



Job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism
amongst teachers at two high schools in the Secondary
South Region, Kanye – Botswana

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own, original work, unless otherwise specified in the text. This dissertation has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my late mother, Mrs Betsy Bantlogetse Badubi, in recognition of her love and nurturing. She taught me the importance of education and that hard work pays for those who are willing to go the extra mile.

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ABSTRACT

This study, undertaken in a Botswana context, contributes to a wider understanding of the factors that influence the job satisfaction levels of teachers against the backdrop of the scarcity of school resources characterising schools in developing economies, as well as the challenging context in which teachers function. The effectiveness of academic performance in schools will depend on the availability of resources and the context in which teachers function in developing countries. Adequate resources are critical for improving schooling and student outcomes in developing countries such as Botswana. Teachers in developing countries function in a different context than their counterparts in developed countries. According to Oplatka (2007:479-480), teachers in developing countries work in multi-grade, overcrowded classrooms with poor facilities, low remuneration and incentives, low attractiveness of the teaching occupation and low status. Additionally they also face cultural and social expectations. These scarcities of resources and contextual factors influence the job satisfaction levels of teachers in developing economies. If developing economies regarded teacher job satisfaction as a contributing factor to an effective and functional education system, then an investment in school infrastructure (such as building new schools that include high-quality walls, roofs and floors; sanitation; electricity; libraries; desks, tables, chairs; computers), as well as pedagogical materials (such as sufficient textbooks; workbooks and exercise books) are critical. Secondly, investment in human capital through teacher education and in-service training to ensure well-trained teachers will also enhance job satisfaction and improve schooling outcomes in low-income countries. Lastly, changes in school organisation such as lower pupil-teacher ratios; classrooms that are not multi-grade classes; high parental involvement; order and discipline; reduced teacher absenteeism; provision of tutoring, clear and fair promotion policies; and fair, market related remuneration packages may all contribute to higher job satisfaction levels of teachers. In addition, this quantitative study, provides insight into the contextual and resource challenges that influence the job satisfaction of teachers.

The main objective of the study was to measure job satisfaction levels and establish the reasons for absenteeism among teachers at two high schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye, Botswana, namely Moshupa Senior Secondary School and Seepapitso Senior Secondary School. The research questions were:

1. What are the job satisfaction levels of teachers?
2. What are the main reasons for absenteeism?

3. Are there differences in the job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism between males and females, age groups and position?

The study was conducted within the quantitative paradigm by using a cross-sectional design. The population consisted of 250 teachers from two high schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye, in Botswana. In view of the small population, the researcher conducted a census of the entire population. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), was used to measure the job satisfaction levels of teachers. The following statistical procedures were used:

1. Descriptive statistics, such as tables, graphs, means and standard deviations;
2. Cronbach's alpha coefficient, to measure the internal consistency of the JDI instrument;
3. T-tests, to compare the mean job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism of male and female teachers; and
4. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), to compare the mean job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism with regard to age group and position.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the JDI scale were as follows: work itself (0.737); supervision (0.832); co-workers (0.832); promotion (0.791); pay (0.803) and total of JDI scale (0.894). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicate that the measuring instrument used in the study was reliable and valid. According to Bull (2005), the average norm per dimension is 36 while the average norm for the total job satisfaction scale is 144. The job satisfaction levels of the sample population with regard to the various dimensions are below the average norm of 36. The total for the job satisfaction scale is 119.96, which is well below the average score of 144. The results, showing satisfaction in descending order, are as follows: pay (M = 32.74); promotion opportunities (M = 24.06); work itself (M = 23.07); supervision (M = 20.68); and relationship with co-workers (M = 19.41). The highest frequency reasons for absenteeism were as follows: family responsibility (52%); recurring medical conditions (44%); attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia (35%); minor illnesses (34%); accumulated leave (31%); study leave and leave for research or creative output (30%) and stress (30%).

The results showed that the reason most frequently cited for absenteeism was family responsibility, followed by recurring medical conditions, attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia, minor illnesses, accumulated leave, leave for the purposes of study, research and creative output, and stress. It is

recommended that wellness and employee assistance programmes be implemented to address these factors and thereby reduce absenteeism.

Remedial interventions should be implemented to enhance the satisfaction that teachers derive from their jobs, for example, improving the intrinsic nature of the job, encouraging teamwork, adopting more flexible management and supervision styles, increasing opportunities for promotion, and enhancing remuneration packages.

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CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The interaction between the upper management of an organisation and its other employees can either strengthen the relationship between these groups and bring about job satisfaction or demoralise the lower tiers and breed dissatisfaction. If an organisation is to avoid the high staff turnover that typically results from the latter, job satisfaction should not be seen as a privilege; instead, it should be considered a vital part of employees' work experience.

It is important for organisations to be aware of the work-related attitudes – what Greenberg and Baron (2003:56), define as “those lasting feelings, beliefs and behavioural tendencies toward various aspects of the job itself, the setting in which the work is conducted, and/or the people involved” – of their staff, because this will enable organisations to improve their functioning. Job satisfaction is not only a matter of salary; rather, it is about employees feeling valued on the one hand, and on the other, the quality of life they wish to have, both at the workplace and at home. Studies have shown that people want more control over their professional lives and want to do meaningful work in a nurturing, supportive environment (Blackwell, 2005:22).

Organisations should therefore, be seen to strive to attract good people and then to retain, motivate and develop them. One of the most critical questions to be addressed by human resource management processes is whether employees are proud of their jobs, as this is the best indication of the status and recognition they themselves accord to their jobs. Employee wellness programmes should also be designed in such a way that they address different aspects of employee performance, including absenteeism, tardiness, labour turnover, burnout, skills drainage and indiscipline (Testa, 1999:151), while care should be taken to accommodate and manage employees' expectations with regard to the combination of their professional and family lives.

Managers play a crucial role in their subordinates' job satisfaction, and their management style alone may well keep employees away from work if the relationship between them is not cordial. As the manager of a school, the principal should have personal insight, as well as insight into the team and the school as an organisation. It is also important to bear in mind that each team is different and therefore requires a different leadership style.

Ensuring job satisfaction among employees is a win-win proposition. Satisfied employees will save an organisation time and money in terms of dealing with unions to resolve employee grievances or becoming involved in protracted legal battles in the labour courts. This means that it will have more time and money to spend on staff training and development and incentive programmes, which should not only boost productivity, but also foster good relations between employer and employee and promote staff retention, all of which will render the organisation more competitive and help it build a good reputation.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the study is to measure job satisfaction levels among teachers and establish the reasons for absenteeism among the same group. The study also investigated whether factors such as gender, position, years of service and age have an impact on job satisfaction levels. In order to achieve these objectives, the study measured job satisfaction and absenteeism among 250 teachers in managerial, permanent and temporary positions in Kanye, Botswana.

1.3 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review in Chapter Two focuses on two constructs, namely job satisfaction and absenteeism. It provides an overview of job satisfaction in the context of basic education, followed by a discussion of the most important job satisfaction theories, dimensions and determinants. The chapter then goes on to discuss absenteeism in the workplace, its causes and impact, as well as ways of measuring absence. Job satisfaction is defined as an attitudinal variable that measures the degree to which employees enjoy their jobs and various aspects associated with it (Spector & Stamps, 2007). Absenteeism is variously defined as “an unplanned, disruptive incident” that manifests as “non-attendance when an employee is scheduled for work” (Van der Merwe & Miller, 1998:3); “... any failure of an employee to report for or to remain at work as scheduled, regardless of the reason” (Cascio, 2003:45); and “... the frequency and/or duration of work time lost when employees do not come to work” (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1994:33). Cascio emphasises the significance of the words “as scheduled,” as this automatically excludes holidays (annual leave), court cases, maternity leave and such like. His definition also eliminates the problem of determining whether an absence is excusable or not, for example, in the case of verified illnesses. Indeed, as Johnson, Croghan and Crawford (2003) point out, absence is often attributed to illness or injury and accepted as such by the employer. Van der Merwe and Miller (1998) classify absenteeism into three broad categories that contribute to understanding the nature of this phenomenon. They are:

- absence due to illness;
- authorized absence/absence with permission; and
- unexcused absence/absence without leave.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Quin (cited by Buitendach & De Witte, 2005:27), “employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour and report lower organisational commitment.” Lower organisational commitment often leads to higher employee turnover and absenteeism levels within organisations, and even though more and more businesses are beginning to rely on remote or mobile ways of working, which may seem to obviate absenteeism as a factor, a large number of organisations still need to have their employees physically present at the workplace for them to function profitably (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005:27). It therefore remains important that managers continue to focus on employee absence, as it can become extremely costly to organisations.

Not having people at work increases the workload of other employees, reduces productivity, and increases the cost of contract labour. Rhodes and Steers (1990) has pointed out that there are various factors that influence absence behaviour, ranging from an “absence culture” in organisations and job satisfaction to employees’ personal circumstances. Rather than try to investigate these multiple variables, this study focuses on job satisfaction as a possible variable influencing absenteeism.

Research suggests a strong correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism – as Argyle (as cited by Rhodes & Steers, 1990:34) succinctly puts it: “... when work is satisfying, people will show up to enjoy it.” Anderson (2004) broadly agrees with this position, adding that dissatisfied employees will withdraw from the workplace, often using their sick leave to do so. In essence, if there is a correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism, managers should devise focused strategies around the various aspects of job satisfaction in an effort to reduce absenteeism among employees.

To attract and retain competent, motivated and qualified teachers, education departments should understand the factors that affect quality teaching, motivation, attraction and retention of teachers. Apart from adequate resources, one of the most important factors is job satisfaction. If teachers experience job dissatisfaction, it will negatively influence the quality of education.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

The main objective of this present study was to measure job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism amongst teachers and find answers to the three research questions.

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. What are the job satisfaction levels of teachers?
2. What are the main reasons for absenteeism?
3. Are there differences in the job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism between males and females, age groups and position?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Research on job satisfaction seeks to measure affective, evaluative, cognitive and behavioural responses to the work environment. The most successful and best organisations to work for are able to convert employee satisfaction and loyalty, on the one hand, into customer and investor satisfaction and loyalty on the other (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2007:105).

Organisations that are able to do this obviously enjoy a competitive edge over others in the market. Given this link between employee retention and the retention of customers and investors, employee satisfaction should be considered as critically important. Moreover, employee dissatisfaction has significant negative impacts on an organisation that cannot be overlooked. These include high healthcare costs, staff turnover and absenteeism, and workplace violence (Robbins & Judge, 2007:33).

Many organisations use attitude surveys to determine the job satisfaction levels of employees. Milton (2001:47) argues that understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is one of the key reasons for measuring it. Wagner and Hollenberg (2007:121) believe that any organisation that is serious about enhancing employee attitudes should conduct job satisfaction surveys on a regular basis in order to measure trends and changes in this area over time and empirically assess the impact of changes in policy on workers' attitudes. In addition, when such surveys incorporate standardised scales, they allow the organisation to compare itself with others in the same industry in terms of these dimensions.

The results of this study should serve to sensitise school principals in the Secondary South Region, Kanye, Botswana, about the need to determine the specific factors that lead to job satisfaction among their

teaching staff and to reinforce these factors, and conversely, to find which factors impact negatively on the job satisfaction of their staff and take remedial action. In addition, the study should also indicate the relationship between the teachers' job satisfaction levels and their gender, age, and job grade. Finally, analysis of the data obtained could serve as a starting point for formulating objectives for further research.

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The study was conducted in compliance with accepted ethical practice (Coe, 2000:33), such as maintaining the respondents' anonymity; obtaining the respondents' permission to tape responses during personal interviews; obtaining the necessary permission to undertake the study from the management structures of the schools involved; using the information gathered in the study for the intended purpose; respecting the organisational values, norms and standards of the schools involved; and protecting confidential information.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The study was conducted within the quantitative paradigm using a cross-sectional design, which provides the researcher with a snapshot of elements at a given point in time (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003). The population for this research was 250 teachers from two high schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye, in Botswana. In view of the small population, the researcher conducted a census of the entire population using a questionnaire consisting of closed-ended questions. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), which consists of standardised items and scales, was used to measure the job satisfaction levels of teachers. The following statistical procedures and instruments were used:

- Descriptive statistics, such as tables, graphs, means and standard deviations;
- Cronbach's alpha coefficient, to measure the internal consistency of the JDI instrument;
- T-tests, to compare the mean job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism of male and female teachers; and
- One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), to compare the mean job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism with regard to age group and position.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of the study are those characteristics that limit the scope (or define the boundaries) of the inquiry, as determined by the exclusionary and inclusionary decisions that were made throughout the

development of the proposal, including the choice of objectives and questions, variables of interest, and alternative theoretical perspectives that could have been adopted. The first limiting step was the choice of the problem itself: implicit in this choice are other, related problems that could have been chosen, but were rejected or screened off from view. Upon review of these decisions, a statement of purpose or intent may be prepared that clearly states what is meant to be accomplished by the study as well as what the study does not intend to cover. In the latter case, the researcher's decision to exclude certain areas may be based on criteria such as "not interesting", "not directly relevant", or too problematic (Bantra, 2002:33). Some of the limitations are:

- respondents to a questionnaire may be suspicious to any questioning attitude or degree of doubt regarding questions being asked and may take the research for granted.
- some respondents may fear authorities in giving answers concerning their circumstances at the workplace, and they may anticipate victimisation since they claim dissatisfaction at work.
- unpleasant emotions may be experienced in anticipation of some (usually ill-defined) misfortune; Teachers especially in revealing their problems may be overwhelmed by what may happen next.
- data collection is limited to only that of public consumption and there are some confidential records which are not accessible and
- teachers who are unwilling to provide information make data collection a very difficult exercise.

1.10 PLAN OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Overview of the study

Chapter 1 provides the study background and problem statement, hypothesis and objectives. It also explains the significance and limitations of the study, as well as the ethical considerations.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 2 deals with the literature study, including all relevant sources used in conducting the research, such as journals, the Internet, text books, policy documents and procedures, and newspapers.

Areas covered in the literature review include the importance, determinants and effects of job satisfaction, as well as the factors that moderate it, and the reasons and impacts of absenteeism.

Chapter 3: Research method and design

The research method may be defined as a way to search for knowledge or any systematic investigation to establish facts. This will allow the researcher to explore and investigate in order to prove some hypothesis.

Chapter 4: Data analysis

The data analysis involves displaying the findings of the research using any chosen method or format, depending on the type of data that was gathered. Charts, graphs, and tables are used to relay the information gathered, for example to illustrate the job satisfaction levels of the study population.

Chapter 5: Discussion and recommendations

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the research, the deductions made based on the discussions with the study population and information gathered, and the implications of the findings.

1.11 SUMMARY

The study of job satisfaction and its relationship to absenteeism attempts to show that dissatisfied employees reverse the gains that could be achieved by a committed and dedicated workforce. Concerned or aggrieved employees may waste time in meetings with management trying to find ways in which they can have remedies and measures to prevent dissatisfaction. Teachers may be educated about the importance of productivity and the effective use of time, as some of the pillars that can help to enhance their satisfaction. Employment conditions, such as job security, position in the job hierarchy, potential for advancement and job autonomy, are factors that employees take into consideration whenever issues of job satisfaction are addressed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review has explored and discussed research about the two variables of the study, namely absenteeism and job satisfaction. The main purpose of the present study was to establish the job satisfaction levels and the reasons for absenteeism among the teachers of the two high schools involved in the study. Research has suggested that absenteeism among teachers is of great concern in many schools, hence this endeavour to concentrate on this phenomenon within schools.

A number of studies have attempted to establish the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, and these studies have revealed an inverse relationship between the two variables. Job satisfaction has been linked to important organisational outcomes such as customer satisfaction, as well as employees' organisational commitment and intent to stay with the organisation while absence may be a reaction to stressful or tiring work, but may also be construed as an expression of negative attitude or retaliation on the part of an employee against a manager or the organisation itself (Crawshaw, Budhwar & Davis, 2014). Performance reviews showed the effects of absence from work, for example, the more employees absent themselves from work, the lower the production rate at the workplace (Johns, 1996:165). Absenteeism is more evident from the frequency of absences, rather than from the total number of days absent. Frequency of absences is the number of times an employee is absent per given period (Johns, 1996:167). Employees have various reasons for not showing up at work, ranging from either genuine or fake illnesses, studies, family responsibilities, accidents, labour issues and/or drug-related reasons. All organisations should have clear policies in place to address and curb absenteeism; for example, if an organisation does not implement a strict sick leave policy, employees may see this as tacit encouragement to take sick leave.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Locke (as cited by Saari and Judge, 2004:396) has defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences." This definition draws attention to two aspects in particular, namely the emotional attachment an employee has to their job, and the deliberate review of an employee's work by the employer. Reviews are done using appraisals and appraisals at work have predetermined standards and their outcome may provoke an emotional reaction in the employee, and

this reaction will determine how satisfied or dissatisfied an employee is. Good marks in reviews may reflect that an employee is satisfied and bad marks may reflect the opposite.

Schermerhorn (1996) has viewed job satisfaction as an expression of how positively or negatively a person feels about different aspects of his or her job, which may in turn be a reflection of that individual's perceptions or relationship with either colleagues or supervisors. Organisations must be seen to support employees in their daily work in order to bring about loyalty and improve retention by removing elements that may create dissatisfaction while bearing in mind that in a heterogeneous environment, with male and female employees from different age groups, generations and (to a certain extent) backgrounds, and with varying qualifications or experience, no single element will produce either universal approbation or collective disapproval (Schermerhorn, 1996).

According to Kumar and Singh (2011:12), job satisfaction (or the lack thereof) depended on the employee's perception of the degree to which his work delivers those things that he desires – how well outcomes are met or expectations perhaps even exceeded. Regardless of the actual circumstances and situation, job satisfaction is an emotional response that cannot be seen, only inferred. Jehanzeb, Rasheed, Rasheed and Aamir (2012:274) held a similar view, defined job satisfaction as “a sensation employees have about their work environment and their expectations toward work”. Depending on the rewards and incentives employees receive – and management's motives for giving them – employees will respond to their work environment by being productive.

Naveed, Usman and Bushra (2011:302) have offered a slightly differently worded but important definition of job satisfaction as “the difference between the inputs made by the employee and the outputs received from the job.” An employee will experience job satisfaction if this difference is positive; for example, there is more output from the job than the inputs made by the employee. The researchers have attributed this to the fact that, depending on the employee and the nature of the work, job satisfaction may be derived from the employee's capabilities, achievements at work and ability to surpass expectations, whether implicit or explicit. On the other hand, job dissatisfaction may be brought about when an employee fails to achieve or produce at work, which may in turn be the result of a lack of skills, boredom or disapproval of either the system or management. For employees to enjoy their work and workplace in general, they need to be given a significant measure of freedom: freedom to express themselves, to make decisions concerning their work, to innovate, and to actualise themselves and their capabilities. Positive feedback, that is, recognition and acknowledgement, will also translate into job satisfaction and hence continued good performance

(Kumar & Singh, 2011:13). According to Fako, Stoffel and Moeng (2010), a well-oiled education system is important for a number of reasons, including human development and the maintenance of socially responsive economic and political systems. It is therefore hardly surprising that investing in education is considered as an investment in the future leaders of a country, the ones who will be responsible for keeping it running smoothly in decades to come. When the majority of students produce poor results, governments normally intervene with commissions of inquiries to find the root cause of the problem, because a poorly educated or uneducated population will add to unemployment numbers and ultimately also to crime statistics – reasons enough to keep teachers happy, so that they may produce the best possible school leavers, learners who will contribute to the future development of their country (Fako et. al., 2010).

Given the crucial role played by teachers, much research has been done both internationally and in South Africa regarding job satisfaction in this profession. Due to the bad performance of a number of South African high schools in recent years, a study was undertaken in selected high schools in the Western Province of South Africa to investigate the relationship between poor learner performance and teacher motivation (Al-Fudail & Mellar, 2008). The results suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic factors tend to influence educators' motivation. Teachers need to be motivated in order to be able to carry out their duty with the necessary passion. Their needs must be met and the environment must be tailored to suit them. Obstacles that teachers face on daily basis at their place of work, such as a shortage of resources and work overload, a (perceived) lack of recognition or limited opportunities for career growth, or the absence of job security, must be removed or minimised (Al-Fudail & Mellar, 2008). A study was conducted in Islamabad, Pakistan, to investigate differences in job satisfaction among teachers in terms of their gender and the type of school (urban or rural) where they taught. Data was collected from 785 teachers selected from all the public high schools (192) in one district. Male teachers were found to be generally less satisfied with their working conditions, compensation, possibilities for advancement, and supervision than their female counterparts, but there was no significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of urban and rural teachers (Birmingham, 1985:45).

In Kenya, many teachers are leaving the teaching profession for jobs in other sectors. In order to get the root cause of this phenomenon, a descriptive survey study was carried out among a sample of 270 teachers taken from all the public secondary schools in the Rachuonyo District to investigate the factors influencing job satisfaction. The study established that factors influencing the teachers' job satisfaction

included empowerment, job enrichment, compensation, supervision, interpersonal relations, organisational policies, workload, communication, advancement and the attainment of targets (Al-Fudail & Mellar, 2008).

A similar study in Zimbabwe highlighted poor teacher motivation in rural areas due to the unattractiveness of living and working there. Infrastructure in rural areas may be poor and there may be a lack of basic services, such as running water or electricity, which will tend to minimise the contact time between learners and educators; subjects that entail the use of electronic devices will be especially affected by a lack of electricity, with learners consequently failing such subjects. In addition, many teachers find living in rural areas depressing and boring due to limited social amenities and a lack of good health facilities. All these factors combine to seriously compromise the quality of teaching and learning in rural areas (Bhorat & Oosthuizen, 2006).

2.2.1 Theories of job satisfaction and motivation

The present study focuses on five extrinsic factors, such as pay, promotion, supervision, work itself relationships with co-workers and how they relate to teacher job satisfaction. In extrinsic motivation, the factors (hygiene's) that satisfy lower-level needs are different from those (motivators) that satisfy or partially satisfy higher-level needs. If hygiene factors (factors outside the job itself, such as working conditions, salary and incentive pay) are inadequate, employees become dissatisfied. Instead of relying on hygienes, the manager interested in creating a self-motivated workforce should emphasize job content or motivation factors. Managers do this by enriching worker's jobs so that the jobs are more challenging and by providing feedback and recognition (Dessler, Barkhuizen, Bezuidenhout, Braine, Du Plessis, Nel, Stanz, Schultz & Van der Walt, 2011: 433).

Rewards can also encourage retention within the organisation and the broader employment relationship and social exchange play a significant role. Most people are more likely to stay in the organisation if they consider their financial rewards are adequate. Extrinsic rewards are tangible, external to the work itself and typically controlled by others, both in terms of their size and their distribution. Financial or monetary compensation is an extrinsic reward. This will comprise a basic salary, perhaps additional bonuses or the potential for additional payments based on performance and a range of allowances or benefits (Crawshaw, Budhwar & Davis, 2014:210).

There are three main theory categories, namely content theories, process theories and contemporary theories (Saif, Nawaz, Jan & Khan, 2012). Saif et al. (2012:1385) have defined content theories of job

satisfaction as those that “focus on identifying the need drives and incentives/goals and their prioritization by the individual to get satisfaction.” These theories include Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s motivator-hygiene (or two-factor) theory, Alderfer’s Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory, and McClelland’s needs theory. Process theories attempt to explain how motivation comes about and how it leads to satisfaction; theories that fall into this category include Vroom’s Expectancy theory and the Porter-Lawler model. Contemporary theories of motivation incorporate equity, control and agency theory, as well as goal setting, reinforcement and job design theory.

Deriving from Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, content theories of job satisfaction revolve around employees’ needs and the factors that bring them a reasonable degree of satisfaction (Saifet et al., 2012). Based on the basic physical, biological, social and psychological needs of human beings, Maslow came up with a five-stage theory that places the needs of the individual in different categories and prioritises their attainment. These categories, in order of decreasing priority, are:

1. physiological needs (food, shelter, clothing);
2. safety and security needs (physical protection);
3. social needs (association with others);
4. esteem needs (receiving acknowledgement from others); and
5. self-actualisation needs (the desire for accomplishment or to leave behind a legacy).

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs forms the basis of theories that try to explain job satisfaction. Teachers, like all people, have needs that have to be satisfied. Besides the basic needs for food, shelter and clothing, safety from physical, harm, and social interaction, they also need the recognition and appreciation of students, colleagues and parents.

Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene or Two-factor theory emanated from a study conducted among accountants and engineers to determine what makes an individual feel good or bad about their job (Saifet et al., 2012). In terms of ‘satisfiers’, Herzberg noted that there were five features of work that bring about satisfaction, namely achievement, recognition, the job itself, responsibility and advancement. At the other end of the spectrum, Herzberg identified institutional politics, the management approach, supervision, pay, relationships at work and working conditions as factors that may demoralise employees.

Golshan, Kaswuri, Agashahi and Ismail (2011:12) have asserted that organisations are increasingly applying Herzberg's theory in order to create opportunities for "personal growth, enrichment and recognition" among their employees. Teachers should be promoted after successfully completing certain stages of their career and should receive recognition for special achievements – for example, when they produce exceptional results in their subject areas; on a more basic level, they should also be given responsibility to determine how to handle tasks that relate on their jobs. The Two-factor theory has however drawn its share of criticism. Golshan et al. (2011) have pointed out that it fails to distinguish between physical and psychological aspects and to precisely explain what motivators are and how they differ from hygiene factors; it also fails to express the degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a measure instead of using numbers. Another criticism levelled against it is that it assumes that all individuals will react in the same manner in similar situation (Saif et al., 2012).

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y models categorise employees as belonging to one of two groups based on two sets of assumptions. Theory X assumptions take a negative view of human beings: People have "an inherent dislike for work and avoid it if possible; because of this, they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to make them work. They prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security" (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 2000:377). Theory Y assumptions take the opposite view: The physical and mental efforts expended in work are as natural as at play and rest and external control and threat are not the only means for exerting effort. People are able to exercise self-direction and self-control in order to achieve objectives, but the degree of their commitment to objectives is determined by the size of the rewards attached to achieving them. Under proper conditions, people can learn to not only accept responsibility but also seek it" (Saif et al., 2012:1357). Applying these assumptions to a school environment, one could argue that two of the main causes of dissatisfaction among teachers are having to deal with problem students and a strict and inconsiderate management, for example a principal who is coercive and does not appreciate the efforts of teachers, or an overly directive principal who never delegates or allows teachers to make independent decisions. Conversely, a supportive principal may be a source of job satisfaction to teachers (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003:312).

McClelland's need achievement theory postulates that some people are driven to success through seeking "personal achievement rather than rewards themselves" (Saif et al., 2012:1387). This theory is readily applicable to academic environments and explains why some teachers are high achievers, despite the

difficulties they face: they set themselves high goals and achieving these goals is what drives them. Alderfer's ERG theory is related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, but reduces Maslow's five categories of need to three, namely existence (physiological and security needs); relatedness (social and esteem needs); and growth (self-actualisation) (Saif et al., 2012:1388).

Process theories explain 'how' satisfaction comes about, as opposed to 'what' causes motivation. The equity theory postulates that employees will weigh their input into a job against the output they receive from it – the more the rewards, the greater their satisfaction. This resonates with Naveed et al. (2011:302) definition of job satisfaction as the difference between employee input and job output. In terms of this theory, teachers who perceive that they receive more output from their jobs than what they put into them will experience job satisfaction.

According to Saif et al. (2012:1390), certain aspects of the job itself also shape how an employee perceives it. They have asserted that "clarity of tasks leads to greater job satisfaction, because greater role clarity creates a work force that is more satisfied with, committed to and involved in work". The authors have identified five major job characteristics that influence the psychological state of an employee and influence their motivation and job satisfaction, as well as their levels of absenteeism, namely the variety of skills involved in a task, the identity and significance of the task, autonomy and feedback.

2.2.2 Dimensions of job satisfaction

Funmilola, Olusola and Sola (2013) have identified five dimensions of job satisfaction in any organisation. These are payment, promotion opportunities, supervision, the work itself and working conditions. The Job Descriptive Index (version 9) was used to measure the job satisfaction levels of teachers on five subscales, namely work itself, supervision, co-workers, promotion opportunities, and pay. Therefore, the study has focused on these five extrinsic factors and their influence on teacher job satisfaction.

2.2.2.1 The impact of pay on job satisfaction

Simply put, salaries constitute an important element of the employment sector, because they facilitate the work performed by employees, thereby bringing overall satisfaction to the entire organisation. However, in terms of individual employees' job satisfaction, remuneration and earnings are a cognitively complex and multidimensional factor. According to Luthans (1998), salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs, but also are also instrumental in satisfying their higher-level needs.

Funmilola et al. (2013:511) have defined 'pay' as the remuneration (for example, salary/wages and benefits) that an employee receives in return for services rendered. Based on Adams' equity theory, employees' job satisfaction will depend on whether they perceive this remuneration to be equitable or not compared to the inputs and outcomes that they perceive others to contribute and receive, whether within the same organisation (internal equity) or relative to others holding similar positions in other organisations (external equity) (Bettercourt & Brown, 1997). Employees who feel that their remuneration package is fair are more motivated and likely to be satisfied at work and less likely to leave in search of greener pastures.

Teachers (like all employees) seek a fair balance between their work inputs, for example hard work and tolerance, and the outputs they receive, for example their salary and benefits. As is the case everywhere, pay is of paramount importance: the better the remuneration offered by a given school, the better that school will be able to attract and retain staff. However, employees may, at times, benchmark their salaries against those offered by other organisations, and if their remuneration packages compare poorly, they will be more likely to seek other employment opportunities. For teachers, this means either moving from government to private schools, or quitting teaching altogether to pursue different careers, a trend that is the rise (Ololube, 2006).

In Botswana, where the current study was conducted, disgruntled teachers have however been successful at forcing the government to correct some of the inequity attending their jobs. Dissatisfied teachers were not only unhappy about comparatively low salaries, but also demanded remuneration for extracurricular activities, such as coaching sport after hours, and more pay for complementary activities, for example, invigilating at examinations. In 2011, a majority of teachers boycotted these activities through strike action, compelling the Ministry of Education to increase allowances for invigilation, the moderation of student projects, and the marking of scripts, among others, and to remunerate teachers for participating in extracurricular activities. Teachers' salaries were also raised by level of operation in order to bring them on a par with other government departments, as they had previously been disadvantaged in terms of the grading of salary structures. Other issues that remain on the teachers' agenda are overtime allowances, increased salaries for teachers of scarce skills subjects, such as mathematics and science, and reduced work hours (Fako et al., 2010:31).

2.2.2.2 Promotion opportunities

According to Funmilola et al. (2013:512), promotion, or even just the prospect of it, is an important dimension of job satisfaction. Taormia (1999) has agreed: "If an employee feels that the organisation is committed to providing her/him with the necessary skills, career advancement and promotion, that employee builds a stronger emotional attachment to the organisation and therefore has higher job satisfaction"; conversely, "if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement, their job satisfaction may decrease."

Erdogan (1999) has asserted that promotion opportunities have an even more significant influence on job satisfaction than salary. Promotion not only provides an employee with increased financial means, but also leads to increased responsibility and personal growth, as well as enhanced social status and other perks associated with higher job levels, for example a housing allowance, more leave days, and improved medical aid and other employee benefits. In Maslovian terms, promotion therefore not only meets an employee's lower order physiological and security needs, but also the higher order esteem and self-actualisation needs, thereby creating a satisfied employee.

While promotion can greatly contribute to an individual employee's job satisfaction and the general prospect of promotion can raise employee morale, both of which are good for the organisation as a whole, promotion also has a number of other benefits at the organisational level. It may be coupled with further training to help newly promoted employees to successfully perform their new roles and handle the increased responsibilities associated with them (Aquinas, 2013:108). As part of promotion enhancing strategy, the mixture of experience and new skills training can bolster the succession plan within the organisation: not only are promotes better equipped to meet the challenge of their new roles upon the exit of senior managers or as part of the localisation of some posts, but, having risen through the ranks, they will also know exactly what happens in the lower organisational structures. This will help managers to be hands on and able to better strategize for their roles (Aquinas, 2013:108).

On a psychological level, promotion creates trust and loyalty among employees vis-à-vis the organisation. However, if not carefully managed, it may be a source of discontent and disunity among employees, and may discourage those who are not considered for promotion, especially when they feel that fairness is not applied. This dissatisfaction may be reduced if employees are better informed about the process (Funmilola et al., 2013:512).

2.2.2.3 Supervision

Funmilola et al. (2013:513) have stated that the actions of employee's immediate supervisors may determine employees' immediate job satisfaction and recognition of employees' achievements by supervisors' leads to job satisfaction and performance. This draws on McClelland's need achievement theory, which postulates that achievement is a driving force for performance and ultimately job satisfaction.

Supervision is in fact a core element of job satisfaction, because a manager or supervisor's leadership style greatly influences how employees perceive their jobs. Managers who support their subordinates, who do not hinder them or nit-pick, who appreciate their efforts and show trust in them can contribute greatly to employees' job satisfaction levels. If employees believe their managers to be competent, consistent and fair – for example, in the distribution of the workload – they have a more positive perception of their jobs and experience higher job satisfaction (Bettercourt & Brown, 1997).

Luthans (1992:121) has identified 'employee-centeredness' and 'influence' as the two dimensions of supervisory style that most affect job satisfaction. 'Employee-centeredness' entails the manager or supervisor taking a personal interest in the welfare of their employees. This means that a supervisor must be able to differentiate between the behaviours of his subordinates and be prepared to meet their needs and address their problems and concerns. Employees should also have ready access to supervisors and feel free to approach them on any issue. Influence refers to the degree to which employees feel that they have an input in decision-making; if they are allowed to participate in such processes, they feel that they are trusted and their contributions valued, which will translate into increased motivation and job satisfaction.

Whereas positive, constructive supervision may be a source of motivation and job satisfaction to employees, a negative supervisory style can become a real obstacle to their success and make their working life very unpleasant, to the point that it may contribute significantly to absenteeism. After the 2011 teacher strike in Botswana, it was reported that teachers who had participated in the strike complained of being victimised at work by their supervisors for being rebellious, and were overlooked for promotions or other recognition. Supervisors should understand that employees have a right to redress and a legal right to participate in lawful strike actions (Fako et al., 2010:31).

2.2.2.4 Work itself and working conditions

The nature of the work done by an employee and the conditions in which he must get it done have a significant impact on job satisfaction. As for the work itself, employees prefer jobs that are challenging, stimulating and a good match for their skills, and an individual's sense of fulfilment and contentment with his or her work will be significantly influenced by "the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results" (Robbins cited by Funmilola et al., 2013: 513). Robbins (1998) has stated that, "under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction." It follows that training contributes to job satisfaction, as it not only leads to personal growth, but also provides employees with the tools they need to do their jobs effectively. If employees feel that the organisation is committed to providing them with the necessary skills, they build a stronger emotional attachment to the organisation and therefore have higher job satisfaction (Taormia, 1999).

Besides the work itself, the working conditions must also be conducive to creating satisfied employees. A clean, well-organised, appropriately equipped and safe working environment is an obvious prerequisite to employees being able to effectively carry out their tasks. However, the working environment extends beyond the physical aspects of the workplace; it also refers to employees' interactions with their surroundings, colleagues and management. As shown in Section 2.2.2.1, employees' perception of whether management is consistent and fair – for example, whether they deem the workload, allocation of overtime, or any other aspect of their work which may be advantageous, either in monetary or non-monetary terms, to be equitably distributed – is also a decisive factor (Taormia, 1999).

Spector and Stamps (2007) have pointed out that the innate qualities of employees' are also important drivers of either positive or negative behaviours within organisations. Management must therefore ensure that it knows these qualities, as well as the skills of their subordinates, in order to effectively allocate tasks and not provoke discontent. Ample research has shown that teachers are generally satisfied with those aspects of their work that directly relate to teaching (such as, their various tasks and personal and professional growth), but dissatisfied with those surrounding the performance of their work (working conditions, interpersonal relations and salary (Butt, 2005). The strict routine and the repetitive nature attached to the work itself may be problem, as these factors may engender boredom, which is why the opportunity for growth is so important. Like employees in other organisations, teachers also desire challenging and stimulating jobs that match their competencies and opportunities to grow in their careers.

As mentioned before, ongoing training makes this possible, and enables employees to better assume the new or bigger responsibilities that come with a new position. Teachers with the prerequisite skills and willingness to perform more challenging jobs should be therefore be accorded reasonable study leave to allow them to expand their knowledge and further improve their skills.

As for working conditions, a teacher's working environment is constituted of a number of tangible and intangible variables. The first concerns the physical working environment, for example infrastructure, equipment and resources (including textbooks, boards, chalk and desks), and the second, factors such as administrative changes or poor learner discipline (Sreenivasan & Narayana 2005:51). While the physical conditions in private schools may be first-rate, they are a common source of complaint among teachers at many government schools, where infrastructure (and even basic services, such as electricity and sanitation) are often lacking, buildings dilapidated and classrooms overcrowded. At schools thus disadvantaged, the working conditions are hardly conducive to teaching or learning (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002:321). Michaelowa (2002:10) has asserted that "teachers are generally less satisfied with their profession when they have to teach classes with a high number of students and when they are posted in isolated rural areas far from the next city".

The 'human material' they work with, that is the learners they are expected to teach, form an important part of teachers' working environment and may have a strong impact on how they perceive that environment. Michaelowa (2002:10) has stated that, when considering whether to move to a different school, teachers will take their present students' learning and performance into account, preferring to "stay at the same place when they have well-performing students there." More pressing than the issue of learners' knowledge levels and performance, however, is their behaviour, towards other learners as well as teachers. Steyn (2001) points out that teachers may not be motivated to work in an environment where they do not feel physically and psychologically protected and safe. Lack of discipline and other behavioural and societal issues such as drug use, among learners have created a situation where teachers in many public schools have a real concern for their physical safety. Policies should, therefore be put in place to control and minimise acts of violence at school, especially against teachers.

Poor working conditions, coupled with excessive workloads, demoralise teachers in their day to day activities and ultimately have a detrimental effect on their motivation and attitude towards their job and general behaviour at work (Bishay, 1996:64). The effects of job satisfaction among teachers in Botswana were clearly reflected in the relatively low pass rates of 2011 and 2012, which prompted the government to

appoint a commission of inquiry to investigate these results and conduct an audit of teachers' welfare (Bokhutlo, 2011).

2.2.2.5 Relationship with co-workers

The growing body of literature on the relationship between co-worker relationships and interaction and job satisfaction appears to indicate that this aspect is taking on an ever-increasing role, not just in terms of productivity, but also in determining the experience of work and its meaning (Hudson, 1997:243). A study by Mickiewicz (2000) has found that close friendships at the workplace were associated both with career success and job satisfaction. Riordan and Griffeth (1995) have also examined the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes, with the results indicating that opportunities for friendship were associated with increased job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment, as well as a significant decrease in intention to leave. Luthans (1992:54) has contended that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction, but agrees that it is more than likely to suffer when these relationships are extremely strained.

Such findings strengthen the argument that organisations should strive to integrate employees so as to create group cohesion among them and among departments within the organisation (Lambert, Hogan, Barton & Lubbock, 2001). Cordial relationships between employees make for a supportive and encouraging environment, which can do much to relieve stress and prevent burnout (Aquinas, 2013:414). What is more, working towards a common goal means that employees necessarily share something and feel that they are part of a team. Achievements and a sense of involvement made in this context will further strengthen the relationship and motivate employees to maintain or improve on their performance. Positive co-worker relationships also create healthy competition, and make work more interesting, which is good for any organisation (Aquinas, 2013:414).

Good relationship among employees can be especially useful during the induction of new employees, which can be a tedious exercise if other employees are not utilised to help them fit in. Organisations that invest time in creating a positive experience for new employees create a positive attachment with the new employee, which will immediately boost the newcomer's perception of his new job, working conditions and the organisation (Taormina, 1999). Moreover, new employees will take less time in adapting to the new environment, which will save precious time and prevent the loss of too much productivity while the newcomer learns the ropes. Having 'old hands' mentor new ones means, sharing their experience and

knowledge with them and encouraging them, organisations can speed up the learning curve and make it more effective.

Considering the special challenges and nature of the teaching profession (like the emotional strain of working with difficult learners or the extracurricular commitments), perhaps teachers rely even more on the support and encouragement of the colleagues. In fact, Hillebrand (1999) has found that the greatest needs of educators centre on interpersonal needs and that healthy relationships with colleagues and school principals increase teachers' educational input and goal attainment. Conversely, a lack of communication and interaction with their co-workers can be very detrimental to their own effectiveness as educators and that of the school as a whole, with the learners suffering the consequences.

2.2.3 Determinants of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is related to such characteristics as an employee's gender, education level, seniority, and the leadership style of the manager (Aquinas, 2013:149). In the next section, these determinants of job satisfaction will be discussed.

2.2.3.1 Gender

Llorento and Macias (2005) have contended that there is no significant relationship between gender and job satisfaction, a finding echoed by Ercikti, Vito, Walsh and Higgins (2011). Ercikti's et al. (2011) study into the determinants of job satisfaction among police managers has found that gender showed no significant contribution as a predictor of job satisfaction. On the other hand, Lim, Teo and Thayer (1998) have reported that women are generally less satisfied with working conditions than men, and noted that female teachers report higher stress than male teachers due to the fact that they are often single-parent families and have to raise children on their own.

Various theories have emerged to account for what has often been referred to as the "the paradox of the contented female worker", a phrase first coined by Crosby (as cited by Tolbert & Moen, 1998) to describe the apparent paradox that arises from the phenomenon of women reporting higher job satisfaction levels than their male counterparts, despite being worse off objectively. One of the explanations is that men and women attach value to different aspects of their jobs. In addition to placing greater emphasis on co-worker relations, women are also more inclined to assign priority to work that provides them with a sense of

accomplishment. Furthermore, women may compare themselves only with other women or with women who stay at home, rather than with all other employees (Hull, 1999:160).

2.2.3.2 Educational Level

According to Senel and Senel (2012:1148), higher educational levels and qualifications may well increase an employee's professionalism and result in higher job satisfaction. Better-qualified teachers will tend to get more satisfaction from their jobs, because they are better informed and more rounded than those with low education levels. Teachers with less educational attainment and in-depth subject knowledge may often defer answering learners' questions as they may lack the knowledge to provide immediate solutions.

2.2.3.3 Seniority

Age and seniority are complementary determinants of job satisfaction. Senel and Senel (2012:143) have argued that older people tend to exhibit more job satisfaction because, over time, they have developed a high level of work commitment and "a better person-organisation fit." Treating seniority and 'tenure' as synonyms, Romero and Strom (2011:3) assert that employees with "more seniority typically has more job security" and will likely have more job satisfaction. This is supported by Michaelowa's (2002) finding that temporary teachers have less job security and show a strong desire to move to other positions in the hope of getting permanent contracts.

2.2.3.4 Leadership style

Managerial leadership and supervision have an important impact on the motivation, commitment, adaptability and satisfaction of employees. According to Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2001:20), leadership style is the way in which an organisation's management philosophy manifests itself in practice. A participative leader is inclusive when it comes to decision-making, including stakeholders, supervisors and subordinates in the process. Autocratic leaders, on the other hand, will make binding decisions without involving anybody else. Other leaders are democratic, with the majority of decisions being reached by consensus. A laissez-faire approach gives employees a high degree of licence with regard to decision-making, but holds them accountable for their decisions and actions, which serves as a source of motivation for capable employees. A delegation strategy can also be an effective motivational tool, in that it allows more people to be actively involved, making them feel valued and important, which in turn builds loyalty to the organisation (Crawshaw et al., 2014:130-132).

2.3 ABSENTEEISM

Organisations should periodically calculate the cost of absenteeism to enable managers to determine the seriousness of the problem and its impact on profits based on the most recent available data (Grobler, Warnich, Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield, 2006:123). In order to effectively control and manage absenteeism at the work place, it is important to define the concept well, distinguish between the different types of absenteeism (Nel et al., 2008:581), and look at the direct and indirect cost associated with absenteeism (Levy, 2006:321).

Employees are required by their employment contract and/or or common law duty to regularly and reliably attend their place of work. When they fail to do so, this constitutes an incidence of absenteeism. Robbins and Judge (2007) have acknowledged that absenteeism is generally harmful to an organisation, but point out that in some instances, not having an employee show up for work would be preferable to having them there; consider the possibly disastrous consequences of having an ill or fatigued pilot or surgeon perform their work.

Swarnalatha and Sureshkrishna (2013:1) have defined absenteeism simply as the “failure to report to work” and suggest that employees who regularly or habitually absent themselves from their workplace are a threat to the organisation and turn it into a “deviant workplace.” Senel and Senel (2012:1144) have taken a more measured approach, defining absenteeism as the “lack of presence of an employee for planned work.” They have explained that any instance where an employee makes a conscious choice not to attend work for any reason other than illness or other certified reasons of absence constitutes absenteeism.

The above definitions of absenteeism exclude absences from work that are planned or approved in advance and which are not as disruptive as those that arrive without warning (Swarnalatha & Sureshkrishna, 2013). Planned absences from work allow managers to make contingency arrangements and implement them in advance. It is important to distinguish between authorised absences (planned and managed absenteeism) and unplanned ones, which are unpredictable both in terms of the duration of the incident and the person involved – absenteeism that is unplanned, disruptive and costly (Botswana, Department of Education, 2000). This type of absenteeism is held in such universal disdain that it often referred to as ‘culpable absenteeism’, reflecting the blameworthiness of an employee who is absent without authorisation for reasons that are within his control (Botswana, Department of Education, 2000).

Employees present a variety of excuses for short-term absences, such as, their car has broken down or they have to appear in court as a witness. Supervisors need to discern the authenticity of the excuse before granting it. The absenteeism policy must make clear exactly what constitutes authorised absenteeism, and supervisors must adhere to the policy when granting such leave. According to Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz (2008), excessive absence is reflective of a permissive organisational culture where employees are likely to abuse the high degree of flexibility.

Delinquent sick leave, or just a mere excuse to abscond from duty offers a case in point. If an employee routinely calls in sick just before or after a weekend, long weekend or public holiday, it should send out alarm signals to his supervisor or manager. Levy (2006) has pointed out that it is, at the very least, suspicious that medical conditions should present with such regularity and reliability at these times. A simple check of an employee's absence record will enable an employer to distinguish between genuine sick leave cases and instances of sick leave abuse. Delinquent sick leave tends to fall into a recognisable, repetitive pattern, often on the same days of the week, while genuine cases of illness arise much more randomly and are normally of a longer duration. Although blatant abuse of sick leave is relatively easy to identify and deal with (Levy, 2006), it is a pervasive and ubiquitous organisational ill. In a UK-based study on the abuse of sick leave, 40% per cent of respondents admitted that, at one time or another, they had taken sick leave when they were not really ill. Of this 40%, 7% indicated that they resorted to such behaviour often or all the time (Levy, 2006).

Smanjak (2008) has reported an unscheduled absenteeism rate of approximately 9% among hourly-paid workers in the United States. This means that almost one in every ten employees is absent when they are required to be at work. Smanjak (2008) has found that the average direct cost of unscheduled absenteeism to US employers is USD789 per employee per year. Robbins and Judge (2007:28) have affirmed that organisations that rely heavily on assembly-line production are especially vulnerable to disruption from above-average absenteeism rates (higher than 3%), as the direct and indirect costs associated with absenteeism will ultimately result in delayed decision-making, strained relations with customers due to poor product quality, and late deliveries. They have stressed that organisations should have policies and measures in place to prevent absenteeism from becoming a burden and rendering them dysfunctional and culture of absenteeism must be actively discouraged.

Kaman (1995:133) has listed three diverse but highly interrelated variables that play a major role in absenteeism, namely personal, attitudinal and organisational factors. The most significant personal

characteristics vis-à-vis employee absences are an employee's gender, age and occupational status. Schultz and Schultz (2006) have suggested that younger workers are much more inclined to take unauthorised leave than their older counterparts. According to Kaman (1995:238), younger employees have higher absence rates, but as employees approach middle age, the rate decreases; Kaman adds that a second rise in absenteeism rates may be observed after the age of 50 years due to an increase in debilitating diseases from this age onward. Attitudinal characteristics include dissatisfaction with work, which is a major determinant of employee absenteeism. Nel et al. (2008) have explained that an employee may have certain expectations about the application and development of his skills and receiving respect and equal treatment. If these expectations are not met, the employee may resort to abusing sick leave as a means of seeking a temporary withdrawal from the work situation (Nel et al., 2008). Nel et al. (2008) also mentioned a poor job-person fit as a source of dissatisfaction that may give rise to absenteeism. The third variable mentioned by Kaman relates to organisational factors, for example, a permissive organisational culture might encourage employee absence (Nel et al., 2008). The size of the work unit is very important in this regard: as it increases, so too does absenteeism, and vice versa (Kaman, 1995:239).

2.3.1 Measuring absenteeism

Measuring the level of absenteeism among its employees enables an organisation to determine the extent and nature of the problem so as to take appropriate corrective action. Two commonly used methods for measuring absenteeism are based on total work time lost due to absenteeism and the frequency of absence, respectively (Nel et al., 2001).

The time lost method expresses the percentage of contracted working time available (in days or hours) that has been lost due to absence based on the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{Total absence (hours or days) during a given period}}{\text{Total contracted time (hours or days) in that period}} \times 100$$

(Nel et al., 2001)

The absence frequency approach for reporting absence data expresses the average number of absence events per employee as a percentage. It measures the spread of absence across employees and provides a better indicator of short-term absence than the time lost method. It is calculated as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Number of absence incidents over a period}}{\text{Average number of employees over the period}} \times 100$$

(Seccombe, 1995)

An 'absence incident' refers to any instance of absence, regardless of its duration. A higher absence incident rate indicates that absences are of shorter duration and therefore more disruptive to the organisation, as it is easier and less costly to make contingency plans when it is known that an employee will be absent for a longer period than it is to deal with short, unexpected absences.

2.3.2 Impact of absenteeism

Goodman and Atkin (1994) have found that replacing an absent worker with a less skilled worker, either from within the organisation or outside, leads to a decline in productivity, and emphasise disciplinary action and an increase in workplace accidents among other negative impacts. However, Robbins and Judge (2007:28) have pointed out that absenteeism may have negative and positive consequences for an organisation. On the negative side, they also cited the impact of lost production and a reduction in work quality; on the positive, they mentioned the benefit that may be derived from a fatigued employee's absence when the nature of their work requires mental alertness (Robbins & Judge, 2007:28). Goodman and Atkin (1994:279) have supported this view, saying that the impact depends on the constituency under consideration.

While Coughlan, Clark and Oswald (2004) did not mention any positive outcomes associated with absenteeism, they have also agreed that the impacts are multifaceted, emphasising that they are not limited to production losses or inferior outputs – which may eventually translate into a potential loss of clients – but also have an immediate effect on an absentee's colleagues and managers. Coughlan's et al. (2004) opinion is borne out by a study where interviewees asserted that everyone, from co-workers to supervisors and departmental managers, who works with an absent employee, is affected by every incident of absence (McHugh, 2001). In particular, respondents frequently reported that co-workers who were required to step in for their absent colleagues experienced increased pressure and stress. Moreover, workers who have been absent from work will return to an increased workload, which in turn leads to increased work pressure, making them susceptible to further absence from work (McHugh, 2001).

Studies about the impact of absenteeism in school environments report similar findings. According to Arnell and Brown (2012:172), the colleagues of an absent teacher “tend to feel more burdened, because they may have to plan for the teacher who is absent.” In addition, “substitute teachers do not always measure up to the regular classroom teacher's routine and methods to stimulate students to learn” (ibid), which will result in lower motivation and morale among students and concomitant poorer performance. Arnell and Brown also noted that “teachers tend to be absent more often” in schools “where students are poorest and failing the most academically” (ibid).

Considering the above information, it is evident that absenteeism seriously affects the individual and his or her colleagues, management, the organisation as a whole and even the community at large.

2.3.3 Reasons for absenteeism

The excessive non-attendance or habitual late coming of an employee may speak volumes about both the employee involved and the organisation itself, and always bears further investigation. While employees may have legitimate reasons for being absent from work, such as illness or personal problems, the organisation may also tacitly encourage this behaviour through its actions or inaction. The following factors have been found to contribute to absenteeism: Work-life balance strategies and policies are vital Human Resource functions to ensure that employees balance their personal and professional life (Miryala & Chiluka, 2012:37). People want more control over their work life and accord more meaning to their non-work life. Family responsibilities may keep devoted parents away from work, especially mothers – for example, they need to prepare their kids for school in the morning or take care of them when they are ill. Balancing work and family life must therefore be an important management issue. Organisations may devise different methodologies to achieve this, for example, flexitime, telecommuting, providing childcare centres within the organisation or enabling parents to work from home (Swanepoel et al., 2008:200). Working from home is however not practicable for teachers, as they need to interact with learners (Ulaula, 2014). Pregnant women may be absent from work to attend routine medical check-ups, while maternity leave provides for relatively prolonged absences from work for new mothers (Ulaula, 2014). The education policy in Botswana allows for twelve weeks of maternity leave (Balule, 2007:103-104). However, paternity leave is not recognised in Botswana education system as well as labour laws. Minor illnesses and ailments such as colds, flu and headaches may afflict employees to such an extent that they elect to miss work in order to seek medical attention. (In order to combat this problem, some high schools in Botswana, such as Moeding College, have clinics and full-time nurses to attend to minor illnesses) (Botswana, Department of

Education, 2000). Acute medical conditions such as HIV/Aids, cancer, stroke and heart attack may require sufferers to follow a strict medical regimen, such as regularly going for check-ups or taking medication with debilitating side-effects that may prevent them from going to work (Miryala & Chiluka, 2012:37).

Regardless of whether injuries occur at the workplace or elsewhere, affected employees may not be able to perform their normal duties or even go to work. Many researchers have labelled teaching a highly stressful profession (Al-Fudail & Mellar 2008). Liu and Ramsey (2008) have found that stress due to poor work conditions – for example, inadequate classrooms or equipment and the (perceived or real) danger of physical violence to their persons – strongly influence teachers' job satisfaction levels. The researchers further report that inadequate time-planning and preparation and a heavy teaching load also reduce the satisfaction that educators may otherwise glean from their profession. The problem is further compounded by the demands of administrators, colleagues, students and parents, as well as student behaviour and a lack of recognition for their accomplishments (Greenglass & Burke, 2003). Over time, the cumulative effect of these stressors and the negative emotions they engender may lead teachers to absent themselves in order to recuperate and restore their physical and mental energy levels (Kyriacou, 2001). This is not only highly relevant to teachers, but is also true of school administrators and policy makers. Burnout and fatigue are often the reasons for absenteeism. Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2003) have defined burnout as a psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to stressors in the workplace. It is therefore conceptualised as resulting from long-term occupational stress, especially among workers who deal directly with other people in some capacity or other (Maslach et al., 2003). It may also result from ongoing work overload or working prolonged hours without rest. Organisations that are understaffed may have a higher incidence of burnout among employees. Recognising an alcoholic at work can be difficult. It may take a medical expert to spot the early symptoms of alcoholism, such as habitual tardiness, as they are often related to other problems, such as absenteeism (Nel et al., 2008:295). Employees who habitually overindulge or are addicted to drugs may experience incapacitating hangovers that prevent them from going to work, or might resort to staying away from work in order to avoid having their problem detected, seeking refuge in sick leave (Nel et al., 2008:295). Alcohol or drug addiction is a serious problem and organisations should have a formal written policy on substance abuse in place to properly address it (Nel et al., 2008:295).

Extreme weather conditions, such as floods or heavy snow, may make roads impassable or trap people in their homes, making it impossible for them to go to work (Sreenivasan & Narayana, 2005:59). Unreliable

transport, or strikes in the public transport system, may likewise keep employees from work. Labour disputes and strike action may compel employees to stay away from the workplace, or may result in a lockout situation, where the employer refuses workers entry. Section 213 of the South African Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) defines 'lockout' as the exclusion by an employer of employees from the employer's workplace, for the purpose of compelling the employees to accept a demand in respect of any matter of mutual interest between employer and employee, whether or not the employer breaches those employees' contracts of employment in the course of or for the purpose of that exclusion. On April 18, 2011, public servants belonging to the Botswana Federation of Unions, enjoying a base of 90 000 members, went on strike demanding higher salaries in the first ever militant strike in Botswana since independence (Dikarabo, 2011). Teachers joined the strike, demanding a 16% salary increase. When the government offered only 3%, teachers decided to stay away from work. However, the government implemented a no work, no pay policy which ultimately forced the teachers to go back to the classrooms. Incidents of absenteeism started to appear as those who stayed far from their workplaces could not afford to pay for transport (Dikarabo, 2011).

Except under special conditions or due to extenuating circumstances, when they may be allowed leave during school terms, teachers are only entitled to take their accumulated leave during school breaks. Teachers on study leave may be allowed time off work to concentrate on their studies, for example, to prepare for examinations (Ulaula, 2014). Employees attending workshops, training courses or conferences that contribute to their professional development will usually be excused from work to attend these events. Teachers involved in activities that fall beyond the strict scope of teaching, such as clubs or coaching sport may legitimately be absent from the classroom due to competitions among schools. However, such activities may also serve as a pretence for teachers who are dissatisfied with their core duty to absent themselves from the classroom (Ulaula, 2014). If an organisation entertains an absence-tolerant culture, its employees may regard this as a hidden benefit, an opportunity that they dare not miss. To combat this, some organisations, especially in the private sector, follow a 'no work, no pay' policy, whereby employees are paid for actual time spent at the workplace and sick leave does not apply. Some organisations have ineffective systems to monitor and record work attendance, and employees may take advantage of this poor supervision to absent themselves from work without proper permission or legitimate reasons. Employees may absent themselves from work if their expectations of the workplace fail to realise. In such cases, absenteeism may be a form of expressing disapproval of management. Employees who enjoy their work find ways to minimise their absences (Knight, 2002:526). Employees' skills sets may not match the

tasks they are given, which may create boredom or frustration, because they feel that they are not using their skills or that their jobs are a waste of time. Such feelings may result in a decision to stay away from work. When employees are frequently transferred from one department or location to another, much productive time will be lost to the time spent on travelling, moving and settling into the new environment (Singh 2010:35). Greenglass and Burke (2003) have mentioned a California case where a jury awarded \$30 million in damages against the 450-store Ralph's supermarket chain for failing to stop the systematic and long-term sexual harassment and physical and emotional abuse of female employees by a store manager. During the trial, the jury heard of repeated incidents involving fondling, foul language and racial slurs, and the throwing of everything from pens to telephones. Although this may represent an extreme case of workplace abuse, it is not difficult to see that employees may well prefer to absent themselves from work rather than face such treatment. As far as teachers are concerned, the most common form of workplace abuse reported is foul language and the threat of physical violence directed against them by students. This creates a hostile environment that many teachers will avoid by renegeing on their duties in order to protect themselves (Greenglass & Burke, 2003).

High absenteeism and labour turnover figures may be an indication of discontent within an organisation with disgruntled employees communicating their dissatisfaction with management by absenting themselves (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Organisations should therefore do careful introspection in considering whether absenteeism issues within their ranks are perhaps a manifestation of genuinely unhappy employees. Teachers who are dissatisfied with their work or work environment display lower commitment and are at a greater risk of leaving the profession (Evans, 2001).

2.4 SUMMARY

The literature study has explored job satisfaction and absenteeism as an indication of dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction is a measure of the degree to which an employee's needs are met by his or her job. Employees who perceive their jobs as unrewarding or failing to live up to their expectations will show an increased tendency to absent themselves from the workplace.

Factors that affect job satisfaction include the age of the employee and job security; if guaranteed, tenure correlates positively to job satisfaction. The nature of the work and the work environment also affect job satisfaction. Enriching jobs that provide employees with a variety of tasks result in greater satisfaction than

routine ones. The type of supervision also affects employee satisfaction: a coercive boss will tend to demoralise his employees, which translates into diminished job satisfaction.

As regards absenteeism, the literature indicates that it has disastrous effects on the individual, his fellow employees, the organisation and its clients. In a school scenario, teacher absenteeism not only adversely affects the performance of students, but also puts pressure on an absent teacher's colleagues, who have to assume his duties, and demoralises them; in addition, it tends to predispose the absent teacher to even more absenteeism in order to avoid the pressure of the heightened work load that awaits him on his return.

Several predictors of absenteeism were explored. In terms of age and gender, younger teachers tend to be more absent from the classroom than older ones, while female teachers appear to be absent more frequently than their male counterparts, albeit for shorter periods. Teachers who fail to obtain good results from their students also tend to be more absent, possibly to avoid a situation where they perceive themselves to be ineffective. In short, systematic teacher absenteeism is often a sign of job dissatisfaction and understanding the root causes, trends and predictors may go a long way towards creating practical solutions for curbing this problem.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains an in-depth discussion of the methodology used in the present study. It covers the study design, research philosophy and paradigm, as well as the population sampling and data collection techniques. The researcher draws particular attention to ethical issues and the ways in which the data was analysed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design encompasses everything that the researcher does, from the formulation of the research questions to conducting the study and the production of a report about the study (Creswell, 2007). This study adopted a positivist paradigm, using a cross-sectional survey design. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) have contended that the positivist researcher is objective about the nature of the 'truth' he is enquiring about and that he avails himself of logical, science-based instruments that may be used to measure this 'truth'. Grix (2004) has added that, while there may be many 'truths' pertaining to a given phenomenon and many perspectives of this 'truth' because of how different people view it, the positivist paradigm remains objective and seeks to find only the 'truth' about the phenomenon.

For this reason, the researcher has operated from within the positivist paradigm utilised a quantitative approach to measure outcomes, using data collection instruments such as questionnaires (Bell, 1993). Bell (1993) has asserted that the major aim of quantitative research is to develop and utilise mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses pertaining to the phenomenon being investigated. In quantitative research, the process of evaluation or measurement is focused mainly on quantity, because it provides the fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships. Something worth noting about quantitative research is that the researcher asks specific, narrow questions and collects numerical data from participants to answer these questions. Then the researcher analyses the data with the help of statistical programmes. In addition, the positivist researcher clearly defines his sample population so that it is representative of the population at large and may be readily used to draw inferences about it (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.3 POPULATION

This study investigates the job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism of teachers at two high schools in the Secondary South Region, in the Kanye District of Botswana. The schools have a combined teaching staff of 250, with varying qualifications, skills and experience, as well as both genders.

Considering the small size of the total population, the researcher has opted for a census survey, collecting data from the total population of 250 teachers to provide answers to the research questions. Shannon and Bradshaw (2002) list a number of advantages of a census survey over a sample, namely that it allows the researcher to collect accurate and more reliable demographic data; every individual receives the measuring instrument, making it easier to administer; and it has less inherent bias, as deductions are based on data collected from the entire population.

The responses obtained from a census survey are more representative than a sample. In addition, the conclusions reached from the data are accurate for the whole population, the recommendations flowing from the study are also relevant to the entire secondary school teaching staff in the Kanye District, and may reasonably be considered applicable to all secondary school teachers in Botswana.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The data was collected by means of a questionnaire. As Isaac and Michael (1995:141) have explained, questionnaires are the “the single most widely used technique in education” and require “a careful, clear statement of the problem” they are designed to investigate.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section contained questions pertaining to respondents' biographical data in order to draw a profile of the population, including age, gender and years and levels of experience. The second section has evaluated respondents' job satisfaction levels by means of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), which, according to Ramayah, Jantan and Tadisina (2001), remains the most reliable available measure of job satisfaction: First, the JDI has been widely used in business and government as both a research tool and a diagnostic indicator. Second, a strong case has been built for construct validity, both in the original source as well as in numerous other publications that report correlation between JDI scales and other measures of job satisfaction. Third, the JDI dimensional structure is stable across various occupational groupings.

Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek and Frings-Dresen (2003) have listed eleven aspects that are considered to promote job satisfaction, namely work content, autonomy, growth or development, financial rewards, advancement, supervision, communication, co-workers, meaningfulness, workload and work demands. Saari and Judge (2004) have agreed that the JDI is a very reliable tool for measuring job satisfaction, but consider only five aspects or facets of work, namely pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision and the work itself.

A number of studies have confirmed that the instrument is valid, reliable, and generally applicable, allowing for longitudinal comparisons across studies. In a study conducted by Futrell (1979:382), the coefficient reliability estimate was 0.86 while a factor analysis conducted by Roznowski (1989:811) has showed Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.82 (for work); 0.88 (for supervision); 0.76 (for pay); 0.81 (for promotion); and 0.89 (for co-workers). Futrell (1979:596) has conducted a study to measure the job satisfaction levels of salespeople using the JDI scales; the results revealed the following reliability alpha coefficients: 0.85 (work); 0.93 (co-workers); 0.91 (supervision); 0.67 (pay); and 0.88 (promotion).

The revised 2009 JDI was used for the present study (Job Descriptive Index, 2009). It is a 72-item instrument measuring Saari and Judge's five facets of job satisfaction listed above: pay (9 items); opportunities for promotion (9 items); co-workers relationships (18 items); supervision (18 items); and type of work (18 items) (Saari & Judge, 2004).

The following original numerical codes were used:

- 'Yes' was coded as 3;
- 'no' was coded as 0; and
- unsure was coded as 1.

Each JDI facet was scored separately and negatively worded items were reverse scored.

The third section of the questionnaire was designed to measure the reasons for absenteeism among the population. It contained close-ended questions requiring respondents to self-report on their reasons for absence during 2012. Arnell and Brown (2012:173) have suggested the popular Steers and Rhodes model for measuring absenteeism among teachers. According to this model, certain predictors pertaining to their psychological and physiological wellbeing will affect teachers' work attendance. These include predominantly "demographic variables, such as personal and family-related characteristics [...] as well as

psychological variables such as job satisfaction, motivation to be absent, and the ability to attend work” (ibid). In formulating the items contained in this section, the researcher therefore took into account the biographical characteristics of the participants, as well as their psychological and physiological wellbeing.

3.5 PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

An introductory letter explaining the purpose of the study and seeking respondents’ permission to use the data collected for this purpose accompanied the questionnaire. In order to ensure anonymity and confidentiality, respondents were not required to provide their names.

3.5.1 Questionnaire distribution

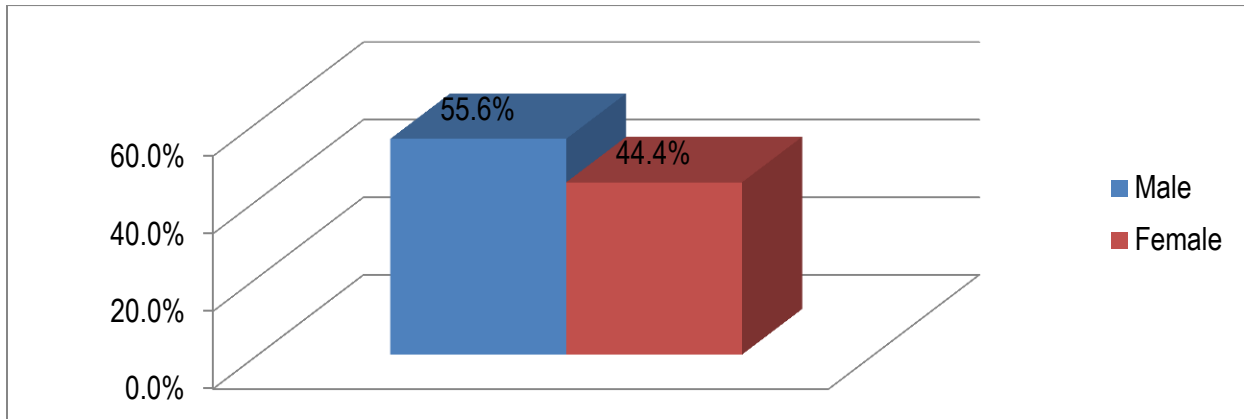
The questionnaire was distributed in person to each respondent in order to ensure that each member of the study population received it in good order. This proved an arduous task, as some of them failed to meet appointments. Getting all the participants to complete the questionnaire was equally challenging, as some were either reluctant to do so or took a long time to respond, and several trips from Gaborone to Kanye were required to meet with them and persuade them to complete the questionnaire. However, the effort was ultimately rewarded with a 100% response rate.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data was analysed using the SPSS software package, version 22. The data was coded and entered as an interval scale, and frequency tables were subsequently generated in the programme. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and correlation analysis were used to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. A t-test was also conducted to compare mean differences between groups, for instance between the absenteeism rates of male and female teachers. Descriptive statistics were used for the purpose of reaching conclusions.

3.6.1 Descriptive statistics

The graphs in this section provide a summary of respondents’ biographical data, including gender, age, years of experience, marital status, number of dependents, job level, and area employed.

Figure 3.1: Gender distribution

As can be seen from Figure 3.1, the questionnaires returned with complete information indicated that the majority of respondents were male, with 55.6% ($n = 139$) male versus 44.4% ($n = 111$) female subjects. The large difference in gender distribution shows that there are more males in the teaching profession and in the schools participating in the study.

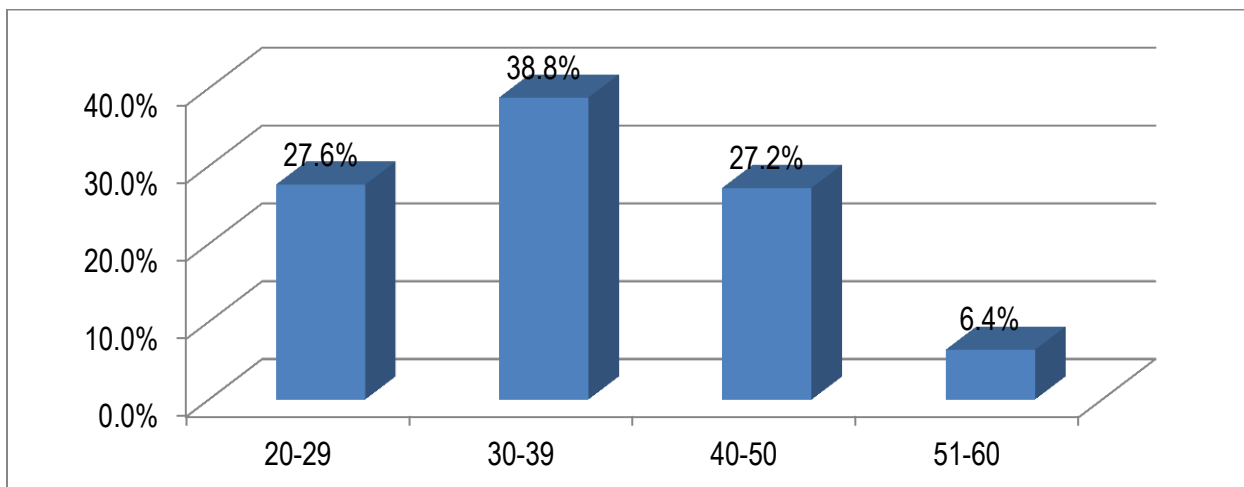
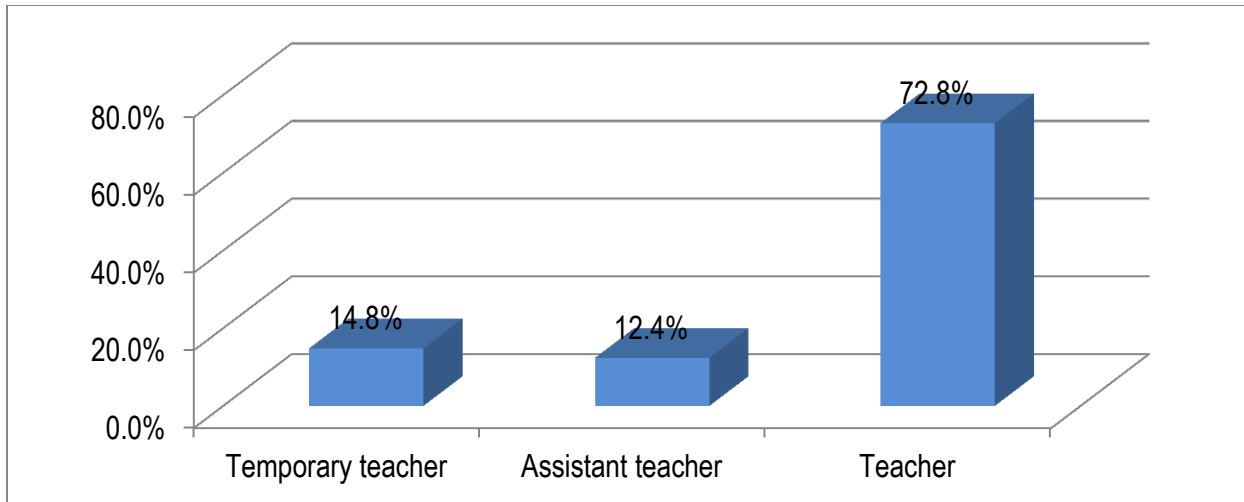
Figure 3.2: Age distribution

Figure 3.2 shows that the majority of respondents (38.8%, $n = 97$) were in the 30-39 age category. Respondents aged 20-29, representing relatively 'new' entrants to the teaching profession, numbered 69, accounting for 27.6% of the total population, with an almost equivalent number ($n = 68$, 27.2%) being in the age group 40-50. The age category 51-60 is the most poorly represented ($n = 16$, 6.4%).

Figure 3.3: Post category

Thirty-seven (14.8%) respondents were employed on a temporary basis at the time of the survey. Thirty-one (12.4%) respondents were assistant teachers, with the remaining (72.8%) 182 being fully confirmed teachers.

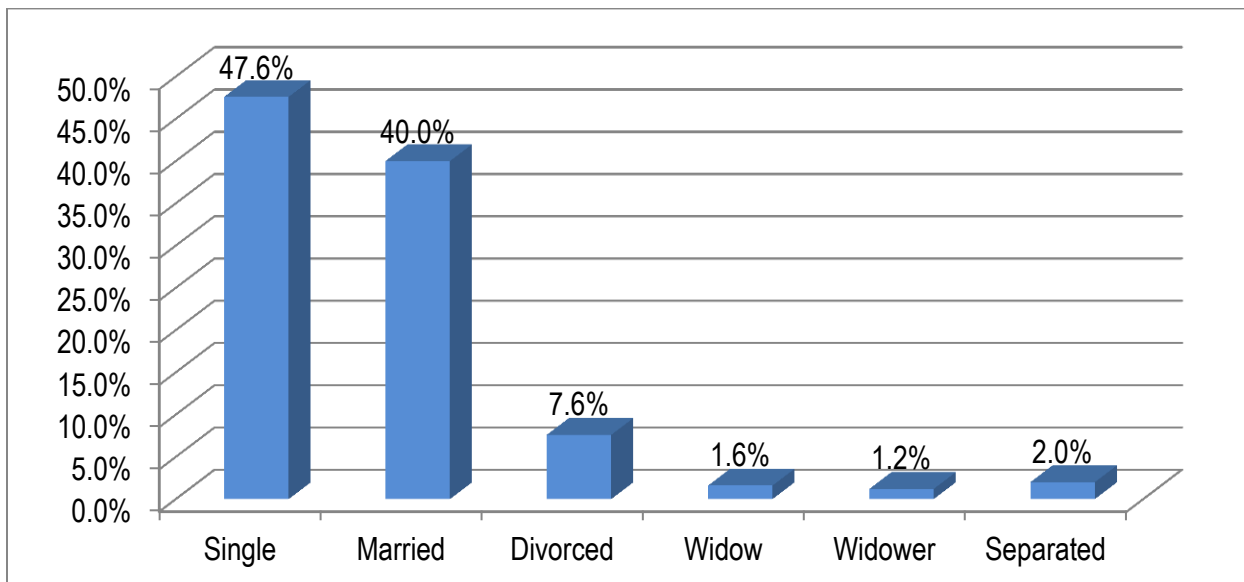
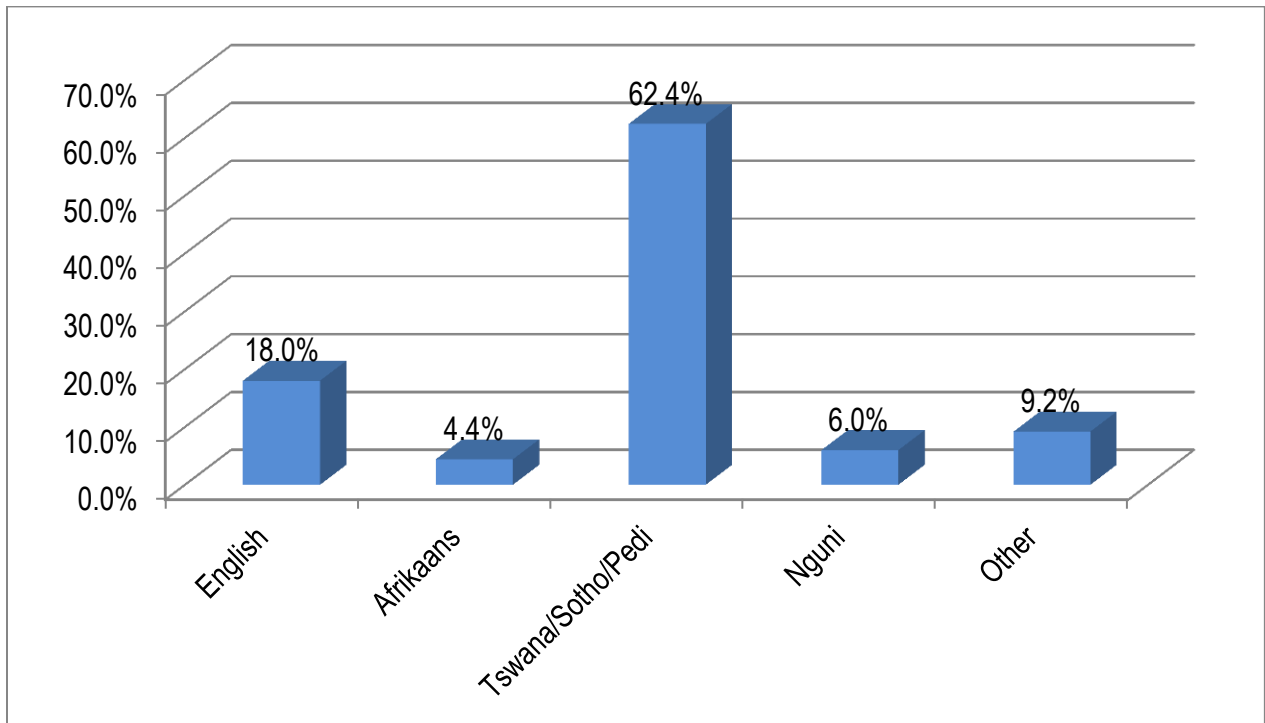
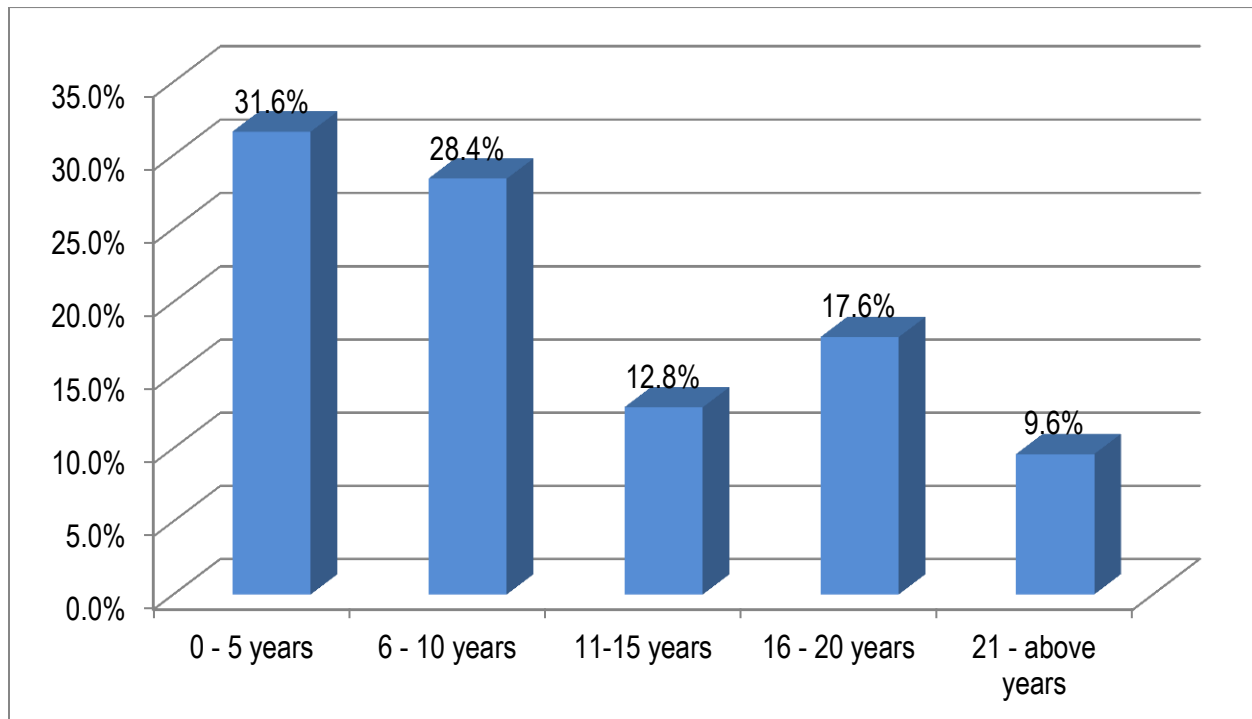
Figure 3.4: Marital status

Figure 3.4 shows that majority of the respondents were single (47.6%, n = 119). Married respondents numbered 100 (40.0%). The remainder were composed of 19 divorced individuals, 4 widows, 3 widowers and 5 teachers who were separated from their spouses at the time of the survey.

Figure 3.5: Home language

Tswana and English being the two official languages of Botswana, the vast majority of respondents are either Sotho/Tswana/Pedi-speakers (62.4%, n = 156) or English-speakers (18.0%, n = 45); who together account for 80.4% of the total study population. Nguni languages (6.0%, n = 15) and Afrikaans (4.4%, n = 11) also feature prominently as home languages.

Figure 3.6: Years of service

The majority of respondents (31.6% of the population, $n = 79$) belong to the least experienced group in terms of years of service (0-5 years), while the most experienced group, those with 21 years' or more service in the profession, account for only 9.6% ($n = 24$).

3.6.2 Cronbach's alpha coefficient

A reliability analysis was performed to ensure that items measuring job satisfaction have a high degree of internal consistency. It was done by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the JDI scales.

3.6.3 Comparison of mean job satisfaction level scores and reasons for absenteeism of male and female respondents

Park (2009:4) has contended that the t-test is used based on the assumption that the samples being investigated are normally distributed, a concept he refers to as "normality." The researcher compared the job satisfaction levels of the male and female teachers participating in the study with the objective of ascertaining whether a teacher's gender has any influence on their job satisfaction. A t-test was also performed to determine whether male and female teachers have different reasons for absenteeism.

3.6.4 Comparison of the mean job satisfaction level scores and reasons for absenteeism of different groups

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done to compare mean job satisfaction scores and reasons for absenteeism in terms of respondents' age groups, years of service and position.

3.7 ETHICS

The researcher obtained prior permission to conduct this study from the Botswana Ministry of Education. The participating schools and teachers were informed about the nature of the study and the participants were required to complete an informed consent form indicating their understanding of and willingness to participate in the study. The form also stipulated that they might withdraw from the study at any time, without having to provide any explanation, should they no longer wish to participate. The researcher further undertook to treat all data collected from the participants in the strictest confidentiality and guaranteed the anonymity of all responses. The university has also provided an ethical clearance for the study.

3.8 SUMMARY

Chapter Three contained a detailed description of how the study was approached and conducted. The study was quantitative in nature, drawing strength from the positivist paradigm. In 250 teachers were surveyed and the data obtained was analysed by means of the SPSS software package, version 22. The results of the data analysis will be presented in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the present study was to measure job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism amongst teachers. The study was specifically designed to seek answers to the following research questions:

- What are the job satisfaction levels of teachers?
- What are the main reasons for absenteeism among teachers?
- Are there differences in the job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism between male and female teachers, or with regard to age group or position?

This chapter outlines the results obtained in the study before proceeding to a comprehensive discussion of these results. It also presents an analysis of the descriptive statistics with regard to the variables under consideration, first in outline with regard to the characteristics of the sample population vis-à-vis the variables included in the study, and subsequently by means of analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, namely job satisfaction and absenteeism, which are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Finally, conclusions were drawn based on the results obtained. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted.

4.2 CRONBACH'S ALPHA COEFFICIENT OF THE JDI SCALE

Tavakol and Dennick (2011:54) have reported that various "reasonable values," ranging from 0.70 to 0.95, have been proposed for Cronbach's alpha, and caution that "a low value of Cronbach's alpha could be due to a low number of questions, poor interrelatedness between items or heterogeneous constructs". It is therefore necessary that the researcher calculate the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to authenticate the reliability of the instrument used. The Cronbach's alphas for the different factors of job satisfaction are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Cronbach's alphas for the different factors of the job satisfaction scale

Work itself	0.74
Supervision	0.83
Co-workers	0.83
Promotion opportunities	0.79
Pay	0.80
Total JDI Scale	0.89

4.3 JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF TEACHERS

As indicated in Chapter 3, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) scale was used to measure the job satisfaction levels of teachers on five facets or subscales. The job satisfaction levels of the sample of 250 teachers from two high schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye, Botswana, are depicted in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics for the dimensions of job satisfaction

Dimensions	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std deviation	Variance
Work itself	250	44.00	4.00	48.00	23.0720	9.30015	86.493
Supervision	250	48.00	3.00	51.00	20.68	11.31194	127.960
Co-workers	250	48.00	3.00	51.00	19.4080	10.87984	118.371
Promotion opportunities	250	54.00	.00	54.00	24.0640	14.10787	199.032
Pay	250	54.00	.00	54.00	32.7360	14.69920	216.067
Total average	250	214.00	27.00	241.00	119.9640	38.69802	1497.537

The results show that the mean for the total job satisfaction of the sample population was 119.964, with a standard deviation of 38.69. According to the designers of the JDI instrument, a mean score of 36 for each dimension and an overall mean score of 144 reflect an average job satisfaction level (Bull, 2005:85).

Respondents expressed the least dissatisfaction with their pay (M=32.74; SD=14.70) and the most dissatisfaction with their relationship with co-workers (M=19.41; SD=10.88), followed by supervision (M=20.68; SD=11.31); work itself (M=23.07; SD=9.30); and promotion opportunities (M=24.06; SD=14.10).

4.4 REASONS FOR ABSENTEEISM AMONGST TEACHERS

The majority of respondents (130, or 52%) indicated family responsibility as the main reason for absenteeism, followed by recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies (44%); attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia (35%); minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines (34%); accumulated leave (31%); study leave, research leave and leave for creative output (31%); and stress (30%).

Table 4.3: Reasons for absenteeism (in descending order of frequency)

Reason	Male	Female	Frequency	%
Family responsibility	70	60	130	52
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies	70	40	110	44
Attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia	49	39	88	35
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	42	43	85	34
Accumulated leave	36	42	78	31
Stress	45	29	74	30
Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	35	40	75	30
Sports engagements	35	36	71	28
Attendance of sporting events	34	35	69	28
Work overload	42	25	67	27
Back pain	34	29	63	25
Off-the-job training	29	32	61	24
Acute medical conditions such as stroke, heart attack, HIV and cancer	26	29	55	22
Inclement weather	32	21	53	21
Injuries/accidents not related to work	30	20	50	20
Work-related injuries/accidents	30	20	50	20
Prolongation of weekends	34	16	50	20
Musculoskeletal injuries (e.g. neck strains,	22	25	47	19

Reason	Male	Female	Frequency	%
repetitive strain injuries, but excl. back pain)				
Poor supervision, control and management	30	17	47	19
Mental health such as depression, burnout and anxiety	27	17	46	18
Tiredness	31	16	47	18
Labour dispute/lockout	31	12	43	17
Transport problems	26	15	41	16
Job dissatisfaction	24	18	42	16
Drink or drug-related conditions	17	21	38	15
Maternity leave	2	23	25	10
Absence of superiors/managers	13	12	25	10

4.5 DIFFERENCES IN THE JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS AND REASONS FOR ABSENTEEISM BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES, AGE GROUPS AND POSITIONS

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the mean job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism between male and female respondents (see Tables 4.4 and 4.5).

With regard to gender, there were no significant differences between the results obtained for male and female respondents vis-à-vis the mean scores on the work itself, supervision and co-worker dimensions, or total average of job satisfaction levels (males: $M=121.09$; $SD=37.32$ vs. females: $M=118.5586$; $SD=40.48405$; $t(248) = .512$; $p = .609$, two-tailed). There was however a significant difference in the means of males ($M=25.81$; $SD=14.15$) and females ($M=21.87$; $SD=13.80$); $t(248) = 2.21$; $p = .028 > .05$, two-tailed) with regard to promotion as well as pay (males: $M=34.65$; $SD=14.03$ vs. females: $M=30.34$; $SD=15.22$; $t(248) = 2.32$; $p = .021 > .05$, two-tailed).

Table 4.4: Mean job satisfaction levels of males and females

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error mean
Work itself	Male	139	22.3813	9.18600	.77915
	Female	111	23.9369	9.41110	.89326
Supervision	Male	139	19.8633	11.38662	.96580
	Female	111	21.7117	11.18391	1.06153
Co-workers	Male	139	18.3813	11.04168	.93654
	Female	111	20.6937	10.58283	1.00448
Promotion	Male	139	25.8129	14.15625	1.20072
	Female	111	21.8739	13.79929	1.30977
Pay	Male	139	34.6475	14.03147	1.19013
	Female	111	30.3423	15.22169	1.44478
Total average	Male	139	121.0863	37.32029	3.16547
	Female	111	118.5586	40.48405	3.84258

A Levene's test for equality of variances was done to determine the p-values:

Table 4.5: Independent samples test to compare the mean job satisfaction levels of males and females

		Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std error difference	95% Confidence interval of the difference	
									Lower	Upper
Work itself	Equal variances assumed	.080	.778	-1.316	248	.189	-1.55564	1.18210	-3.88387	.77259
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.312	233.374	.191	-1.55564	1.18532	-3.89094	.77965

Supervision	Equal variances assumed	.130	.718	-1.285	248	.200	-1.84840	1.43804	-4.68073	.98392
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.288	237.671	.199	-1.84840	1.43514	-4.67561	.97881
Co-workers	Equal variances assumed	.166	.684	-1.676	248	.095	-2.31240	1.37992	-5.03025	.40545
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.684	239.879	.094	-2.31240	1.37335	-5.01776	.39297
Promotion	Equal variances assumed	1.033	.310	2.211	248	.028	3.93908	1.78197	.42936	7.44879
	Equal variances not assumed			2.217	238.379	.028	3.93908	1.77686	.43873	7.43942
Pay	Equal variances assumed	1.527	.218	2.321	248	.021	4.30514	1.85482	.65193	7.95835
	Equal variances not assumed			2.300	226.721	.022	4.30514	1.87185	.61670	7.99358
Total average	Equal variances assumed	.311	.578	.512	248	.609	2.52777	4.93326	-7.18866	12.24420
	Equal variances not assumed			.508	226.727	.612	2.52777	4.97851	-7.28229	12.33784

An independent samples t-test was also performed to compare the reasons for absenteeism between the male and female respondents (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7). The t-test revealed significant differences between these groups with regard to recurring medical conditions, maternity leave, accumulated leave, labour dispute or lockout, and the prolongation of weekends:

- recurring medical conditions (e.g. asthma, angina and allergies): males: $M = .5036$; $SD = .50180$ vs. females: $M = .3604$; $SD = .48228$; $t(248) = 2.281$; $p = .023 < 0.05$.
- maternity leave: males: $M = .0144$; $SD = .11952$ vs. females: $M = .2072$; $SD = .40714$; $t(248) = -5.307$; $p = .000 < 0.05$.
- accumulated leave: males: $M = .2590$; $SD = .43967$ vs. females: $M = .3784$; $SD = .48718$; $t(248) = -2.033$; $p = .043 < 0.05$.
- labour dispute or lockout: males: $M = .2230$; $SD = .41778$ vs. females: $M = .1081$; $SD = .31193$; $t(248) = 2.410$; $p = .017 < 0.05$.
- prolongation of a weekend: males: $M = .2446$; $SD = .43141$ vs. females: $M = .2252$; $SD = .41963$; $t(248) = 1.981$; $p = .049 < 0.05$.

Table 4.6: Reasons for absenteeism

Reasons for absenteeism	Gender	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error mean
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	Male	139	.3022	.46085	.03909
	Female	111	.3874	.48936	.04645
Musculoskeletal injuries (e.g. neck strains, repetitive strain injuries, but excl. back pain)	Male	139	.1583	.36632	.03107
	Female	111	.2252	.41963	.03983
Back pain	Male	139	.2446	.43141	.03659
	Female	111	.2613	.44131	.04189
Stress	Male	139	.3237	.46959	.03983
	Female	111	.2613	.44131	.04189
Family responsibility	Male	139	.5036	.50180	.04256
	Female	111	.5405	.50061	.04752
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina, and allergies	Male	139	.5036	.50180	.04256
	Female	111	.3604	.48228	.04578
Injuries/accidents not related to work	Male	139	.2086	.40780	.03459
	Female	111	.1892	.39344	.03734
Work-related injuries/accidents	Male	139	.2158	.41288	.03502
	Female	111	.1802	.38608	.03665
Mental health such as depression, burnout and anxiety	Male	139	.2086	.40780	.03459
	Female	111	.1532	.36177	.03434
Acute medical conditions such as stroke, heart attack, HIV and cancer	Male	139	.1871	.39136	.03319
	Female	111	.2613	.44131	.04189
Maternity leave	Male	139	.0144	.11952	.01014
	Female	111	.2072	.40714	.03864
Off-the-job training	Male	139	.2086	.40780	.03459
	Female	111	.2883	.45502	.04319
Drink or drug-related conditions	Male	139	.1223	.32882	.02789
	Female	111	.1892	.39344	.03734
Accumulated leave	Male	139	.2590	.43967	.03729

Reasons for absenteeism	Gender	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error mean
	Female	111	.3784	.48718	.04624
Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	Male	139	.2518	.43562	.03695
	Female	111	.3604	.48228	.04578
Attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia	Male	139	.3525	.47948	.04067
	Female	111	.3514	.47956	.04552
Inclement weather	Male	139	.2302	.42249	.03584
	Female	111	.1892	.39344	.03734
Labour dispute/lockout	Male	139	.2230	.41778	.03544
	Female	111	.1081	.31193	.02961
Transport problems	Male	139	.1871	.39136	.03319
	Female	111	.1351	.34342	.03260
Tiredness	Male	139	.2230	.41778	.03544
	Female	111	.1441	.35283	.03349
Prolongation of weekends	Male	139	.2446	.43141	.03659
	Female	111	.1441	.35283	.03349
Work overload	Male	139	.3022	.46085	.03909
	Female	111	.2252	.41963	.03983
Sports engagements	Male	139	.2518	.43562	.03695
	Female	111	.3243	.47024	.04463
Attendance of sporting events	Male	139	.2446	.43141	.03659
	Female	111	.3153	.46675	.04430
Absence of superiors/managers	Male	139	.0935	.29222	.02479
	Female	111	.1081	.31193	.02961
Poor supervision, control and management	Male	139	.2158	.41288	.03502
	Female	111	.1532	.36177	.03434
Job dissatisfaction	Male	139	.1727	.37932	.03217
	Female	111	.1622	.37027	.03514

Table 4.7: Independent samples test to compare the mean reasons for absenteeism of males and females

		Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% Confidence interval of the difference	
									Lower	Upper
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina, and allergies	Equal variances assumed	11.639	.001	2.281	248	.023	.14324	.06278	.01958	.26690
	Equal variances not assumed			2.292	239.640	.023	.14324	.06251	.02011	.26637
Maternity leave	Equal variances assumed	170.014	.000	-5.307	248	.000	-.19282	.03633	-.26438	-.12126
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.826	125.187	.000	-.19282	.03995	-.27189	-.11375
Accumulated leave	Equal variances assumed	14.820	.000	-2.033	248	.043	-.11939	.05873	-.23505	-.00372
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.010	224.066	.046	-.11939	.05940	-.23645	-.00232
Labour dispute/lockout	Equal variances assumed	25.897	.000	2.410	248	.017	.11491	.04768	.02101	.20881
	Equal variances not assumed			2.489	246.946	.013	.11491	.04618	.02396	.20586
Prolongation of a weekend	Equal variances assumed	16.928	.000	1.981	248	.049	.10046	.05072	.00056	.20036
	Equal variances not assumed			2.025	247.849	.044	.10046	.04960	.00276	.19816

One-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to compare the job satisfaction levels and reasons for absenteeism of the four age groups and positions held by respondents (see Tables 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10). A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference between the age groups with regard to work itself $\{F(3) = 5.308; p = .001\}$; promotion $\{F(3) = 7.958; p = .000\}$; and total average $\{F(3) = 5.342; p = .001\}$. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the age group 20-29 ($M = 20.28; SD = 8.70$) was statistically significantly different from that of the 40-49 age group ($M = 25.76; SD = 8.38$) on work itself, while the mean score of the 20-29 age group with regard to promotion ($M = 20.28; SD = 8.70$) differed significantly from those of both the 30-39 ($M = 26.08; SD = 13.64$) and 50-59 ($M = 16.63; SD = 10.90$) age groups. The mean score of the total JDI scale of the 20-29 age group ($M = 107.72; SD = 43.29$) differed significantly from the age group 40-49 ($M = 132.88; SD = 40.59$).

Table 4.8: Descriptive comparison of job satisfaction levels between age groups

	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Work itself	20-29	69	20.2754	8.70072	1.04744	18.1852	22.3655	4.00	47.00
	30-39	97	23.7938	9.82444	.99752	21.8138	25.7739	6.00	46.00
	40-49	68	25.7647	8.37572	1.01571	23.7373	27.7921	8.00	48.00
	50-59	16	19.3125	8.61564	2.15391	14.7216	23.9034	8.00	38.00
	Total	250	23.0720	9.30015	.58819	21.9135	24.2305	4.00	48.00
Supervision	20-29	69	20.1449	11.35040	1.36643	17.4183	22.8716	3.00	51.00
	30-39	97	18.7835	9.91445	1.00666	16.7853	20.7817	3.00	48.00
	40-49	68	24.2500	12.54410	1.52120	21.2137	27.2863	4.00	51.00
	50-59	16	19.3750	11.13478	2.78370	13.4417	25.3083	6.00	48.00
	Total	250	20.6840	11.31194	.71543	19.2749	22.0931	3.00	51.00
Co-workers	20-29	69	18.8986	10.09243	1.21499	16.4741	21.3230	3.00	45.00
	30-39	97	18.4227	10.36001	1.05190	16.3347	20.5107	3.00	49.00
	40-49	68	21.4853	12.25779	1.48648	18.5183	24.4523	6.00	51.00
	50-59	16	18.7500	10.84743	2.71186	12.9698	24.5302	3.00	40.00
	Total	250	19.4080	10.87984	.68810	18.0528	20.7632	3.00	51.00
Promotion	20-29	69	18.8116	14.38266	1.73147	15.3565	22.2667	.00	54.00
	30-39	97	26.0825	13.63793	1.38472	23.3338	28.8311	.00	54.00
	40-49	68	28.2647	13.08482	1.58677	25.0975	31.4319	2.00	54.00
	50-59	16	16.6250	10.89878	2.72469	10.8175	22.4325	.00	42.00
	Total	250	24.0640	14.10787	.89226	22.3067	25.8213	.00	54.00
Pay	20-29	69	29.5942	15.87295	1.91088	25.7811	33.4073	.00	54.00
	30-39	97	33.8557	13.51619	1.37236	31.1316	36.5798	4.00	54.00
	40-49	68	33.1176	14.40308	1.74663	29.6314	36.6039	12.00	54.00
	50-59	16	37.8750	16.32125	4.08031	29.1780	46.5720	12.00	54.00
	Total	250	32.7360	14.69920	.92966	30.9050	34.5670	.00	54.00
Total average	20-29	69	107.7246	43.29036	5.21155	97.3252	118.1241	27.00	231.00
	30-39	97	120.9381	32.10978	3.26025	114.4666	127.4097	28.00	241.00

	40-49	68	132.8824	40.58914	4.92216	123.0577	142.7070	46.00	238.00
	50-59	16	111.9375	29.75784	7.43946	96.0807	127.7943	34.00	160.00
	Total	250	119.9640	38.69802	2.44748	115.1436	124.7844	27.00	241.00

Table 4.9: ANOVA to compare job satisfaction levels of age groups

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Work itself	Between groups	1309.387	3	436.462	5.308	.001
	Within groups	20227.317	246	82.225		
	Total	21536.704	249			
Promotion	Between groups	4384.100	3	1461.367	7.958	.000
	Within groups	45174.876	246	183.638		
	Total	49558.976	249			
Total average	Between groups	22807.283	3	7602.428	5.342	.001
	Within groups	350079.393	246	1423.087		
	Total	372886.676	249			

Table 4.10: Post hoc comparisons of the mean scores of the job satisfaction dimensions of age groups

Scheffe							
Dependent variable	(I) distribution	Age(J) distribution	Age Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower bound	Upper bound
Work itself	20-29	30-39	-3.51845	1.42806	.111	-7.5383	.5014
		40-49	-5.48934*	1.54947	.007	-9.8510	-1.1277
		50-59	.96286	2.51609	.986	-6.1198	8.0455
	30-39	20-29	3.51845	1.42806	.111	-.5014	7.5383
		40-49	-1.97089	1.43418	.597	-6.0080	2.0662
		50-59	4.48131	2.44678	.342	-2.4062	11.3689
	40-49	20-29	5.48934*	1.54947	.007	1.1277	9.8510
		30-39	1.97089	1.43418	.597	-2.0662	6.0080
		50-59	6.45221	2.51957	.090	-.6402	13.5446
	50-59	20-29	-.96286	2.51609	.986	-8.0455	6.1198
		30-39	-4.48131	2.44678	.342	-11.3689	2.4062
		40-49	-6.45221	2.51957	.090	-13.5446	.6402
		30-39	.59149	3.00942	.998	-7.8798	9.0628
		40-49	-4.87500	3.09895	.481	-13.5984	3.8484
	Promotion	20-29	30-39	-7.27088*	2.13415	.010	-13.2784
40-49			-9.45311*	2.31559	.001	-15.9714	-2.9349
50-59			2.18659	3.76016	.953	-8.3980	12.7712
30-39		20-29	7.27088*	2.13415	.010	1.2634	13.2784
		40-49	-2.18223	2.14330	.792	-8.2155	3.8510
		50-59	9.45747	3.65657	.085	-.8356	19.7505
40-49		20-29	9.45311*	2.31559	.001	2.9349	15.9714
		30-39	2.18223	2.14330	.792	-3.8510	8.2155
		50-59	11.63971*	3.76536	.024	1.0405	22.2390
50-59		20-29	-2.18659	3.76016	.953	-12.7712	8.3980
		30-39	-9.45747	3.65657	.085	-19.7505	.8356
		40-49	-11.63971*	3.76536	.024	-22.2390	-1.0405

		40-49	4.75735	4.06170	.712	-6.6761	16.1908
Total average	20-29	30-39	-13.21351	5.94100	.179	-29.9371	3.5100
		40-49	-25.15772*	6.44610	.002	-43.3031	-7.0123
		50-59	-4.21286	10.46744	.983	-33.6781	25.2524
	30-39	20-29	13.21351	5.94100	.179	-3.5100	29.9371
		40-49	-11.94421	5.96647	.263	-28.7395	4.8510
		50-59	9.00064	10.17909	.854	-19.6529	37.6542
	40-49	20-29	25.15772*	6.44610	.002	7.0123	43.3031
		30-39	11.94421	5.96647	.263	-4.8510	28.7395
		50-59	20.94485	10.48192	.265	-8.5611	50.4508
	50-59	20-29	4.21286	10.46744	.983	-25.2524	33.6781
		30-39	-9.00064	10.17909	.854	-37.6542	19.6529
		40-49	-20.94485	10.48192	.265	-50.4508	8.5611
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted to explore the impact of age group on the reasons for absenteeism (see Tables 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13). The one-way ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences between the various age groups with regard to stress $\{(F=3)=4.599; p= .004\}$; family responsibility $\{F (3)=15.269; p= .000\}$; recurring medical conditions total average $\{(F (3)=9.313; p= .000\}$; study leave, research leave and leave for creative output $\{(F (3)=2.094; p= .000\}$; prolongation of a weekend $\{(F (3)=5.662; p= .001\}$; and poor supervision, control and management $\{(F (3)= .7295; p= .002\}$. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test showed that the mean scores on stress for the age groups 20-29 ($M= .2319; SD= .42513$) and 30-39 ($M= .28; SD= .45$) were significantly different from that of the 50-59 age group ($M= .6875; SD= .47871$). There were also statistically significant differences between the mean scores with regard to family responsibility of the 20-29 ($M= .57; SD= .50$); 30-39 ($M= .68; SD= .47$); and 40-49 ($M= .21; SD= .41$) age groups.

Table 4.11: Descriptive comparison of reasons for absenteeism between age groups

Reasons for absenteeism	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	20-29	69	.4783	.50319	.06058	.3574	.5991	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2577	.43966	.04464	.1691	.3463	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.3382	.47663	.05780	.2229	.4536	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.2500	.44721	.11180	.0117	.4883	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3400	.47466	.03002	.2809	.3991	.00	1.00
Musculoskeletal injuries (e.g. neck strains, repetitive strain injuries, but excl. back pain)	20-29	69	.2464	.43406	.05225	.1421	.3506	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1649	.37306	.03788	.0898	.2401	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1176	.32459	.03936	.0391	.1962	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3750	.50000	.12500	.1086	.6414	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Back pain	20-29	69	.2899	.45702	.05502	.1801	.3996	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1546	.36344	.03690	.0814	.2279	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.3676	.48575	.05891	.2501	.4852	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1875	.40311	.10078	-.0273	.4023	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2520	.43503	.02751	.1978	.3062	.00	1.00
Stress	20-29	69	.2319	.42513	.05118	.1298	.3340	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2784	.45052	.04574	.1876	.3691	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2941	.45903	.05567	.1830	.4052	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.6875	.47871	.11968	.4324	.9426	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2960	.45741	.02893	.2390	.3530	.00	1.00
Family responsibility	20-29	69	.5652	.49936	.06012	.4453	.6852	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.6804	.46874	.04759	.5859	.7749	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2059	.40735	.04940	.1073	.3045	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.6875	.47871	.11968	.4324	.9426	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.5200	.50060	.03166	.4576	.5824	.00	1.00

Reasons for absenteeism	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies	20-29	69	.2464	.43406	.05225	.1421	.3506	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.5361	.50129	.05090	.4351	.6371	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.5735	.49824	.06042	.4529	.6941	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1250	.34157	.08539	-.0570	.3070	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.4400	.49738	.03146	.3780	.5020	.00	1.00
Injuries/accidents not related to work	20-29	69	.2464	.43406	.05225	.1421	.3506	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2165	.41399	.04203	.1331	.2999	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1471	.35680	.04327	.0607	.2334	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1250	.34157	.08539	-.0570	.3070	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Work-related injuries/accidents	20-29	69	.3043	.46350	.05580	.1930	.4157	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1856	.39078	.03968	.1068	.2643	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1324	.34139	.04140	.0497	.2150	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1250	.34157	.08539	-.0570	.3070	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Mental health such as depression, burnout and anxiety	20-29	69	.1449	.35461	.04269	.0597	.2301	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1443	.35325	.03587	.0731	.2155	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2500	.43623	.05290	.1444	.3556	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3125	.47871	.11968	.0574	.5676	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1840	.38826	.02456	.1356	.2324	.00	1.00
Acute medical conditions such as stroke, heart attack, HIV and cancer	20-29	69	.1594	.36875	.04439	.0708	.2480	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1959	.39894	.04051	.1155	.2763	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2794	.45205	.05482	.1700	.3888	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3750	.50000	.12500	.1086	.6414	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2200	.41508	.02625	.1683	.2717	.00	1.00
Maternity leave	20-29	69	.1884	.39390	.04742	.0938	.2830	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.0928	.29164	.02961	.0340	.1516	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.0294	.17021	.02064	-.0118	.0706	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.0625	.25000	.06250	-.0707	.1957	.00	1.00

Reasons for absenteeism	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
	Total	250	.1000	.30060	.01901	.0626	.1374	.00	1.00
Off-the-job training	20-29	69	.3043	.46350	.05580	.1930	.4157	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1649	.37306	.03788	.0898	.2401	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.3088	.46544	.05644	.1962	.4215	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1875	.40311	.10078	-.0273	.4023	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2440	.43035	.02722	.1904	.2976	.00	1.00
Drink or drug-related conditions	20-29	69	.1449	.35461	.04269	.0597	.2301	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1134	.31873	.03236	.0492	.1776	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2059	.40735	.04940	.1073	.3045	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1875	.40311	.10078	-.0273	.4023	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1520	.35974	.02275	.1072	.1968	.00	1.00
Accumulated leave	20-29	69	.3768	.48814	.05876	.2595	.4941	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2887	.45549	.04625	.1969	.3805	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2794	.45205	.05482	.1700	.3888	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3125	.47871	.11968	.0574	.5676	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3120	.46424	.02936	.2542	.3698	.00	1.00
Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	20-29	69	.3768	.48814	.05876	.2595	.4941	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2165	.41399	.04203	.1331	.2999	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2647	.44446	.05390	.1571	.3723	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.6250	.50000	.12500	.3586	.8914	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3000	.45918	.02904	.2428	.3572	.00	1.00
Attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia	20-29	69	.3913	.49162	.05918	.2732	.5094	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.3814	.48826	.04958	.2830	.4799	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2500	.43623	.05290	.1444	.3556	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.4375	.51235	.12809	.1645	.7105	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3520	.47855	.03027	.2924	.4116	.00	1.00
Inclement weather	20-29	69	.1884	.39390	.04742	.0938	.2830	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1753	.38216	.03880	.0982	.2523	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2794	.45205	.05482	.1700	.3888	.00	1.00

Reasons for absenteeism	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
	50-59	16	.2500	.44721	.11180	.0117	.4883	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2120	.40954	.02590	.1610	.2630	.00	1.00
Labour dispute/lockout	20-29	69	.1594	.36875	.04439	.0708	.2480	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1340	.34244	.03477	.0650	.2030	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2353	.42734	.05182	.1319	.3387	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1875	.40311	.10078	-.0273	.4023	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1720	.37814	.02392	.1249	.2191	.00	1.00
Transport problems	20-29	69	.1884	.39390	.04742	.0938	.2830	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1959	.39894	.04051	.1155	.2763	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1029	.30614	.03713	.0288	.1770	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1250	.34157	.08539	-.0570	.3070	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1640	.37102	.02347	.1178	.2102	.00	1.00
Tiredness	20-29	69	.1449	.35461	.04269	.0597	.2301	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1856	.39078	.03968	.1068	.2643	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2206	.41773	.05066	.1195	.3217	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.2500	.44721	.11180	.0117	.4883	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Prolongation of weekends	20-29	69	.1014	.30413	.03661	.0284	.1745	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1856	.39078	.03968	.1068	.2643	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.3529	.48144	.05838	.2364	.4695	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.0625	.25000	.06250	-.0707	.1957	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Work overload	20-29	69	.2899	.45702	.05502	.1801	.3996	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2474	.43376	.04404	.1600	.3348	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2794	.45205	.05482	.1700	.3888	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.2500	.44721	.11180	.0117	.4883	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2680	.44381	.02807	.2127	.3233	.00	1.00
Sports engagements	20-29	69	.3913	.49162	.05918	.2732	.5094	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2680	.44524	.04521	.1783	.3578	.00	1.00

Reasons for absenteeism	Age group	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
Reasons for absenteeism	40-49	68	.1912	.39615	.04804	.0953	.2871	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3125	.47871	.11968	.0574	.5676	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2840	.45184	.02858	.2277	.3403	.00	1.00
Attendance of sporting events	20-29	69	.3768	.48814	.05876	.2595	.4941	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.2062	.40667	.04129	.1242	.2881	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.2206	.41773	.05066	.1195	.3217	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.5000	.51640	.12910	.2248	.7752	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2760	.44791	.02833	.2202	.3318	.00	1.00
Absence of superiors/managers	20-29	69	.0870	.28384	.03417	.0188	.1551	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.0928	.29164	.02961	.0340	.1516	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1176	.32459	.03936	.0391	.1962	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1250	.34157	.08539	-.0570	.3070	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1000	.30060	.01901	.0626	.1374	.00	1.00
Poor supervision, control and management	20-29	69	.0725	.26115	.03144	.0097	.1352	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1753	.38216	.03880	.0982	.2523	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.3235	.47130	.05715	.2095	.4376	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.1875	.40311	.10078	-.0273	.4023	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Job dissatisfaction	20-29	69	.0725	.26115	.03144	.0097	.1352	.00	1.00
	30-39	97	.1856	.39078	.03968	.1068	.2643	.00	1.00
	40-49	68	.1912	.39615	.04804	.0953	.2871	.00	1.00
	50-59	16	.3750	.50000	.12500	.1086	.6414	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1680	.37462	.02369	.1213	.2147	.00	1.00

Table 4.12: ANOVA to compare the reasons for absenteeism of age groups

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Stress	Between groups	2.766	3	.922	4.599	.004
	Within groups	49.330	246	.201		
	Total	52.096	249			
Family responsibility	Between groups	9.796	3	3.265	15.269	.000
	Within groups	52.604	246	.214		
	Total	62.400	249			
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies	Between groups	6.282	3	2.094	9.313	.000
	Within groups	55.318	246	.225		
	Total	61.600	249			
Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	Between groups	2.858	3	.953	4.721	.003
	Within groups	49.642	246	.202		
	Total	52.500	249			
Prolongation of a weekend	Between groups	2.583	3	.861	5.662	.001
	Within groups	37.417	246	.152		
	Total	40.000	249			
Poor supervision, control and management	Between groups	2.186	3	.729	4.982	.002
	Within groups	35.978	246	.146		
	Total	38.164	249			

Table 4.13: Post hoc comparisons of the reasons for absenteeism of age groups

Scheffe								
Dependent variable	(I) distribution	Age (I) distribution	Age (I) distribution	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
							Lower bound	Upper bound
Stress	20-29	30-39		-.04647	.07052	.933	-.2450	.1521
		40-49		-.06223	.07652	.882	-.2776	.1532
		50-59		-.45562*	.12425	.004	-.8054	-.1058

	30-39	20-29	.04647	.07052	.933	-.1521	.2450
		40-49	-.01577	.07083	.997	-.2151	.1836
		50-59	-.40915*	.12083	.011	-.7493	-.0690
	40-49	20-29	.06223	.07652	.882	-.1532	.2776
		30-39	.01577	.07083	.997	-.1836	.2151
		50-59	-.39338*	.12443	.020	-.7436	-.0431
	50-59	20-29	.45562*	.12425	.004	.1058	.8054
		30-39	.40915*	.12083	.011	.0690	.7493
		40-49	.39338*	.12443	.020	.0431	.7436
Family responsibility	20-29	30-39	-.11519	.07283	.476	-.3202	.0898
		40-49	.35934*	.07902	.000	.1369	.5818
		50-59	-.12228	.12831	.823	-.4835	.2389
	30-39	20-29	.11519	.07283	.476	-.0898	.3202
		40-49	.47453*	.07314	.000	.2686	.6804
		50-59	-.00709	.12478	1.000	-.3583	.3442
	40-49	20-29	-.35934*	.07902	.000	-.5818	-.1369
		30-39	-.47453*	.07314	.000	-.6804	-.2686
		50-59	-.48162*	.12849	.003	-.8433	-.1199
	50-59	20-29	.12228	.12831	.823	-.2389	.4835
		30-39	.00709	.12478	1.000	-.3442	.3583
		40-49	.48162*	.12849	.003	.1199	.8433
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies	20-29	30-39	-.28971*	.07468	.002	-.4999	-.0795
		40-49	-.32715*	.08103	.001	-.5552	-.0991
		50-59	.12138	.13158	.837	-.2490	.4918
	30-39	20-29	.28971*	.07468	.002	.0795	.4999
		40-49	-.03745	.07500	.969	-.2486	.1737
		50-59	.41108*	.12796	.017	.0509	.7713
	40-49	20-29	.32715*	.08103	.001	.0991	.5552
		30-39	.03745	.07500	.969	-.1737	.2486
		50-59	.44853*	.13176	.010	.0776	.8194
	50-59	20-29	-.12138	.13158	.837	-.4918	.2490

		30-39	-.41108*	.12796	.017	-.7713	-.0509	
		40-49	-.44853*	.13176	.010	-.8194	-.0776	
Prolongation of a weekend	20-29	30-39	-.08412	.06142	.599	-.2570	.0888	
		40-49	-.25149*	.06664	.003	-.4391	-.0639	
		50-59	.03895	.10822	.988	-.2657	.3436	
	30-39	20-29	.08412	.06142	.599	-.0888	.2570	
		40-49	-.16737	.06168	.064	-.3410	.0063	
		50-59	.12307	.10523	.713	-.1732	.4193	
	40-49	20-29	.25149*	.06664	.003	.0639	.4391	
		30-39	.16737	.06168	.064	-.0063	.3410	
		50-59	.29044	.10837	.069	-.0146	.5955	
	50-59	20-29	-.03895	.10822	.988	-.3436	.2657	
		30-39	-.12307	.10523	.713	-.4193	.1732	
		40-49	-.29044	.10837	.069	-.5955	.0146	
			30-39	.00258	.12037	1.000	-.3363	.3414
			40-49	-.02941	.12395	.996	-.3783	.3195
	Poor supervision, control and management	20-29	30-39	-.10279	.06023	.407	-.2723	.0667
40-49			-.25107*	.06535	.002	-.4350	-.0671	
50-59			-.11504	.10612	.759	-.4137	.1837	
30-39		20-29	.10279	.06023	.407	-.0667	.2723	
		40-49	-.14827	.06049	.114	-.3185	.0220	
		50-59	-.01224	.10319	1.000	-.3027	.2782	
40-49		20-29	.25107*	.06535	.002	.0671	.4350	
		30-39	.14827	.06049	.114	-.0220	.3185	
		50-59	.13603	.10626	.651	-.1631	.4351	
50-59		20-29	.11504	.10612	.759	-.1837	.4137	
		30-39	.01224	.10319	1.000	-.2782	.3027	
		40-49	-.13603	.10626	.651	-.4351	.1631	
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.								

		N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Promotion	Temp	37	20.4324	14.84090	2.43983	15.4842	25.3806	2.00	50.00
	Assistant	31	19.6774	11.31485	2.03221	15.5271	23.8277	6.00	54.00
	Teacher	182	25.5495	14.16225	1.04978	23.4781	27.6208	.00	54.00
	Total	250	24.0640	14.10787	.89226	22.3067	25.8213	.00	54.00

Finally, one-way between-groups analyses of variance were performed to investigate the impact of position on the dimensions of job satisfaction (see Tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16) and the reasons for absenteeism (see Tables 4.17, 4.18 and 4.19). In terms of the dimensions of job satisfaction, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ -level between the three positions with regard to promotion: $F(2, 247) = 3.82$; $p = .023$. A post hoc comparison using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean score for teachers ($M = 25.55$; $SD = 14.16$) was significantly different from that of temporary teachers ($M = 20.43$; $SD = 14.84$) and assistant teachers ($M = 19.68$; $SD = 11.31$). In terms of the reasons for absenteeism, the one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference between the three groups with regard to minor illnesses $\{F(2) = 9.032$; $p = .0004\}$ and work-related injuries or accidents $\{F(2) = 6.775$; $p = .001\}$. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test also indicated that the mean score of teachers ($M = .03626$; $SD = .48209$) with regard to minor illnesses was significantly different from those of temporary teachers ($M = .4865$; $SD = .50671$) and assistant teachers ($M = .0323$; $SD = .03226$).

Table 4.14: ANOVA to compare the promotion dimension of job satisfaction between positions

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Promotion	Between groups	1486.066	2	743.033	3.818	.023
	Within groups	48072.910	247	194.627		
	Total	49558.976	249			

Table 4.15: Post hoc comparisons of the promotion dimension of job satisfaction between positions

Scheffe							
Dependent variable	(I) Post	(J) Post	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower bound	Upper bound
Promotion	Temp	Assistant	.75501	3.39684	.976	-7.6103	9.1203
		Teacher	-5.11702	2.51586	.129	-11.3128	1.0787
	Assistant	Temp	-.75501	3.39684	.976	-9.1203	7.6103
		Teacher	-5.87203	2.71066	.098	-12.5475	.8034
	Teacher	Temp	5.11702	2.51586	.129	-1.0787	11.3128
		Assistant	5.87203	2.71066	.098	-.8034	12.5475

Table 4.16: Descriptive comparison of reasons for absenteeism between positions

		N	Mean	Std deviation	Std error	95% Confidence interval for mean		Min	Max
						Lower bound	Upper bound		
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	Temp	37	.4865	.50671	.08330	.3175	.6554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.0323	.17961	.03226	-.0336	.0981	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3626	.48209	.03573	.2921	.4331	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3400	.47466	.03002	.2809	.3991	.00	1.00
Musculoskeletal injuries (e.g. neck strains, repetitive strain injuries, but excl. back pain)	Temp	37	.2432	.43496	.07151	.0982	.3883	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1935	.40161	.07213	.0462	.3409	.00	1.00

	Teacher	182	.1758	.38172	.02830	.1200	.2317	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Back pain	Temp	37	.2703	.45023	.07402	.1202	.4204	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2903	.46141	.08287	.1211	.4596	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2418	.42933	.03182	.1790	.3046	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2520	.43503	.02751	.1978	.3062	.00	1.00
Stress	Temp	37	.1892	.39706	.06528	.0568	.3216	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2903	.46141	.08287	.1211	.4596	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3187	.46725	.03463	.2503	.3870	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2960	.45741	.02893	.2390	.3530	.00	1.00
Family responsibility	Temp	37	.5405	.50523	.08306	.3721	.7090	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.4839	.50800	.09124	.2975	.6702	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.5220	.50089	.03713	.4487	.5952	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.5200	.50060	.03166	.4576	.5824	.00	1.00
Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies	Temp	37	.3243	.47458	.07802	.1661	.4826	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.5806	.50161	.09009	.3967	.7646	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.4396	.49770	.03689	.3668	.5124	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.4400	.49738	.03146	.3780	.5020	.00	1.00
Injuries/accidents not related to work	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1935	.40161	.07213	.0462	.3409	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1978	.39944	.02961	.1394	.2562	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Work-related injuries/accidents	Temp	37	.1081	.31480	.05175	.0031	.2131	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1290	.34078	.06121	.0040	.2540	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2308	.42249	.03132	.1690	.2926	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Mental health such as depression, burnout and anxiety	Temp	37	.1081	.31480	.05175	.0031	.2131	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.0968	.30054	.05398	-.0135	.2070	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2143	.41146	.03050	.1541	.2745	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1840	.38826	.02456	.1356	.2324	.00	1.00
Acute medical conditions such as stroke,	Temp	37	.2432	.43496	.07151	.0982	.3883	.00	1.00

heart attack, HIV and cancer	Assistant	31	.0968	.30054	.05398	-.0135	.2070	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2363	.42596	.03157	.1740	.2986	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2200	.41508	.02625	.1683	.2717	.00	1.00
Maternity leave	Temp	37	.1351	.34658	.05698	.0196	.2507	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.0323	.17961	.03226	-.0336	.0981	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1044	.30662	.02273	.0595	.1492	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1000	.30060	.01901	.0626	.1374	.00	1.00
Off-the-job training	Temp	37	.2432	.43496	.07151	.0982	.3883	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1290	.34078	.06121	.0040	.2540	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2637	.44187	.03275	.1991	.3284	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2440	.43035	.02722	.1904	.2976	.00	1.00
Drink or drug-related conditions	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1290	.34078	.06121	.0040	.2540	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1429	.35089	.02601	.0915	.1942	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1520	.35974	.02275	.1072	.1968	.00	1.00
Accumulated leave	Temp	37	.3243	.47458	.07802	.1661	.4826	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1935	.40161	.07213	.0462	.3409	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3297	.47139	.03494	.2607	.3986	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3120	.46424	.02936	.2542	.3698	.00	1.00
Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	Temp	37	.1892	.39706	.06528	.0568	.3216	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1935	.40161	.07213	.0462	.3409	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3407	.47524	.03523	.2712	.4102	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3000	.45918	.02904	.2428	.3572	.00	1.00
Attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia	Temp	37	.3243	.47458	.07802	.1661	.4826	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2258	.42502	.07634	.0699	.3817	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3791	.48651	.03606	.3080	.4503	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.3520	.47855	.03027	.2924	.4116	.00	1.00
Inclement weather	Temp	37	.2432	.43496	.07151	.0982	.3883	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1290	.34078	.06121	.0040	.2540	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2198	.41524	.03078	.1590	.2805	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2120	.40954	.02590	.1610	.2630	.00	1.00

Labour dispute/lockout	Temp	37	.3784	.49167	.08083	.2144	.5423	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1290	.34078	.06121	.0040	.2540	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1374	.34518	.02559	.0869	.1878	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1720	.37814	.02392	.1249	.2191	.00	1.00
Transport problems	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2258	.42502	.07634	.0699	.3817	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1429	.35089	.02601	.0915	.1942	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1640	.37102	.02347	.1178	.2102	.00	1.00
Tiredness	Temp	37	.1351	.34658	.05698	.0196	.2507	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2258	.42502	.07634	.0699	.3817	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1923	.39520	.02929	.1345	.2501	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Prolongation of a weekend	Temp	37	.1351	.34658	.05698	.0196	.2507	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2258	.42502	.07634	.0699	.3817	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2088	.40757	.03021	.1492	.2684	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2000	.40080	.02535	.1501	.2499	.00	1.00
Work overload	Temp	37	.2973	.46337	.07618	.1428	.4518	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2581	.44480	.07989	.0949	.4212	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2637	.44187	.03275	.1991	.3284	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2680	.44381	.02807	.2127	.3233	.00	1.00
Sports engagements	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2258	.42502	.07634	.0699	.3817	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.3077	.46281	.03431	.2400	.3754	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2840	.45184	.02858	.2277	.3403	.00	1.00
Attendance of sporting events	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.2903	.46141	.08287	.1211	.4596	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.2857	.45300	.03358	.2195	.3520	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.2760	.44791	.02833	.2202	.3318	.00	1.00
Absence of superiors/managers	Temp	37	.1351	.34658	.05698	.0196	.2507	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1613	.37388	.06715	.0242	.2984	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.0824	.27576	.02044	.0421	.1228	.00	1.00

	Total	250	.1000	.30060	.01901	.0626	.1374	.00	1.00
Poor supervision, control and management	Temp	37	.2162	.41734	.06861	.0771	.3554	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1613	.37388	.06715	.0242	.2984	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1868	.39084	.02897	.1296	.2440	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1880	.39150	.02476	.1392	.2368	.00	1.00
Job dissatisfaction	Temp	37	.1351	.34658	.05698	.0196	.2507	.00	1.00
	Assistant	31	.1613	.37388	.06715	.0242	.2984	.00	1.00
	Teacher	182	.1758	.38172	.02830	.1200	.2317	.00	1.00
	Total	250	.1680	.37462	.02369	.1213	.2147	.00	1.00

Table 4.17: ANOVA to compare the reasons for absenteeism between positions

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	Between groups	3.823	2	1.912	9.032	.000
	Within groups	52.277	247	.212		
	Total	56.100	249			
Work-related injuries/accidents	Between groups	1.851	2	.926	6.775	.001
	Within groups	33.753	247	.137		
	Total	35.604	249			

Table 4.18 Post hoc comparisons of the reasons for absenteeism between positions

Scheffe							
Dependent variable	(I) Post	(J) Post	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower bound	Upper bound
Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	Temp	Assistant	.45423*	.11202	.000	.1784	.7301
		Teacher	.12385	.08296	.330	-.0805	.3282
	Assistant	Temp	-.45423*	.11202	.000	-.7301	-.1784
		Teacher	-.33038*	.08939	.001	-.5505	-.1102
	Teacher	Temp	-.12385	.08296	.330	-.3282	.0805
		Assistant	.33038*	.08939	.001	.1102	.5505
Work-related injuries/accidents	Temp	Assistant	.24935*	.09001	.023	.0277	.4710
		Teacher	.24102*	.06666	.002	.0768	.4052
	Assistant	Temp	-.24935*	.09001	.023	-.4710	-.0277
		Teacher	-.00833	.07183	.993	-.1852	.1686
	Teacher	Temp	-.24102*	.06666	.002	-.4052	-.0768
		Assistant	.00833	.07183	.993	-.1686	.1852

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.6 SUMMARY

The mean scores for the five extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction were all below the minimum score of 36 while total average score of 119.96 for the JDI scale was also below the minimum score of 144. The results have showed that the majority of respondents (130, or 52%) indicated family responsibility as the main reason for absenteeism, followed by recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies (44%); attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia (35%); minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines (34%); accumulated leave (31%); study leave, research leave and leave for creative output (31%) and stress (30%).

The final chapter will proceed with an interpretation of these results and provide a summary of the main findings, before making recommendations and concluding with some closing remarks.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this section, the results of the findings are reported. The chapter presents an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration and a summary of the major findings before concluding with some closing remarks. The researcher also makes a number of recommendations and proposes areas of further study suggested by the findings and limitations of this study.

5.2 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX SCALE

Sekaran (2003:88) has defined reliability as the degree to which an instrument produces stable and error-free results regardless of differing test takers, monitoring and administering, or even the circumstances under which the test is taken. According to Sekaran (2003:88), an instrument is deemed reliable and valid if it covers what it is expected to measure and is backed by evidence.

Cronbach's alpha values between 0.70 and 0.90 are considered as satisfactory and reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The following results from three different studies are therefore all reliable and valid: A study on job satisfaction among public relations interns in the United States with a sample population of 290 respondents used the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) scale to measure satisfaction in five areas, namely type of work, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers. The reliability scale generated the following Cronbach's alpha values: work (0.77); pay (0.85); supervision (0.84); promotion (0.86); and co-workers (0.92) (Baron, 2009:167). In another study, 32 executives and non-executives responded to a job satisfaction questionnaire designed to measure the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. The study was limited to three parameters, namely work (Cronbach's alpha 0.78); supervision (0.829) and co-workers (0.92) (Mahdi, Zin, Nor, Sakat & Naim, 2012:91). The results of a study investigating demographic and professional correlates among a sample of 1 314 Portuguese health care professionals showed high internal consistency for the JDI scores, ranging from 0.75 to 0.90 (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010). Measuring Job Satisfaction in Portuguese Health Professionals: Correlates and validation of the job descriptive index and the job in general scale (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010). This supports the 5-factor structure of the JDI.

As the present study produced comparable Cronbach's alphas to those in the studies cited above – work (0.74); supervision (0.83); co-workers (0.83); promotion (0.79); and pay (0.80) – the results are considered valid and reliable.

5.3 DISCUSSION ON THE JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF TEACHERS

The JDI instrument consisting of five dimensions – the work itself, supervision, co-workers, promotion and pay – was used to measure the job satisfaction levels of teachers.

5.3.1 Work itself

The mean score for the 'work itself' dimension was 23.07, which is well below the average satisfaction score of 36. This indicates that the majority of respondents were dissatisfied with their work itself. There were no significant differences in the mean scores for males and females. The 20-29 age group was more dissatisfied than the 40-49 group, which contradicts Azeem (2010:222) argument that satisfaction levels are higher among younger workers than older ones because they are still 'fresh', and have more energy and higher expectations and hopes for the future compared to their older colleagues, who may feel that they have not achieved much when they assess their careers, which leads them to become discouraged and draw less satisfaction from their jobs. Further study is necessary to provide reasons for this contradiction.

Higher job levels provide more job satisfaction than lower ones that could be due to increased responsibilities, more flexibility, better pay and increased self-esteem (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Ercikti et al., 2011). Saari and Judge (2004:397) have agreed that the nature of an employee's work – what they refer to as "intrinsic job characteristics" – has a significant influence on job satisfaction: "[...] of all the major job satisfaction areas, satisfaction with the nature of the work itself – which includes job challenge, autonomy, variety, and scope – best predicts overall job satisfaction, as well as other important outcomes like employee retention." Employers should therefore seek to provide a stimulating work experience by making the job more challenging or interesting and possibly giving employees more autonomy to increase job satisfaction and reduce absenteeism.

5.3.2 Supervision

The mean score for this dimension was 20.68, which indicates dissatisfaction amongst respondents regarding the type of supervision they experience. There was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores of males and females, nor any significant difference in the mean scores of the four age

groups or the various job levels and positions. According to Dizgah, Chegini and Bisokhan (2012:1739), a consultative management or supervisory approach, which allows or even encourages employees to voice their opinions about their working environment without fear of a negative reaction from managers or supervisors, promotes job satisfaction by boosting the trust between employer and employee, which results in improved motivation and a positive attitude on the part of employees and ultimately also improved performance. Emery (2010:5) has agreed that employees' emotions are affected for better or for worse by the type of supervision at work; however in contrast to the positive cycle described by Dizgah et al. (2012:1739) above, a negative perception or experience of the management style will result in less motivation and job satisfaction and promote absenteeism: "[...] when such feelings as boredom, anger and frustration build up to a critical level, people take a sick day."

5.3.3 Co-workers

The 'relationship with co-workers' dimension produced a mean score of 19.41, which is again well below the average score of 36, indicating that the respondents have experienced difficulty relating to one another. Swarnalatha and Sureshkrishna (2013:2) have mentioned the concept of uncooperative peers in discussing the interactions of employees at the workplace: "Non-cooperation might exist among peers because of age, gender, authority, personality, and other work values, leading to a state of confusion and anger among the peers. This may lead to violence and dispute might exist among the peers because of non-cooperation." In the teaching environment, some teachers may refuse to cooperate with colleagues, for example, by avoiding teamwork and pursuing tasks individually, which may well break the spirit of those who are willing to work with others to pursue their goals. In addition, learners may also display uncooperative attitudes towards teachers, which may further demoralise them.

5.3.4 Promotion

The mean score of 24.06 for this dimension indicated that the respondents perceived their opportunities for promotion to be minimal. There was a significant difference in the mean scores of males and females, with female teachers displaying more dissatisfaction than their male counterparts vis-à-vis promotion opportunities. There were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the four age groups, with the mean score for the 20-29 age group being significantly lower than those of the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups, and the 50-59 age group having the lowest mean score vis-à-vis promotion. A possible explanation for this may be that respondents from this age group have reached, or feel that they have reached, the ceiling in terms of promotion opportunities. On the other hand, the low mean

score for the 20-29 age group may be ascribed to the fact that they enter the profession at a junior level and preference for promotion is given to senior or older teachers with longer work experience. There were also significant differences in the mean scores of permanent, temporary and assistant teachers, with permanent staff members expressing less dissatisfaction with regard to opportunities for promotion than temporary and assistant teachers.

Good promotion opportunities increase job satisfaction. In professions where career paths are well-defined and hierarchical advancement is clear, job satisfaction is evident when employees are promoted (Kelly-Radford, 2001; De Souza, 2002; Dessler, 2008). Naveed et al. (2011:301) have explained that promotion “can mean a significant increase in the salary of an employee as well as in the span of authority and control. It will help competitors to identify the most productive employees in the business world and at the same time the employees are being recognized by their own organization. The employees themselves feel to be an effective contributor and thus will be more satisfied with their job.” Conversely, a lack of promotion opportunities is used to explain absenteeism (Bakan & Buyukubetse, 2013:203).

Teachers who are regularly promoted view promotion opportunities as advancement in their careers and therefore experience job satisfaction. Moreover, promotion comes not only with increased benefits, such as higher monetary compensation, but also increased responsibility, which makes the job more challenging and satisfying. Although the present study has showed that female respondents displayed significantly more dissatisfaction than their male counterparts vis-à-vis promotion opportunities, it is not clear which gender is likely to be favoured over the other when promotions are considered. However, a South African study by Quan-Baffour and Arko-Archemfour (2013:27) have found that the promotion of teachers was not based on merit, that is, the individuals’ experience and qualifications, but rather on political affiliations. The researchers argue that unions play a significant role in the determination of promotions: “[they] “hijack promotions and dictate to the employer who is to be promoted.” Quan-Baffour and Arko-Archemfour (2013) have also observed statistically significant differences between age groups with regard to promotion, which they postulate may also be ascribed to irregular promotion processes: they contend that teachers over the age of 30, with seven or more years’ teaching experience, are passed over for promotion while about 23.4% of new entrants to the profession find themselves promoted in ironical and inexplicable ways.

5.3.5 Pay

The pay dimension had a mean score of 32.74, which is also below the norm of 36 and indicates that the respondents were not satisfied with their salaries. Again, there was also a significant difference in

the mean scores of males and female respondents, with female teachers expressing much more dissatisfaction with regard to their salaries. There were no significant differences in the mean scores of the four age groups or the job level categories.

The discrepancy between the mean scores of males and females is due to disparate salary packages. According to Kusku (2001:120), the fact that males tend to be more satisfied with their pay than females may be ascribed to the fact that they generally receive higher salaries than their female counterparts. The results of this study have confirmed the discrepancy of salaries between male and female teachers.

As mentioned previously, promotion goes hand in hand with other benefits. Higher earners also generally enjoy other benefits that set them apart from other, lower paid employees and increase their job satisfaction. In a study of job satisfaction amongst police managers, Ercikti et al. (2011:106) have found that they indeed enjoy such benefits, which create job satisfaction and serves as an incentive to have them present at the work place: “[...] managers enjoy some privileges along with their increased responsibility. For example, they may have better work conditions than line officers, such as private work spaces, cars, equipment, greater autonomy, higher salaries and flexible work hours [...] these enhancements may account for their high level of job satisfaction.”

5.3.6 Total mean scores of the JDI scale

The overall total mean score of the job satisfaction scale was 119.96, which is well below the average score of 144 (approximately 36 per dimension or subscale). The results indicate that respondents are the least dissatisfied with pay, followed by promotion opportunities, work itself, supervision and relationships with co-workers, respectively. There were no significant differences in the mean scores on the total job satisfaction scale between males and females or between the three job levels or positions. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the 20-29 and 40-49 age groups on the total job satisfaction scale, with the former being the least satisfied/most dissatisfied and the latter the most satisfied/least dissatisfied.

Table 5.1: Job satisfaction levels on the five dimensions

Dimension	Mean score	Average norm
Work itself	23.07	36
Supervision	20.68	36
Co-workers	19.41	36
Promotion	24.06	36
Pay	32.74	36
Total score of job satisfaction scale	119.96	144

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE REASONS FOR ABSENTEEISM AMONG TEACHERS

As indicated in Chapter 4, the majority of respondents (52%) indicated that their main reason for absenteeism was family responsibility, followed by recurring or chronic medical conditions (44%); attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia (35%); minor illnesses (34%); accumulated leave (31%); stress (30%); and leave for the purposes of study, research and creative output (30%).

A significant number of respondents (130 or 52%), particularly the female teachers, ascribed absence from work to family responsibility. Work appeared to be of secondary concern to women if they have a sick child and they will take time off to tend to them if there is no other caretaker at home (Singh 2010:89). The 30-39 age group has displayed the highest level of absenteeism due to family responsibility, which may be explained by the fact that people in this age group usually have young children who require more attention.

Respondents have cited numerous medical conditions and concerns as reasons for absenteeism. Recurring or chronic medical conditions such as asthma, angina and allergies, which may force teachers to take sick leave and thereby miss lessons, were reported by 110 teachers (44%) as a reason for absenteeism. There was a significant difference between males and females, with male respondents reporting higher absenteeism rates because of recurring medical conditions than females. A comparatively low number of respondents (63 or 25%) reported being absent from work because of back pain. Ergonomics is considered in schools and management generally tries to equip teachers with the necessary resources, which probably explains the relatively low incidence of this element (Sreenivasan & Narayana, 2005:51). Minor illnesses, such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines, and acute medical conditions, such as stroke, heart attacks, HIV and cancer, were cited by 85 (34%) and 55 (22%) respondents respectively as having kept them away from work. Temporary teachers reported higher levels of absenteeism due to minor illnesses than assistant teachers and permanent staff members.

Fifty (50 or 20%) of the respondents cited non-work-related or work-related injuries and accidents a reason for their absenteeism, with musculoskeletal injuries in particular being reported by 47 (19%). Work-related injuries could be caused by the equipment or machinery used to teach specific subjects. Mental health issues such as depression, burnout and anxiety, which may be linked to work overload (see 5.4.5 below), were reported by 47 (19%) respondents. Only 38 (15%) respondents cited a drink or drug-related condition as the reason for their absence from work. There are rehabilitation centres and trained counsellors to assist those with addiction problems (Walsh, 2013:172).

Only 25 (10%) teachers took maternity leave during the period under investigation. While many countries have legislated paternity leave for new fathers, this is not the case in Botswana, so the results obviously show a marked difference between males and females with regards to maternity (or paternity) leave (Balule, 2007:103). Botswana allows a maternity leave period of six weeks before the delivery date and six weeks after the birth of a baby (Balule, 2007:104).

Staff development is of vital importance for any organisation to grow and schools are no exception. Allowing teachers to take time off for personal and/or professional development is to the advantage of the teachers involved, the teaching corps as a whole, learners, and ultimately the school itself and the community at large. Teachers often attend conferences and congresses to keep abreast of developments in their profession and network with other teachers or stakeholders in the Ministry of Education (Rari, 2013). Eighty-eight (88 or 35%) respondents reported having missed work in order to attend such events. In addition, 75 (30%) respondents reported having been absent due to study and research leave or leave for creative output, and 61 (24%) indicated having taken leave to attend training sessions or courses during the period under investigation.

Teachers accumulate differing numbers of annual leave days depending on their salary scale and position in the school hierarchy. In the past, teachers would automatically be on leave during school holidays, but nowadays they must apply for leave (Rari, 2013). A total of 78 (31%) respondents reported taking accumulated leave as the reason for their absence. The results showed a significant difference between males and females, with absenteeism due to accumulated leave being higher among male teachers than female teachers.

Most teachers are involved in school sports and athletics. At times, the programme may become so congested that sport events may encroach on normal teaching days, so that both teachers and learners are likely to miss lessons, if not entire school days. Learners or teams who excel in their sporting codes may also advance to regional, national and even international competitions, which may well keep them and the teachers who train or coach them away from school for longer periods (Rari, 2013). It is therefore not surprising that 71 (28%) of the total population reported absence from the workplace due to sport engagements. Work overload was also a significant cause for absenteeism among the sample population, with 67 (25%) respondents putting this forward as the reason for their absence from the workplace. Numerous factors contribute to work overload in the teaching profession: staff shortages and abnormally high student-teacher ratios – which leave teachers having to teach and monitor overcrowded classes and facing overwhelming marking loads – and extracurricular activities that keep them busy after hours as well (Rari, 2013). Work overload goes hand in hand with a lack of sufficient rest, and this was confirmed by the relatively high number of respondents (47 or 18%) reporting

tiredness as a contributory factor in absenteeism. Another related factor is stress. It is evident from the results that teachers are affected by stress: 74 (30%) respondents reported having been absent due to stress. There was a considerable difference between the mean scores of the various age groups, with the 50-59 age group scoring significantly higher than both the 20-29 and 30-39 age groups in this regard. Stress may be caused by dissatisfaction, problems at home, workload, or any number of other challenging factors (Jefferson, 2012:8-9).

Absenteeism due to teachers prolonging a weekend may also be related to work overload and general fatigue. Fifty (50 or 20%) respondents reported having prolonging a weekend, with significantly more male respondents than female ones admitting to having been absent for this reason. Work overload may contribute to this phenomenon, as teachers who are forced to work over weekends to meet their work commitments may have insufficient time for rest and relaxation and may indeed feel entitled to taking an extra day off to recuperate (Rari, 2013). Drink and drug-related problems are also a factor, and simply a case of teachers travelling on holiday and not returning to work on schedule.

In some schools, ineffective management, poor control and supervision, and insufficient measures to curb indiscipline may result in employees taking advantage by taking excessive or unauthorised leave, especially when their direct superiors are away (Sreenivasan & Narayana, 2005:51). The number of respondents admitting to having taken leave in this manner during the period under investigation was comparatively low (25 or 10%), so it would appear that teachers are relatively self-disciplined in this regard. Labour disputes and lock out were indicated by 43 (17%) respondents as the reason for their absence from work. In recent years, there have been several instances of teachers locking horns with the Botswana Ministry of Education over labour-related issues, including low wages, remuneration for extracurricular activities, moderation, the marking of scripts and overtime work, operational levels and a lack of scarce skills, and leave days (Rari, 2013). Some of these disagreements were arbitrated by the relevant authorities, but other ended in the high court. The absenteeism rate due to labour disputes was higher amongst male respondents than their female counterparts, which may be ascribed to male teachers being more actively involved in union activities (Hunyepa, 2013).

Employees may also be affected by problems in other sectors that prevent them from showing up for work. For example, if they are dependent on public transport and such services are unreliable or have been suspended for whatever reason, they may not be able to get to work. Teachers who do not have access to private transport fall into this category, as schools are understandably not able to accommodate all teachers on their premises, so that most of them have to commute from their places of residence (Hunyepa, 2013). Of the sample population, 41 (16%) respondents cited transport problems as a reason for showing up late to work or not at all.

Surprisingly, 53 (21%) respondents reported having been absent from work due to inclement weather. This might again be related to transport issues, where roads might become impassable because of heavy rains or stormy conditions (Singh, 2010:51).

The most surprising result is the number of respondents indicating job dissatisfaction as a reason for absenteeism: only 42 (16%) respondents cited this as a reason for absence from work. Considering the low job satisfaction levels of the sample population, one would have assumed that the frequency would have been much higher.

5.5 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The following are the main findings of this study:

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the JDI scale were as follows: work itself (0.74); supervision (0.83); co-workers (0.83); promotion (0.79); pay (0.80) and total of JDI scale (0.89). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicate that the measuring instrument used in the study was reliable and valid.

The job satisfaction levels of the sample population with regard to the various dimensions were below the average norm of 36. The total for the job satisfaction scale is 119.96, which is well below the average score of 144. The results, showing satisfaction in descending order, are as follows: pay (M = 32.74); promotion opportunities (M = 24.06); work itself (M = 23.07); supervision (M = 20.68); and relationship with co-workers (M = 19.41).

The highest frequency reasons for absenteeism were as follows: family responsibility (52%); recurring medical conditions (44%); attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia (35%); minor illnesses (34%); accumulated leave (31%); study leave and leave for research or creative output (30%) and stress (30%).

5.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOLS

Happy employees are productive employees; disgruntled ones are less productive. If they feel that they are underappreciated and underpaid, they will tend to put only as much effort into their jobs as they deem justified by their remuneration, and therefore be less productive. In the teaching environment, less productive teachers will equate to poor performance by learners, which will eventually result in the school itself being categorised as a poor performing institution. This, in turn, will encourage parents to take their children out of these schools, which means that such schools lose vital funds in the form of school fees and government subsidies linked to learner numbers. Moreover, the relevant authorities may institute staff transfers in order to bring neutral minds to affected schools, while the best teachers may well leave in search of more conducive work environments. This translates into high staff turnovers, which come at a high cost to government and puts the national education budget under pressure, which of course means that salaries stagnate, thus reinforcing the cycle.

This vicious cycle extends to more than just simple economics. Teachers at schools labelled as underperforming institutions become even more demotivated due to what they might well perceive as constant criticism of everything they do, both in terms of academics and extracurricular activities, over and above the pervasive lack of resources and modest pay, causing them to suffer from high levels of occupational stress and to become ever more detached from their work. Their dissatisfaction also renders them more undisciplined and more difficult to control, because their attitude is adversely affected by a pre-occupation with all that is lacking and a longing for improvements.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following:

The low satisfaction levels of the 'work itself' dimension call for remedial interventions. Those in positions of authority, especially at the policymaking level, should consider introducing innovative measures to make teaching a richer, more appealing experience for all concerned. Teaching should move away from a chalk-to-board approach to one where the teacher is given various options for reaching learners and actively involving them in the teaching process, such as: discussion groups, debates, experiments, research, and even symposia. Removing the boredom that comes with a fixed routine and permanent confinement to a classroom should greatly enhance teachers' experience of their work and lead to higher job satisfaction.

Teachers are also dissatisfied with the management and supervision style of their superiors. School managers, principals and department heads should adopt a less authoritarian approach in supervising juniors and allow teachers to perform their duties without extreme monitoring. This will make teachers feel trusted, which will encourage them to be more responsible and increase the satisfaction they derive from their work.

The results indicated high dissatisfaction levels among teachers with regard to their relationship with colleagues. School managers should encourage teamwork among staff members and adopt more inclusive mediation processes in solving disputes among them. This will foster harmony amongst teachers ultimately making them to derive more satisfaction from their jobs and consequently reduce unnecessary absences.

The low satisfaction levels with regard to opportunities for promotion are also of concern. Managers should attend to promotion policies and career planning, which should be linked to a proper performance management system.

Although pay appears to be the dimension attracting the lowest dissatisfaction levels among the respondents in this study, it still requires serious attention. Remuneration is a powerful determinant of motivation and job satisfaction. Policymakers should not only seek to increase teachers' basic salaries, but also to improve the entire remuneration package by introducing benefits, such as housing, study and travelling allowances, and tax relief for some positions. The introduction of such measures will go a long way towards enhancing job satisfaction within the teaching fraternity.

Finally, policymakers should focus on curbing absenteeism by instituting measures to address the reasons behind it. The contributory factors that were recorded with the highest frequency in this study were family responsibility, recurring medical conditions, attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia, minor illnesses, accumulated leave, leave for the purposes of study, research and creative output, and stress. These issues could be addressed by introducing measures such as healthy lifestyle campaigns and wellness and medical self-care programmes, employee assistance programmes, awareness programmes – with special emphasis on work/life balance to enable teachers to meet their family responsibilities – and stress management workshops.

5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations associated with this study. The perceptions of the sample population of 250 teachers from two high schools may not be representative of the experience of the entire teaching fraternity of Botswana.

In addition, the results of this research may not apply to all schools in Botswana, especially not private schools, as they operate under different auspices and the conditions in these schools often differ greatly from those in government schools. The governance of a particular school and the calibre of its teaching staff may also have a large impact in satisfaction or dissatisfaction of teachers. Responding to questionnaires is by nature a subjective and personal process, and participants may have been biased in various ways in providing the information gathered in this way. Not having to provide tangible evidence for their responses to the questions, they may have tried to satisfy the researcher's perceived expectations or have exaggerated the conditions under which they work. Moreover, the questionnaires were delivered to the principals of the participating schools, who in turn gave them to the teachers. As the respondents had no direct contact with the researcher, there was no opportunity for him to clarify any questions that might have been misunderstood, hence there is the possibility that some of the questions may not have been properly understood or answered appropriately.

5.9 CONCLUSIONS

The objectives of this study were two-fold: to ascertain the job satisfaction levels of and investigate the reasons for absenteeism among secondary school teachers. The results showed that modest pay, poor relationships at work, overly strict supervision by superiors, and the static nature of their work engender dissatisfaction and a tendency toward absenteeism.

The mean for total job satisfaction among the total population was 119.96, which is well below the average level of 144. Respondents were the least dissatisfied with their pay, while they were most dissatisfied with their relationship with co-workers, the supervision they are subjected to, the nature of their work, and their opportunities for promotion. Several recommendations were offered to enhance the satisfaction that teachers derive from their jobs, for example, improving the intrinsic nature of the job, encouraging teamwork, adopting more flexible management and supervision styles, increasing opportunities for promotion, and improving remuneration packages.

The results have showed that the reason most frequently cited for absenteeism is family responsibility, followed by recurring medical conditions, attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia, minor illnesses, accumulated leave, leave for the purposes of study, research and creative output, and stress. It is recommended that wellness and employee assistance programmes be implemented to address these factors and thereby reduce absenteeism.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

COVERING LETTER

P.O. Box 10375
Kanye
Botswana
13th January 2012

Job Satisfaction Levels and Reasons for Absenteeism amongst teachers at two High Schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye – Botswana.

Dear Participant

I, Mr. Reuben Mokoena Badubi, am currently doing research on the Job Satisfaction Levels and Reasons for Absenteeism amongst Teachers at two High Schools in the Secondary South Region, Kanye – Botswana. Your contribution to this study is extremely important to ensure the success of this project. All permanent and temporary teachers are requested to participate.

The questionnaire has been structured in such a way that it facilitates quick and easy completion. In trial runs it was determined that it will only take 30 minutes to complete. Your task is to work through the questionnaire as quickly as you can, and answer the questions as accurately and honestly as possible. Full details are provided on how to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of the following sections.

- Section A – Demographic Information
- Section B – Job Satisfaction levels
- Section C – Reasons for absenteeism

Your co-operation in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

.....

Reuben M. Badubi

(Researcher)

(Contacts: 00267- 71275044, reureu@rocketmail.com)

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

Male	Female
01	02

2. Age distribution

20-29	30-39 yrs	40-50 yrs	51-60	61 and above
01	02	03	04	05

3. Post/category

Temporary teacher	Assistant teacher	Teacher
01	02	03

4. Marital status

Single	Married	Divorced	Widow	Widower	Separated
01	02	03	04	05	06

5. Home language

English	Afrikaans	Tswana/Sotho/ Pedi	Nguni	Other
01	02	03	04	05

6. Years of service

0-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11-15 yrs	16-20 yrs	21 yrs and above
01	02	03	04	05

SECTION B: JOB SATISFACTION

Listed below are seventy-two 72 short phrases or objectives, representing possible feelings individuals might have about their job content and job context. Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work?

No = 0

Unsure = 1

Yes = 3

For each statement, please circle the number that corresponds to your response.

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work			
STATEMENTS	No	Unsure	Yes
1. Fascinating	0	1	3
2. Routine *	0	1	3
3. Satisfying	0	1	3
4. Boring *	0	1	3
5. Good	0	1	3
6. Creative	0	1	3
7. Respected	0	1	3
8. Hot *	0	1	3
9. Pleasant	0	1	3

10. Useful	0	1	3
11. Tiresome *	0	1	3
12. Healthy	0	1	3
13. Challenging	0	1	3
14. On your feet *	0	1	3
15. Frustrating *	0	1	3
16. Simple *	0	1	3
17. Endless *	0	1	3
18. Gives sense of accomplishment	0	1	3
STATEMENTS			
1. Asks for my advice	0	1	3
2. Is hard to please *	0	1	3
3. Impolite *	0	1	3
4. Praises good work	0	1	3
5. Tactful	0	1	3
6. Influential	0	1	3
7. Up-to-date	0	1	3
8. Does not supervise enough *	0	1	3
9. Quick-tempered *	0	1	3
10. Tells me where I stand	0	1	3
11. Annoying *	0	1	3
12. Stubborn *	0	1	3
13. Knows his/her job well	0	1	3
14. Bad *	0	1	3
15. Intelligent	0	1	3

16. Leaves me on my own *	0	1	3
17. Lazy *	0	1	3
18. Available when needed	0	1	3
STATEMENTS			
1. Stimulating	0	1	3
2. Boring *	0	1	3
3. Slow *	0	1	3
4. Ambitious	0	1	3
5. Stupid *	0	1	3
6. Responsible	0	1	3
7. Fast	0	1	3
8. Intelligent	0	1	3
9. Easy to make enemies *	0	1	3
10. Talk too much *	0	1	3
11. Smart	0	1	3
12. Lazy *	0	1	3
13. Unpleasant *	0	1	3
14. Allow no privacy *	0	1	3
15. Active	0	1	3
16. Narrow interests *	0	1	3
17. Loyal	0	1	3
18. Hard to satisfy *	0	1	3
STATEMENTS			
1. Good chance for advancement	0	1	3

2. Opportunities somewhat limited *	0	1	3
3. Promotion on ability	0	1	3
4. Dead-end job *	0	1	3
5. Good chance for promotion	0	1	3
6. Unfair promotion policy *	0	1	3
7. Infrequent promotions *	0	1	3
8. Regular promotions	0	1	3
9. Fairly good chance for promotion	0	1	3
STATEMENTS			
1. Income inadequate for normal expenses *	0	1	3
2. Satisfactory retirement plan	0	1	3
3. Barely live on income *	0	1	3
4. Poor package *	0	1	3
5. Income provides luxury	0	1	3
6. Insecure *	0	1	3
7. Less than I deserve *	0	1	3
8. Well paid	0	1	3
9. Underpaid *	0	1	3

* Revised score items

SECTION C

For the past twelve months, indicate if you were absent from work for any of the following reasons or causes.

	REASONS	NO = 0	YES = 1
1.	Minor illnesses such as colds, flu, stomach upsets, headaches and migraines	0	1
2.	Musculoskeletal injuries such as neck strains, and repetitive strain injury but excluding back pain	0	1
3.	Back pain	0	1
4.	Stress	0	1
5.	Family responsibility	0	1
6.	Recurring medical conditions such as asthma, angina, and allergies	0	1
7.	Injuries/accidents not related to work	0	1
8.	Work-related injuries/accidents	0	1
9.	Mental health such as depression, burnout and anxiety	0	1
10.	Acute medical conditions such as stroke, heart attack. HIV and cancer	0	1
11.	Maternity leave	0	1
12.	Off-the-job training	0	1
13.	Drink-or-drug related condition	0	1
14.	Accumulated leave	0	1
15.	Study leave, research leave and leave for creative output	0	1
16.	Attendance of conferences, congresses or symposia	0	1
17.	Bad weather	0	1
18.	Labour dispute/lock out	0	1
19.	Transport problems	0	1
20.	Tiredness	0	1

	REASONS	NO = 0	YES = 1
21.	To prolong a weekend	0	1
22.	Work overload	0	1
23.	To engage in sports	0	1
24.	To attend a sporting event	0	1
25.	Because the boss is away	0	1
26.	Poor supervision control and management	0	1
27.	Job dissatisfaction	0	1
28.	Others, please specify		

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION