: There is no significant correlation between Intrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit.

**Table 4.1: Spearman's rho Correlations Matrix of Intrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning**

			Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation	Leadership for Learning
Spearman's rho	Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.038
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.865
		N	25	23
	Leadership for Learning	Correlation Coefficient		1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.
		N		25

Table 4.1 shows results of the statistical test for Hypothesis 1. The data show the results of Spearman's rho correlation on the intrinsic motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit and their leadership for learning. From the Table 4.1, it could be seen that the correlation between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning was not significant at 0.05 level of significance ( $r = -.038$ ,  $p = .865$ ). The evidence, therefore, shows that the null hypothesis is confirmed ( $r = -.038$ ,  $p > .05$ ), indicating that there is no significant correlation between Intrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning among teachers within the Aboabo Educational Circuit. This is very interesting, as the confirmation of the null hypothesis implies that a rise in



Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation is not likely to either reduce or increase Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. The implication is that although teachers within the circuit are leading learning, it is not probable that one will end up:

1. teaching things that are fun to do,
2. looking for another job when they are not enjoying teaching,
3. choosing to be a teacher because of its interesting activities and tasks,
4. spending time with those who are the most fun to be with,
5. making decisions that do reflect those high standards they have set for themselves,
6. seeing the importance that their skills impact positively on their organisation's (GES) success
7. believing in a course though they work hard to achieve it
8. working hard though they do believe in the course
9. working hard with GES' mission speaking to their values
10. being concerned about they being responsible for GES' success after believing in GES' mission and meeting it.

It must be discussed that this finding relating to Aboabo Educational Circuit is in contravention to some previous research findings. According to Kohlberg, (as cited in Barbuto, 2005), when people are motivated to accomplish certain kinds of work or to engage in certain types of behaviour for the sheer fun of it, then intrinsic motivation is befalling. Similarly, it is contradictory to the assertion that "interest" is one of the elements of Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation that influence people to behave in a particular way or to lead pupils in a particular direction (Amstrong, 2007). Again, this result presented is a disconfirmation to the proposition made by Mullins, (2007) as well as Staw (as cited in Barbuto, 2005) that motivator needs are related to the nature

of the work itself and how challenging it is and that outcomes such as interesting work, autonomy, responsibility, recognition, achievement, being able to grow and develop on the job help to satisfy motivator needs. In addition, even though studies such as Ibukun (1997), Adepoju (1998), Ajayi and Ayodele (2002) and Akundayo (2002), have suggested that motivation is a determinant of productivity, being in this study considered Leadership for Learning, the results as ascertained here is in contravention. This may not even inspire pupils to emulate the behaviour of teachers as suggested by Avolio, Waldman and Einstein, (as reported in Barbuto 2005) when he said teachers' enjoyment of their work environment could inspire pupils to emulate the teachers' behaviour and incorporate enjoyment into their learning.



## Relationship between Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning

One of the objectives of this study is to find out whether or not the correlation between Teachers' Extrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is significant. This is tested with one research hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the study. Table 4.2 presents the results.

### Hypothesis 2: There is no significant correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit

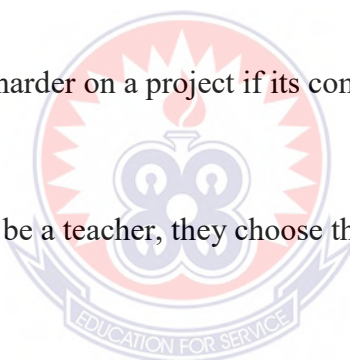
**Table 4.2: Spearman's rho Correlations Matrix of Extrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning**

		Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation	Leadership for Learning	
Spearman's rho	Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	
		N	25	
	Leadership for Learning	Correlation Coefficient	.033	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.880	.
		N	24	25

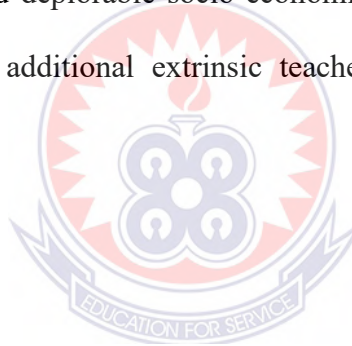
Table 4.2 shows results of the statistical test for hypothesis 2. The data show the results of spearman's rho correlation on the extrinsic motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit and their leadership for learning. From the Table 4.2, it could be seen that the correlation between Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning was insignificant at 0.05 level of significance ( $r = .033$ ,  $p = .88$ ). The evidence, therefore, shows that the null hypothesis is could not be rejected ( $r = .033$ ,  $p > .05$ ), indicating that there is no significant correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and Leadership for Learning among teachers within the Aboabo Educational Circuit.

This result is somehow surprising as the acceptance of the null hypothesis implies that a rise in Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation is not likely to either reduce or increase Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. The implication is that although teachers within the circuit are leading learning, it is not probable that they acknowledge that:

1. job requirements will dictate how much effort they give at work.
2. it is important to them that others approve of their behaviour.
3. they strongly believe in "A day's work for a day's pay."
4. they make decisions based on what others will think of my choice(s).
5. they would work harder if they knew that their efforts would lead to higher pay.
6. they would work harder on a project if its completion would earn them praise or recognition.
7. when choosing to be a teacher, they choose the job because of the best financial package.
8. when choosing the teaching profession, they choose the job because it is most visible or prestigious.
9. at work, their favourite day is payday.
10. those who make the most friends in their lifetime have lived the fullest life.
11. People should always keep their eyes and ears open for better job opportunities.
12. they give their best effort when they know that the most influential people will notice.



As a matter of discussion, this phenomenon revealing within Aboabo Educational Circuit, contradicts a number of studies in the literature, both theoretically and empirically. For instance, Barbuto and Scholl (cited in Barbuto, 2005) made the proclamation that those with high levels of extrinsic motivation are driven to perform the work because of an incentive or contingent reward. Individuals with high levels of extrinsic motivation desire to enhance their reputation or image. Also, studies such as Godwyll and Ablenyie, (1996) provide a contradictory report with the suggestion that Ghanaian teachers leave the profession because of inadequate salary, low prestige for teachers and lack of opportunities for promotion as the major factors. Again, the results disagrees with other studies which found poor or non-implementation of conditions of service and deplorable socio-economic conditions in rural areas where most teachers work as additional extrinsic teachers motivation factors (Cobbold, 2007).



### **Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation as against Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation**

As part of the assumptions of this study, it was hypothesised that there is no significant difference between Aboabo Educational Circuit teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in terms of Leadership for Learning. This hypothesis was tested using Wilcoxon Sign- Rank Test at a p-value of 0.05. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 present the results.

### **Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in terms of Leadership for Learning in Aboabo Educational Circuit**

**Table 4.3: Wilcoxon Sign- Rank Test describing Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation**

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Extrinsic Motivation – Intrinsic Motivation	Negative Ranks	3 <sup>a</sup>	5.50	16.50
	Positive Ranks	20 <sup>b</sup>	12.98	259.50
	Ties	0 <sup>c</sup>		
	Total	23		

a. ExtrinsicMotivation < IntrinsicMotivation

b. ExtrinsicMotivation > IntrinsicMotivation

c. ExtrinsicMotivation = IntrinsicMotivation

**Table 4.4: Wilcoxon Sign- Rank Test on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation**

	Extrinsic Motivation – Intrinsic Motivation
Z	-3.696 <sup>a</sup>
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

From the tested statistics, Tables 2.3 and 3.4, a result of  $z = -3.696$ ,  $p < 0.05$  is observed. This suggests that there is a significant difference between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit with Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation being

predominant. Consequently, teachers are more likely to find no enjoyment and pleasure in the work they do than they see the value in a reward system for employees (Barbuto, Fritz & Marx, 2002). This is to suggest that teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit are not likely to be exhibiting transformational leadership style as they lead pupils to learn. This is supported by the assertion made by Bass, (reported in Barbuto, 2005) that those qualities of intrinsic teachers' motivation like fun and self-worth are similar to those needed for transformational behaviours. It therefore follows that, comparatively, the teachers could inspire pupils to emulate the teachers' behaviour and incorporate enjoyment into their learning.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The study sought to ascertain the role of Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation in Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit by conducting this investigation and reporting accordingly. In doing so, the researcher had the objectives of examining whether or not the relation between teachers' intrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is statistically significant; whether or not the correlation between teachers' extrinsic motivation and Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit is statistically significant and the degree of significant difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of teachers within Aboabo Educational Circuit in terms of Leadership for Learning. In view of this, three research hypotheses were formulated to direct the study.

The researcher engaged to use Spearman's rho correlation and Wilcoxon Sign-Ranks test analytical tools to analyse data gathered from 27 respondents through the use of a questionnaire. In the end, it was found that there is no significant relationship between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Leadership for Learning. Similarly, it was found that Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation has no significant association with Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit. Lastly, there is a significant difference between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation within Aboabo Educational Circuit.



## **Conclusion**

From the unfolded findings of this research report, it is to this end inferred that:

1. teachers within the Aboabo Educational Circuit only own abilities to fulfil their classroom task of making students learn but not that they enjoy doing them.
2. teachers within the Aboabo Educational Circuit are working in an environment where students have tools and materials that help them to learn.
3. there is a significant difference between Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation in Aboabo Educational Circuit.

Therefore, Intrinsic Teachers' Motivation and Extrinsic Teachers' Motivation have minimal or no role within Aboabo Educational Circuit.

## **Recommendations for Practice**

It is recommended that in the quest of officers or administrators, SMCs, PTAs, chiefs and elders and all other stakeholders wanting to sustain or improve leadership for learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit,

1. The officers within Aboabo Educational Circuit must not focus only on high pupils' academic achievement at the detriment of taking appropriate steps to make classroom teaching interesting and attractive. This is to say that officers must provide teaching resources such as Teachers' Guide, Lesson Notes Book and Whiteboard Markers to teachers.
2. School Management Committees within Aboabo Educational Circuit must do their best to boost the extrinsic motivation of teachers within the circuit by assisting in the provision of accommodation for teachers.

3. Chiefs and elders within the circuit must lobby their Chief Executive and Member of Parliament to seek help to improve upon the communication and road networks within the circuit.
4. Education officers must formulate policies relating more especially to intrinsic teachers' motivation and consider them in their daily interaction with teachers. This could be done through periodic interaction with the teachers to give them feedback on their performance.

### **Recommendation for Future Research**

There is clearly a need for more research on the role of intrinsic and extrinsic teachers' motivation on leadership for learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit.

To summarise, the under listed recommendations are suggested:

1. that, the same research be conducted at a later time with the purpose of confirming or disconfirming the findings in this report.
2. that, a broader investigation be conducted to cover the entire district and even private schools as well.
3. that, factors, other than intrinsic and extrinsic teachers' motivation, contributing to leadership for learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit must be researched into.

## REFERENCES

- Abratt, R., & Klein, M. (1999). Sales force compensation and incentive schemes: Practice in the South African pharmaceutical industry. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 30(3), 65-71.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). *Injustice in social exchange: Advances in experimental and social psychology*. McGraw-Hill: Academic Press.
- Adansi North District Education Service, (2015). *Adansi North District Annual Report. Dompase*. Adansi North District Education Directorate.
- Addaih, S. (2005, April 26). *Good work and climate must motivate staff & improve work performance*. Daily Graphic, Accra: Graphic Communications Ltd., p.16.
- Adentwi, K. I. & Baafi-Frimpong, S. (2010). *Principles, practices and issue in teacher education*. Kumasi: Eben Press.
- Adepoju, T. L. (1998). *Fundamentals of school administration, planning and supervision in Nigeria*. Ibadan: ALAFAS Nigeria Company.
- Adjei, H. & Musah, A. (December, 2013). Teacher motivation in selected senior high schools in the cape coast metropolis. *Research Journal's Journal of Human Resource*, 1(2), pp. 1 – 10.
- Afful- Broni, A. (2004). *The theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana*. Accra-Ghana: Yamens Press.
- Ajayi, I. A. & Aguntoye, H. S. (2003). Motivation as correlate of teachers' job performance in Ogun State Secondary School. *UNAD Journal of Education*, 3, 155-162.
- Ajayi, I. A. & Ayodele, J. B. (2002). *Fundamentals of educational management*. Ado- Ekiti: Green Line Publishers.

- Akanbi, P. A. (2012). Influence of extrinsic and intrinsic teacher motivation on employees' performance. Retrieved on 5<sup>th</sup> March, 2015 from <http://www.ilo.org/public/English/iira/documents/congresses/regional/lagosdoll/3rdparallel/session3b/motivtionalworkers.pdf>
- Akrofi, D. (2010). *Distance education at the University of Education, Winneba: Challenges and prospects*. Unpublished Master of Philosophy dissertation, Educational Administration, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.
- Akuoko, K. O, Dwumah, P & Wahab, M. A (December, 2012). Teacher motivation and quality education delivery: a study of public basic schools in tamale metropolis in Ghana. *International Journal of Social Science & Interdisciplinary Research*, 1 (12), ISSN 2277 3630 Online available at [www.indianresearchjournals.com](http://www.indianresearchjournals.com).
- Albaum, G., Best, R., & Hawkins, D. (1981). Continuous vs. discrete semantic differential scales. *Psychological Reports*, 49, 83–86.
- Alderfer, C. (1972). *Existence, relatedness & growth*. New York: Free Press.
- Aldoory, L., & Toth, E. (2004). Leadership and gender in public relations: Perceived effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership styles. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 16, 157–183
- Anderson, L. W. (1984). *Time and school learning*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Anderson, L. W. (1985). *Likert scales*. The international encyclopedia of education. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Archer, F. K., & Adentwi, K. I. (2008). *Educational management and school administration*. Kumasi: Biraa Press.

- Armstrong, M. (2007). *Employee reward management and practice*. London and Philadelphia: U.K Kogan Page Limited
- Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organisation. *Academy of Management Review*, 14,20-39.
- Avolio, B.J. (1999). *Full range leadership development: Building the vital forces in organisations*. Thousand Oaks California: Sage.
- Azigwe, J. B. (2009). Motivating the sales force for peak performance. *Jobed: Journal of Business and Enterprise Development*, (1), 45.
- Babbie, E. (2005). *The basics of social research*. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Badu-Nyarko, S. K. (2010). Isolation and control in distance education: The case of the Ghanaian student. *Journal of Literacy and Adult Education*. Retrieved: March 5, 2015 from <http://www.infastructure.com/barriers.htm>.
- Bailey, Kenneth D. (1978). *Methods in Social Research*. New York: Free Press
- Bame, N. K. (1991). *Teacher motivation and retention in Ghana*. Accra: Assemblies of God Literature Centre Ltd.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Barbuto S. (2007). *Modern approaches to research in educational administration*. No named publishing house
- Barbuto, J. E. (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: a test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 11(4), 25-40.

- Barbuto, J. E. & Scholl, R. W. (1999). Leaders' sources of motivation and perceptions of followers' motivation as predictors of leaders' influence tactics used. *Psychological Reports*, 84, 1087-1098.
- Barbuto, J. E., Fritz, S. M., & Marx, D. (2002). A field studies examining two measures of work motivation for predicting leaders' influence tactics used. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 142(5), 601-616.
- Barbuto, J. E. Jr., & Story, J. S. (2008). Relations between locus of control and sources of work motivation amongst government workers. *Psychological Reports*, 102, 335-338.
- Barbuto, J. E. Jr., Fritz, S. M., & Plummer, B. A. (2003). Sex differences among five sources of motivation in the motivation sources inventory preliminary findings. *Psychological Reports*, 93, 47-48.
- Barbuto, J. E. Jr., Trout, S. K., & Brown, L. L. (2004). Identifying sources of motivation of adult rural workers. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 45, 11-21. doi: 10.5032/jae.2004.03011
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stodgill's handbook of leadership*. Vol. 11, Number 4, New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire sample set: Technical report, leaders form, rater form, and scoring key for MLQ From 5x – Short* (2nd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B.J. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for multifactor leadership questionnaire*. California: Mind Gorden, Inc.

- Bass, B., Avolio, B., (1994). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Sage Publications: California, USA.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1997). *The full range of leadership development*. Binghamton, NY: Center for Leadership Studies.
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bellah, R. N., Madsen, R., Sullivan, W. M., Swidler, A., & Tipton, S. M. (1985). *Habits of the heart: Individualism and commitment in American life*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Bennell, P. & Akyeampong, K. (2007). *Teacher motivation in sub-saharan Africa and South Asia*. Researching the Issues 71. London, UK: DFID.
- Bennell, P. (July, 2004). *Teacher motivation and incentives in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. Knowledge and Skills for Development*. Brighton: Sage Publications
- Bennett, T. M. (2009). A study of the management leadership style preferred by IT subordinates. *Journal of Organisational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 13 (2), 1 – 26
- Berne, E. (1964). *Games People Play: the psychology of human relationships*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Blanchard, H., & Johnson, S. (1985). *The one- minute manager*. Berkeley, CA: Berkeley Publishing Co.
- Blanchard, K. (1991). Situational view of leadership, *Executive Excellence*. 8, pp. 22-23.
- Blanchard, K.H., & Hersey, P. (1996). Great ideas revisited. *Training and Development*. ( 42), 295-300.



- Bloom, B. S. (1976). *Human characteristics and school learning*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Bradford, L. P., & Lippitt, R. (1945). Building a democratic work group. *Personnel*, 22(3), 142-148.
- Brooks, N., (2003). *Vulnerability, Risk and Adaptation: A Conceptual Framework. Working Paper 38, Tyndall Centre for Climate Change Research*. University of East Anglia, Norwich.
- Broussard, S. C., & Garrison, M. E. B. (2004). The relationship between classroom motivation and academic achievement in elementary school-aged children. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 33 (2), 106–120.
- Buckley, J., Schneider, M. and Shang, Y. (2004). *LAUSD school facilities and academic performance*. National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities, Washington, DC, available at: [www.edfacilities.org/pubs/LAUSD%20Report.pdf](http://www.edfacilities.org/pubs/LAUSD%20Report.pdf).
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Burns, N. & Grove, S.K. (1999). *Understanding nursing research* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company.
- Cobbold, C. (August, 2007). Induction for teacher retention: a missing link in teacher education policy in Ghana. *Post-Script: Postgraduate Journal of Education Research*. 8 (1), August 2007, 7-18.
- Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994). *Research methods in education*. London, Routeledge and Kegan Paul.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L, & Morrison K. (2005). *Research methods in education* (5th Ed.). USA and Canada: Routledge.



- Cohen, L., Manion, L, & Morrison K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th Ed.). USA and Canada: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2004). *Research methods in education* (5th Ed). London: Routledge.
- Collis, J. & Hussey, R. (2003). *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cooper, D.R. and Schindler, P.S. (2006). *Business research method*, (9th Ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Covino, E., & Iwanicki, S. (1996). Experienced teachers: Their constructs of effective teaching. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*. 10, 325-363.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative enquiry and research design choosing among five traditions*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design* (2nd Ed.). California: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Research planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*, (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Deci, E. L. & Gagne, M (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*. June 2005, (26) 4m 331-362.
- Deluga, R. J. (1988). Relationship of transformational and transactional leadership with employee influencing strategies. *Group and Organisational Studies*, 13, 456-467.
- Dewey, J. (1998 [1938]). Experience and Education, the 60<sup>th</sup> anniversary edition.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. England: Pearson Education Limited.

- Dressler, G. (2001). *Management: Leading people and organisation in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Ebel, R. L. Et al (1969). *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Toronto: Macmillan Company.
- UNESCO, (2005). *Education for All Global Monitoring Report, 2005*. UNESCO: Paris.
- Ekundayo, O. (2010). *International journal of educational leadership*. Accra-Ghana. Yamens Press.
- Fitzpatrick, C., Hatch-Gagne, K., Jones, R., Lobley, J. & Phelps, L. (2005). Life skills development in youth: Impact research in action. *Journal of Extension [On-line]*, 43(3), Article 3RIB1. Available at: <http://www.joe.org/joe/2005june/rb1.shtml>.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2000). *Educational research*, (7<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Frey, B., & Osterloch, M. (2002). *Successful management by motivation - balancing intrinsic and extrinsic incentives*. Zurich: Springer.
- Futrell, C. M. (1998). *Teamwork, leadership and technology*. New York: The Dryden Press.
- Ghana Education Service: Teacher Education Division (September, 2014). *Leadership for learning: A manual/ handbook for headteachers and circuit supervisors*. University of Education, Winneba.
- Ghana poverty reduction strategy, (2003). *Annual Report*. Retrieved: 12<sup>th</sup> July, 2015 from [www.worldbank.org](http://www.worldbank.org).

- Godwyll, E. F., & Ablenyie, P. (1996). *Assessment of factors of motivation among teachers in selected schools in Cape Coast: University of Cape Coast*. Unpublished dissertation.
- Gordon, G. (1965). The relationship of satisfiers to productivity, turnover and moral. *American Journal of Psychology*. 20, 499- 15.
- Griffin, R.W. (2002). *Management*. Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Guay, F., Chanal, J., Ratelle, C. F., Marsh, H. W., Larose, S., & Boivin, M. (2010). Intrinsic, identified, and controlled types of motivation for school subjects in young elementary school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*. 80, 711-735.
- Guskey, T.R. (1998). *Good teachers can overcome effects of poverty on learning*. Lexington Herald-Leader,\_(A9).
- Hakala, U. (2003). *Quantitative and qualitative methods of analysing Advertising: Content Analysis and Semiotics – K & K 5 : 2003*. Turku: Turku School of Economics, p. 51.
- Harms, P.D. & Crede, M. (2010). Emotional intelligence and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta – analysis. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 17 (1): 5 -17
- Heinich, R., (1996). *Instructional Media and Technologies for Learning*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, inc.
- Heneman, H. I, Schwab, D. P., Fossum, J. A. & Dyer, L. D. (1990). *Personnel human resource management* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New Delhi: Universal Book Stall.
- Herzberg, F. W. (1968). One more time, how do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review*, 46(1), 53-62.

- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B & Snyderman, B. (1957). *The motivation to work*. New York: Wiley and Sons.
- Hetland, H. & Sandal, G.M (2003). Transformational leadership in Norway: Outcomes and personality correlates. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 12 (2): 147-170.
- Hildebrand, D.L. (2008). *John Dewey*. Houston, Gulf: Oneworld Press.
- Hooper, A. and Potter, J. (1997). *The Business of Leadership*. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Company.
- House, R. I., Spangler, W. D., & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. presidency: A psychological theory of leadership effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. 36, 364-396.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. M. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*. 23: 409-473.
- Howell, J. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictor of consolidated- business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 78, 891-902.
- Hoy, W. and Sabo, J. (1998). *Quality middle schools open and healthy*. Corwin Press, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Hoy, W. K. & Miskel, C. G. (1987). *Education administration: theory, research and practice*. New York: Random House.
- Hoy, W. K., Tarter, C. J. & Kottkamp, R. (1991). *Open schools/healthy schools*. Sage, Newbury Park, CA.
- Huczynski, A. & Buchanan, D. (2001). *Organisational behaviour: An introductory text*. London: Prentice Hall International.

- Hudson, K. (2005, January 10). Parents' concerned about motivation fees. *Daily Graphic*, Accra: Graphic Communications Ltd., p.11.
- Hume, E. (1998). The Role of Perceptibility in Consonant/Consonant Metathesis. *Proceedings of West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics*, 17, 293-307.
- Ibukun, W. O. (1997). *Educational management- theory practice*. Lagos: Green Line Publishers.
- Ifinedo, P. (2003). *Employee motivation and job satisfaction in finnish organisations: A study of employees in the Oulu Region, Finland*. Master of Business Administration Thesis, University of London.
- Javaid, N. (2009). Teacher Motivation: An Area of Neglect. CIDA, Pakistan Programme.
- Jin, Y. (2010). Emotional leadership as a key dimension of public relations leadership: National survey of public relations leaders. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 22 (2), 159 -181
- Jones, G. R., & George, J. M. (2008). *Contemporary management* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). New York: Avenue of the Americas: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Katz, D., Macoby, N., Gurin, G., & Floor, L. (1951). *Productivity, supervision, and morale among railroad workers*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research.
- Kenney, C. K. (2010). *Customer Satisfaction with Banking Services of ECOBANK: Tanoso Branch*. An unpublished Bachelor's of business administration project work, University of Education, Winneba, Kumasi.
- Kenney, C. K. (2014). *Motivation of students on the University of Education, Winneba Post-Diploma Basic Education Distance programme the case of*

- Kumasi campus*. An unpublished Master of Philosophy Dissertation, University of Education, Winneba, Kumasi.
- Kinicki, W. (2003). *Management: A practical introduction*. New York: Avenue of the Americas: McGraw-Hill/Irwin
- Kirkpatrick, S.A., & Locke, E.A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 36-51.
- Knowles, M.S., Holton, E.F. and Swanson, R.A. (1998). *The Adult Learner*, (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing.
- Koomson, A. K. (1998). Distance education as a strategy for training teachers in Ghana: Problems and prospects. *Journal of the Institute of Education*, 4 (I), 59-68.
- Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (1998). *Organisational behaviour* (4th Ed.). Burr Ridge, ILL: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.
- Kusi, H. (2012). *Doing qualitative research: a guide for researchers*. Accra-New Town: Emmpong Press.
- Leonard, N. H., Beauvais, L L. & Scholl, R. W. (1999). Work motivation: The incorporation of self concept-based processes. *Human Relations*, 52, 969-998.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 271-301.
- Lewis, P.S., Goodman, S.H. & Fandt, P.M. (1995). *Management: Challenges in the 21st Century*. New York: West Publishing Company.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Locke, E. A. (1975). Personal attitudes and motivation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 26, 457-480.
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology* (pp. 1293-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385-425.
- Luthans, F. (1995) *Organisational behaviour* (7<sup>th</sup> ed). McGraw-Hill.
- MacBeath, J. & Dempster, N. (Eds.) (2009). *Connecting Leadership and Learning: Principles for practice*. London: Routledge.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). New York, Harper and Row.
- Motivation for Teachers. (2005, March 31). *Daily Graphic*, Accra: Graphic Communications Ltd. (N<sup>o</sup>. 149391), p. 7.
- Mullins, L. J. (2002). *Management and organisational behaviour*, (6<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Mullins, L. J. (2007). *Management and organisational behaviour*, (8<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: NY: Prentice-Hall.
- Murnighan, J. K. & Leung, T. K. (1976). The effects of leadership involvement and the importance of the task on subordinates' performance. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 17, 299-310.
- Murray, E. I. (1964). *Motivation and emotion*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.



- Naidoo, D., Lowies, A., & Pillay, Y. (2014). Leadership styles and qualifications for emergency medical service managers. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (OMAN Chapter)*. 3(9), pp. 92-110. Retrieved: 01/11/2014. Website: <http://www.jstor.org>
- Nickels, W. G., McHugh, J. M., & McHugh, S. M. (1999). *Understanding business* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). New York: Avenue of the Americas: McGraw- Hill Companies.
- Nickels, W. G., McHugh, J. M., & McHugh, S. M. (2002). *Understanding business* (6<sup>th</sup> Ed). New York: Avenue of the Americas: McGraw- Hill Companies.
- Northouse, P., G. (2001). *Leadership theory and practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Nyarko, K. (2010). *The hungry teacher psychologist and educational consultant*, IAF. Munich: ([www.ghanaweb.com](http://www.ghanaweb.com)) Office of Human Resources.
- Ofoegbu, F.I., (2004). *Teacher motivation: a factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement in Nigeria*. Accessed on 12 July, 2015, from [www.collegestudentjournalfindarticles.com](http://www.collegestudentjournalfindarticles.com).
- Ololube, N. P. (2004). *Professionalism: an institutional approach to teachers' job effectiveness in Nigerian schools*. Paper presented at the Seventh International Conference, September 23-25, 2004.
- Oppenheim, A.N. (1992). *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*. London Pinter Publishers Ltd.
- Osei-Mensah, P. (2005, July 5). What factors should determine teachers' salaries? *Daily Graphic*, Accra: Graphic Communications Ltd., p.7
- Peretomode, V. F. (1991). *Education administration: Applied concepts and theoretical perspective for students and practitioners*. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.



- Piaget, J. (1972). Intellectual evolution from adolescence to adulthood. *Human Development*. 15, 1-12.
- Pinder, C. (1998). *Work motivation in organisational behaviour*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Pink, D. H. (2009). *Drive: the surprising truth about what motivates us*. USA: Penguin Group
- Pride, D., Hughes, L. & Kapoor, E. (2009). *Foundations of Business, student achievement series*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Publishing Company Publications, Inc.
- Punch, K.F. (1998). *Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Robbins, P. S. (1998). *Organisational behaviour- concepts controversies applications*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.
- Robbins, S. P. (2001). *Organisational behaviour*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Rogers, A. (1996). *Teaching Adults* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Rogers, C. (1990), Kirschenbaum, H. and Henderson, V. L. (Eds), *The Carl Rogers*.
- Rothstein, R. (1997). What do we know about declining (or rising) student achievement? *Educational Research Service*. pp. 1-26.
- Salifu, I, & Agbenyega, J. S., (May, 2013). Teacher motivation and identity formation: issues affecting professional practice. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies, Trends and Practices*. 3 (1), pp. 58 – 74.
- Sanders, W., & Horn, S. (1998). Research findings from the Tennessee Value - Added Assessment System (TVAAS) database: Implications from educational evaluation and research. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 12(3), 247-256.

- Sanders, W.L., & Rivers, J.C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Research Progress Report. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Center
- Sanford, J. P., and Evertson, C. M. (January/February 1983). Time use and activities in junior high classes. *Journal of Educational Research*. 76/3: 140-147.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social research*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Sarfo, F. K. & Adentwi, K. I. (2011). *Educational technology: Instructional technology* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). Kumasi: Wilas Press Limited.
- Schneider B, Alderfer CP (1973). Three studies of measures of need satisfaction in organisations. *Adm. Sci. Q.*, 18(4): 489-505.
- Schneider, M. (2003). *Linking school facility conditions to teacher satisfaction and success*. *National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities*. Available at: [www.edfacilities.org/pubs/teachersurvey.pdf](http://www.edfacilities.org/pubs/teachersurvey.pdf). Retrieved on 13/05/2016.
- Shamir, B., House, R.J., & Arthur, M.B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organisation Science*. 4, 577-594.
- Slife, B. D., & Williams, R. N. (1995). *What's behind the research? Discovering hidden assumptions in the behavioural sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Staw, B. M. (1976). *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation*. Morristown, NJ: Silver Burdett.
- Steers, J. (1996) Response to Papers by Gardner and Schönau. In Boughton, Doug.; Eisner, Elliot.W.; Ligtoet, Johan. *Evaluation and Assessment of Visual Arts Education: International Perspectives*. NY: Teachers College Press, 176-193.
- Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1991). *Motivation and Work Behaviour* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York, McGraw-Hill.

- Steers, R.M., Porter, L.W., & Bigley, G.A. (1996). *Motivation and leadership at work* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Tachie, B. Y., Tenkorang, E. & Ghartey, N. K. T. (November, 2012). Motivation and Job satisfaction of teachers in the Cape Coast Municipality. *International Journal of Basic Education*. 2 (2), 79 – 88.
- Tarter, C.J., Sabo, D. and Hoy, W.K. (1995), “Middle school climate, faculty trust, and effectiveness”. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 29, 41-9.
- Teferra, D. & Greijn H. (2010). *Higher education and Globalisation Challenges. Threats and opportunities for Africa*. First published in the Netherlands
- Tichy, N. and Devanna, M. (1986). *Transformational Leadership*. New York: Wiley.
- Timilehin, E. H. (2010). Administering secondary school in Nigeria for quality output in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: the principal’s challenge. *European Journal of Educational Science*. 2 (3), 187-192.
- Traina, R. P. (1999). What makes a good teacher? Education Week, 19.
- Travers, J. (1972). *Learning analysis and application*. New York: David McKay.
- Turkson, J. K. (2007). *Business management for secondary and tertiary students*, (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Kumasi, Ghana: Jakentee Management Research Centre.
- Ukeje, O. (1976). *Nigerian needs and Nigerian education: A study of the needs of an emergent nation and the role of education in meeting them*. Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, University of Ibadan
- UNESCO, (2006). Teacher motivation, compensation and working conditions, International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP). Retrieved 05/05/2016 from [www.unesco.org/iiep](http://www.unesco.org/iiep)

- Vogt, W. P. (1999). *Dictionary of statistics and methodology*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO), (2002). *What makes teachers tick? A policy research report on teachers' motivation in developing countries*. London SW15 2PN, UK: VSO
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. Malaba. Florida: Robert E. Kriegner Publishing
- Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organisations*. New York: Free Press.
- Werder, K. P., & Holtzhausen, D. (2009). An analysis of the influence of public relations department leadership style on public relations strategy use and effectiveness. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 21 (4), 404 - 427.
- Wilson, N. & McLean, S. (1994). *Questionnaire Design: A Practical Introduction*. Newtown Abbey, Co. Antrim: University of Ulster Press.
- World Bank, (1995). *Priorities and Strategies for Education: A World Bank Review*. Washington DC: World Bank. Retrieved: 27<sup>th</sup> August, 2015 from [www.ghana.gov.gh](http://www.ghana.gov.gh)
- Yammarino, F. J. & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership and multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations*, 43, 975-995.
- Yeboah, S. A. (2010). *Impact of motivation on Ghana Education Service: A study of Yendi Municipal Directorate. Northern Region, Ghana*. Unpublished dissertation.
- Yukl, G. A. (1998). *Leadership in organisations*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organisations* (3rd ed). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice - Hall.

Zagorsek, H., Dimovski, V., & Skerlavaj, M. (2009). Transformational and transactional leadership impacts on organisational learning. *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 2, 145-164.

Zook, M. A. 2001. Old Hierarchies or New Networks of Centrality? – The Global Geography of the Internet Content Market. *American Behavioural Scientist*. 44, (10), 1679-1696.



## APPENDICES

### A). Research Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA  
COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION- KUMASI  
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCES  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP  
**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

### QUESTIONNAIRE:

*The Role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teacher Motivation in Leadership for  
Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit*

Dear Sir/Madam,

This questionnaire is part of a study designed to investigate **“The Role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Teacher Motivation in Leadership for Learning within Aboabo Educational Circuit”** by the researcher (student) as a prerequisite for the award of Master of Philosophy degree. I would appreciate to have you as one of my cherish respondent of the study.

Please, be informed that your participation is voluntary and responses will be treated confidentially and used for only academic purposes.

Thank you very much in anticipation of your co-operation.

Please, use the following scale to rate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by ticking. There is no right or wrong answers.

*Kindly, rate your extent of agreement with each of the following statements by placing a tick (✓) in the appropriate box using the scale:*

Entirely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
----------------	----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------	-------------------

#### A- SOURCE, TYPE OF MOTIVATION

No.	Items: Source, Type of Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
1	I would prefer to only teach things that are fun.							
2	Job requirements will dictate how much effort I give at work.							
3	It is important to me that others approve of my behaviour.							
4	Decisions I make will reflect high standards that I've set for myself.							
5	I would not work for an organisation if I don't agree with its mission/goal.							
6	If I don't enjoy doing my job at work I would probably look for another job.							
7	I strongly believe in "A day's work for a day's pay."							
8	I make decisions based on what others will think of my choice(s).							

No.	Items: Source, Type of Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
9	It is important that my job requires me to use my unique skills							
10	I have to believe in a cause before I will work hard to achieve it.							
11	I often delay work so that I can do something else which is more exciting.							
12	I would work harder if I knew that my efforts would lead to higher pay.							
13	I would work harder on a project if its completion would earn me praise or recognition.							
14	Decisions I make are consistent with my personal standards.							
15	Unless I believe in the cause, I will not work hard.							
16	When choosing to be a teacher, I choose the job because of its most interesting activities and tasks.							
17	When choosing to be a teacher, I choose the job because of the best financial package.							
18	When choosing the teaching profession, I choose the job because it is most visible or prestigious.							
19	You chose to be a teacher because it provides the greatest personal challenge.							



No.	Items: Source, Type of Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
20	When choosing a profession I look for one that supports my personal values.							
21	I choose to spend my time with those people who are the most fun to be with.							
22	At work, my favorite day is payday.							
23	Those who make the most friends in their lifetime have lived the fullest life.							
24	I like to do things that give me a sense of personal achievement.							
25	An organisation's mission needs to speak to my values for me to work hard.							
26	If choosing between jobs, one important criterion is which job will be most fun.							
27	People should always keep their eyes and ears open for better job opportunities.							
28	I give my best effort when I know that the most influential people will notice.							
29	It is important that my skills are impacting an organisation's success.							
30	If I believe in my organisation's mission and the mission is met, it doesn't matter to me if I was responsible for the success.							

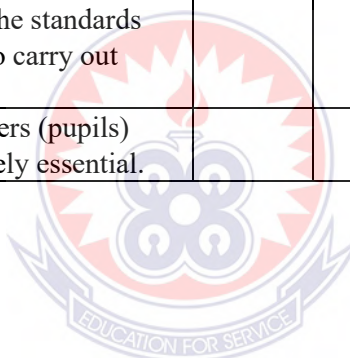
**INSTRUCTIONS:** This part provides a description of leadership style(s). Twenty-one descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits you by appropriately placing a tick (✓).

The word “others” may mean your pupil (students), colleagues (teachers), head-teachers, or group members.

### B- LEADERSHIP STYLE(S) AND LEADERSHIP FOR LEARNING

No.	Leadership Behaviour or Trait	Scale				
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I make others feel good to be around me.					
2	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.					
3	I enable pupil to think about old problems in new ways					
4	I help others(pupils) develop themselves.					
5	I tell others (pupil) what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.					
6	I am satisfied when others (pupil) meet agreed-upon standards					
7	I am content to let others (pupil) continue working in the same ways always.					
8	Others (pupils) have complete faith in me.					
9	I provide appealing images about what we can do.					
10	I provide others (pupil) with new ways of looking at confusing things.					
11	I let others (pupils) know how I think they are doing.					
12	I provide recognition/rewards when others (pupils) reach their goals.					

No.	Leadership Behaviour or Trait	Scale				
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
14	Whatever others (pupils) want to do is OK with me .					
15	Others (pupils) are proud to be associated with me.					
16	I help others (pupils) find meaning in their work.					
17	I get others (pupils) to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before					
18	I give personal attention to others (pupils) who seem rejected.					
19	I call attention to what others (pupils) can get for what they accomplish.					
20	I tell others (pupil) the standards they have to know to carry out their work.					
21	I ask no more of others (pupils) than what is absolutely essential.					



## C - PERSONAL, GEOGRAPHICAL AND PROFESSIONAL

### PERSONAL DATA

1. Gender : Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Age Range: 20-24 [ ] 25-29 [ ] 30-34 [ ] 35-39 [ ]  
40 and above [ ]
3. Marital Status: Single [ ] Married [ ] Divorced [ ] Widowed [ ]
4. In which school do you teach?

.....

### ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION

5. Are you a professional teacher?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]
6. What is your highest academic/professional qualification?  
Cert „A“ [ ] Diploma [ ] Degree [ ] Masters/ Post Graduate in  
Education [ ]  
Other specification(s).....
7. For how many years have you been in the teaching profession within this circuit or district?  
1-2years [ ] 3-5years [ ] 6-9 [ ] 10 and above [ ]
8. Was it your intention to be a teacher?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]
9. Do you intend leaving the teaching profession for any other job?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. Do you come from anywhere within or near Aboabo Educational Circuit?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. Do you go for week-end?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. If yes, when do you go and when do you return?

.....and .....

13. Do you intend seeking a transfer or release Aboabo Educational Circuit soon?

Yes [ ] No [ ]



**APPENDIX B**  
**INTRODUCTORY LETTER**



**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**  
*COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI*

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

P. O. Box 1277  
Kumasi

July 17, 2015

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: COLLINS TETTEH ABENI**  
**INDEX NO: 8141770004**

This is to confirm that Collins Tetteh Abeni is an MPhil student pursuing a programme in Educational Leadership at the Department.

Collins is currently engaged in a research on "*The influence of students' academic achievement on teacher motivation within Aboabo Educational Circuit, Adansi North District*" as part of the requirements for the award of the Master of Philosophy Degree.

We should appreciate any courtesies that you could extend to him as he gathers data for writing the Dissertation.

Thank you.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Sam', written over a faint circular watermark of the university's logo.

**REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM**  
*Head of Department*



**APPENDIX C**  
**LETTER OF PERMISSION**

**GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE**

*In case of reply the number and  
date of this letter should be quoted*

Our Ref: GES/ASH/AND/PG.8/32/VOL. I

Your Ref: .....

Tel: 0322-420910



GOVERNMENT OF GHANA

ADANSI NORTH DISTRICT

P. O. BOX 21

FOMENA

22<sup>ND</sup> OCTOBER, 2015

**PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA**

**COLLINS TETTEH ABENI**

**INDEX NO.: 8141770004**

Your letter dated 17<sup>th</sup> July, 2015 refers.

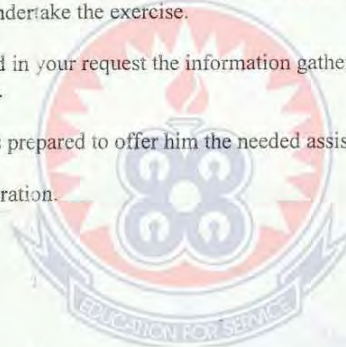
After careful assessment and critical analysis of Mr. Collins Tetteh Abeni intentions to use the GES and preferably Aboabo Educational Circuit, Adansi North District for a case study in his on-going research on the topic "The influence of students' academic achievement on teacher motivation within Aboabo Educational Circuit, Adansi North District," permission has been granted to enable him undertake the exercise.

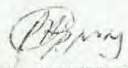
However, as emphasized in your request the information gathered should be used strictly for academic purposes only.

The entire Directorate is prepared to offer him the needed assistance in this direction.

Counting on your cooperation.

Thank you.



  
(PAUL ANTWI OPPONG)  
DISTRICT DIRECTOR

REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM  
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA  
COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP  
KUMASI

CC:  
THE FRONTLINERS  
DISTRICT EDUCATION DIRECTORATE  
ADANSI NORTH

THE CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS  
DISTRICT EDUCATION DIRECTORATE  
ADANSI NORTH

THE HEADS OF BASIC SCHOOL  
ADANSI NORTH DISTRICT

APPENDIX D

LIST OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WITHIN ABOABO EDUCATIONAL

CIRCUIT AS AT 2015/2016 ACADEMIC YEAR

A-B-O-A-B-O

EDUCATION SERVICE - ASHANTI  
TEACHER VACANCY DECLARATION FORM (BASIC - JHS)

DISTRICT: ..... NO. OF JHS. SCHOOLS AT MOST IN THE DISTRICT: ..... NO. OF JHS. STUDENTS IN THE DISTRICT: .....

NO	NAME OF SCHOOL	NO OF PUPILS IN THE SCH.	NO. OF CLASSES	NO. OF TRS. AT POST	NO. OF VACANCIES	REASONS FOR VACANCY	REMARKS
						<i>Actuals</i>	
1	FUMSO KESUWA	94	3	7		6	
2	MSIKOSE ANOMABO	52	3	7		6	
3	NIKONSA	15	1	3		1 (1)*	
4	NYAMENANJOSE	18	1	1		1	
5	NYAMIKOMASE	168	3	6		2	
6	ABOABO No 2 MEM	101	3	8		7 (2 female)	
7	ABOABO No 2 DIA	110	3	8		8 (2) "	
8	SAPONSO DIA	52	3	6		5	
9	MSIKOSE	130	3	9		6 (1) "	
10	SAPONSO MEM	82	3	6		5	
				52/61		52/50	

NAME OF DIRECTOR: .....

SIGNATURE & STAMP .....

TEL NO .....

DATE .....



**APPENDIX E****CONSTRUCT INDICATORS****MEASURES: Entirely Agree = 1,****Somewhat Agree =2,****Agree =3, Neutral =4,****Disagree =5, Somewhat Disagree =6,****Entirely Disagree =7**

No.	Intrinsic Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewh at Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
1	I would prefer to only teach things that are fun.							
2	If I don't enjoy doing my job at work I would probably look for another job.							
3	I often delay work so that I can do something else which is more exciting.							
4	When choosing to be a teacher, I choose the job because of its most interesting activities and tasks.							
5	I choose to spend my time with those people who are the most fun to be with.							
6	Decisions I make will reflect high standards that I've set for myself.							

No.	Intrinsic Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewh at Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
8	Decisions I make are consistent with my personal standards.							
9	You chose to be a teacher because it provides the greatest personal challenge.							
10	I like to do things that give me a sense of personal achievement.							
11	It is important that my skills are impacting an organisation's success.							
12	I would not work for an organisation if I don't agree with its mission/goal.							
13	I have to believe in a cause before I will work hard to achieve it.							
14	Unless I believe in the cause, I will not work hard.							
15	An organisation's mission needs to speak to my values for me to work hard.							
16	If choosing between jobs, one important criterion is which job will be most fun.							
17	If I believe in my organisation's mission and the mission is met, it doesn't matter to me if I was responsible for the success.							
18	When choosing a profession I look for one that supports my personal values.							

No.	Extrinsic Motivation	Scale						
		Entirely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Entirely Disagree
1	I would work harder on a project if its completion would earn me praise or recognition.							
2	When choosing to be a teacher, I choose the job because of the best financial package.							
3	At work, my favourite day is payday.							
4	When choosing the teaching profession, I choose the job because it is most visible or prestigious.							
5	Those who make the most friends in their lifetime have lived the fullest life.							
6	People should always keep their eyes and ears open for better job opportunities.							
7	I give my best effort when I know that the most influential people will notice.							
8	I would work harder if I knew that my efforts would lead to higher pay.							
9	I strongly believe in "A day's work for a day's pay."							
10	I make decisions based on what others will think of my choice(s).							
11	Job requirements will dictate how much effort I give at work.							
12	It is important to me that others approve of my behaviour.							

**MEASURES:**

**Not at all =1, Once in a while =2, Sometimes =3, Fairly often =4, Frequently if not always =5**

No.	Leadership for Learning	Scale				
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I make others feel good to be around me.					
2	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.					
3	I enable pupil to think about old problems in new ways					
4	I help others(pupils) develop themselves.					
5	I tell others (pupil) what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.					
6	I am satisfied when others (pupil) meet agreed-upon standards					
7	I am content to let others (pupil) continue working in the same ways always.					
8	Others (pupils) have complete faith in me.					
9	I provide appealing images about what we can do.					
10	I provide others (pupil) with new ways of looking at confusing things.					
11	I let others (pupils) know how I think they are doing.					
12	I provide recognition/rewards when others (pupils) reach their goals.					
13	As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.					
14	Whatever others (pupils) want to do is OK with me .					
15	Others (pupils) are proud to be associated with me.					
16	I help others (pupils) find meaning in their work.					
17	I get others (pupils) to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before					
18	I give personal attention to others (pupils) who seem rejected.					
19	I call attention to what others (pupils) can get for what they accomplish.					
20	I tell others (pupil) the standards they have to know to carry out their work.					
21	I ask no more of others (pupils) than what is absolutely essential.					