# JOB MOTIVATION OF TEACHERS EDUCATING LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS IN FOUR PROVINCES IN KENYA

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**Berufsmotivation von Lehrern von Schülern mit sonderpädagogischen Förderbedarf in vier Provinzen Kenias**

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## DEDICATION

To my loving parents, mama Linet Anyolo Ambaisi, (Omutsoi), and Henry Ambaisi Olutola, for educating me and instilling in me the value of working hard. To my husband Dr. Maurice Otube Khayota, for his valuable input, constant support and encouragement during the entire duration of my studies. Special thanks to my dear children Joy and Ashley, for being patient and understanding during the period of my absence while in Germany.

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# ABSTRACT

**Nelly Were Otube**

**Zusammenfassung der Dissertation mit dem Titel:**
**"Berufsmotivation von Lehrern von Schülern mit sonderpädagogischen Förderbedarf in vier Provinzen Kenias"**
**(Originaltitel der Arbeit: " Job motivation of teachers educating learners with special needs in four provinces in Kenya")**

Eine der Hauptstrategien für die Qualitätsverbesserung der Sonderpädagogik ist es, die Einstellungen und die Motivationen der Lehrer zu heben. Um erfolgreich zu sein brauchen die Bildungsinstitutionen das Engagement der Lehrer. Das Wissen darüber, was Lehrer veranlasst professionell zu handeln ist wesentlich, um solches Engagement zu erzeugen. Lehrer von Schülern mit sonderpädagogischen Förderbedarf leisten häufig zusätzliche Aufgaben. Sie müssen zudem täglich mit den individuellen Lern- und Verhaltensproblemen umgehen. Auch speziell ausgebildete Lehrer können nur bedingt erfolgreich mit der Problemstruktur von Schülern mit besonderen Bedürfnissen umgehen.

Der Gegenstand des Hauptinteresses in der vorliegenden Studie ist es Faktoren zu gewinnen, die die Motivation der Sonderschulpädagogen heben oder senken. Das Wissen um diese motivierenden Faktoren ist von großem Wert und kann als Ausgangspunkt dienen, die sonderpädagogische Handlungskompetenz weiter zu entwickeln. Die von mir gesichteten Studien stellen die Bedeutung der Beziehung zwischen der Arbeitsplatzzufriedenheit der Lehrer und den besonderen Arbeitsbedingungen wie Merkmale der Schüler, materielle Zuwendungen, die Wahrnehmung der Unterstützung durch die Institution und Administration das Schulklima heraus, Es wurde bislang noch keine Studie mit direktem Bezug zur vorliegenden durchgeführt.

Der Studie liegen der *Job-Design*-Fragebogen von Hackman und Oldham sowie die Untersuchung über die Zufriedenheit von Lehrern von Herzberg zugrunde. Die wichtigsten Theorien, die die Studie leiten, sind

Maslows Theorie von der Hierarchie der Bedürfnisse, Herzbergs Theorie über Zwei Faktoren der Motivation und das Arbeitsplatzcharakterisierungsmodell von Hackman und Oldham. Die Population der Studie ist vier gezielt ausgewählten Provinzen entnommen und umfasst Nyanza, Ostkenia, Zentralkenia und Nairobi. Die Schulen sind nach den vier Hauptkategorien der Behinderungen geordnet, d. h. Seh-, Hör-, Körper- und geistig Behinderung. 32 Sonder- und integrative Schulen sind nach dem Zufallsprinzip aus diesen Kategorien ausgewählt. Im Detail sind es 142 Sonderschullehrer und 128 Lehrer an integrativen Schulen. Die Gesamtzahl betrug 270 Lehrer als Untersuchungspersonen für die Hauptstudie; Lehrer wurden im Rahmen Pilotstudie befragt.

Die Daten wurden durch Anwendung des *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (SPSS) ausgewertet. Die Forschungshypothesen der Studie wurden durch den Unabhängigen Sample-T-Test überprüft, der verwendet wurde um die Unterschiede zwischen den Mittelwerten/Medianen der Sonderschulen und der integrativen Schulen ebenso wie den Familienstand und das Geschlecht der Lehrer mit den Arbeitsmotivationsfaktoren zu vergleichen. Die Varianzanalyse (Analysis of Variance, ANOVA)) wurde angewandt, um Unterschiede innerhalb der Gruppe der Mittelwerte/Mediane zu finden, während der Korrelationskoeffizienten-Test verwandt wurde, um die Beziehung der Arbeitsplatzfaktoren mit der Motivation der Lehrer zu bestimmen. Die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Studie sind vereinbar mit der Theorie der Bedürfnisse nach Maslow und verweist darauf, dass jede Person die Erfüllung bestimmter Bedürfnisse anstrebt.

Die vorliegende Studie zeigt, dass der tatsächliche Status in der Klassifikation der Gesamtbedürfnisse der Lehrer sein oder ihr Verhalten bei der Arbeit bestimmt. In anderen Worten, die Position, in der sich der Lehrer in der Hierarchie der Bedürfnisse befindet, beeinflusst seine Ausübung der Arbeit. Das Wissen über unerfüllte Bedürfnisse der Lehrer kann die Schuladministration befähigen, die Ausführung der Arbeit zu beeinflussen. Die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Studie stimmen mit Herzbergs Zwei-Faktoren-Theorie und Hackmans Modell der Motivation überein. Herzbergs Theorie zeigt, dass intrinsisch wirkende Faktoren wie

Anerkennung, die Arbeit selbst und Verantwortung zu Zufriedenheit bei der Arbeit führen, im Gegensatz zu Faktoren wie Verwaltung, Gehalt und Arbeitsbedingungen, auch bekannt als *dissatisfiers* (Unzufriedenheitsproduzenten) in Herzbergs Theorie. Sie wurden von den Lehrern als Faktoren, die sich negativ auf die Motivation auswirken, identifiziert. Schulorganisationen müssen sicherstellen, dass die Faktoren, die Zufriedenheit der Lehrer verursachen, gefördert werden, um Unzufriedenheit bei ihrer Arbeit zu vermeiden.

## ABSTRACT

One of the main strategies for improving the quality of Special Needs Education (SNE) is to raise the morale and motivation of its teachers. To be successful, educational institutions need teachers, especially those with special education bias. This study investigated factors that enhance or lower motivation of SNE teachers. Studies reviewed supported the relationship between teacher retention and specific work conditions such as students' characteristics, compensation, perceived administrative support and school climate among other variables. No study has been conducted that is directly related to the current study. The study employed the Job Design Questionnaire by Hackman and Oldham (1964) as well as the "Teachers' Satisfaction Survey" by Herzberg (1959) both had a five point likert - type scale requiring special education teachers to indicate their views by a ticking against the options provided concerning statement about their jobs.

The main theories guiding the study were Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs Theory", "Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory" of Motivation and the "Job Characteristic Model of Motivation" by Hackman and Oldham. The pilot study was first conducted in four special schools in Nairobi and Kiambu districts where a total of 40 teachers were randomly selected to participate. For the main study, the population was drawn from four purposively selected provinces including Nyanza, Eastern, Central and Nairobi. The schools were then grouped according to the four main categories of disability i.e. visually impaired, hearing impaired and mentally handicapped. A total of 16 special schools and 16 integrated schools were subsequently randomly sampled out of these categories. Specifically, the number of special school teachers was 142, while integrated teachers numbered 128. The total number used for the main study was 270. Data were analysed by the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The hypotheses for the study were tested using the independent sample t-test which compared the differences in the means of the special and integrated schools as well the

marital status and gender of the teachers against the job motivation factors. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) method was used to find the differences within groups of means while the correlation coefficient test was used to determine the relationship between job factors and teacher motivation. Findings were consistent with "Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory" indicating that every person strives for the fulfilment of certain needs. The present study shows that the teachers' state in the hierarchy of needs influences his or her work performance. The knowledge of unfulfilled special education teachers' needs may enable stakeholders to influence their work performance. Findings are in agreement with Herzberg's "Two-Factor Theory". Hackman's "Model of Motivation" and Herzberg's theory shows that intrinsically rewarding factors like recognition led to Job satisfaction.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## 1.0 Introduction

The motivation of teachers has become an important issue given their responsibility to inculcate knowledge in the students. Mertler (1992) argues that satisfied teachers are generally more productive and can influence student achievements. Research on human behaviour in organizations on employee attitude and morale, as well as relationships between management approaches and productivity, shows that individual workers evaluate their work situation in terms of the extent to which it satisfies his or her desires or ambitions (Goodwin, 1998). In educational institutions, research has shown that educators leave or consider leaving the profession due to the work conditions (extrinsic factors) than to the nature of the work (intrinsic factors).

Schmid and Nagata (1983), assert that promoting high levels of motivation among educators requires skillful and responsible action from the administrative leadership. A healthy school environment tends to be related to high teacher morale. A principal's ability to create a positive schools climate and culture can be instrumental in promoting the motivation of the teachers.

Miller (1981) notes that motivated teachers can have a positive effect on pupil’s attitude and learning.Raising teachers' morale level not only makes teaching more pleasant it also creates an environment thatis more conducive to learning for the students. Conversely, low levels of satisfaction and motivation has been associated with decreased teacher productivity and burnout. The result of burnout among teacher is the loss of concern and detachment from the people with whom one works, decreased quality of teaching and a cynical dehumanized perception of the students. In short, teachers who are not motivated to teach or are not satisfied with their career can

impact negatively on student learning and the schools (Mendel, 1980). The special educator's job of providing handicapped children with academic and social skills is a crucial factor as it ensures their future economic and social independence. Special education teachers are charged with the responsibility of imparting these skills to students with special needs. In order for the special needs teacher to play his or her role effectively, Hester (1997) argues that he or she should be satisfied with the job.

## 1.1 Background to the Study

Special education in Kenya was pioneered by churches, voluntary and charitable organizations, including the Catholic Church, the Salvation Army and the Presbyterian Church of East Africa (Ndurumo, 1993). In 1964, the Kenya Education Commission was formed to investigate and implement national policies regarding the education needs and capacities of special needs children. Ndurumo (1993) states that among its recommendations included, the need for special education and training of handicapped children as well as the need to introduce special education component to the regular training program. Such an enlightened position served as a guiding principle in Kenya's special education program.

Between 1980 and 1986, there was a growth in the enrolment of children and expansion of special education programs (Ndurumo, 1993). The government contribution to special schools was reflected in the provision of financial assistance and personnel deployment. The Ministry of Education and the local government contributed towards the maintenance of government-assisted schools such as the Jacaranda School for the Mentally Handicapped, Aga Khan Special School for the Deaf in Mombasa and Joyland School for the Physically Handicapped. In these schools however, the sponsors met the bulk of the financial responsibility. While supporting specials schools in one way or another, the government also conducted a two-year special education courses

for teachers of the deaf in Siriba Teachers College and for teachers of the blind and mentally handicapped at Highridge Teachers College (Ndurumo, 1991). In 1985, diploma and the in-service certificate courses were initiated at the Kenya Institute of Special Education, degree courses were later introduced at Kenyatta and Maseno Universities respectively. This contributed towards improving the capacity of skilled personnel both in theory and practice of educating learners with special needs.

The target for special education as articulated in the Education For All paper (EFA, 1999), shows that the government is committed to the identification, assessment and provision of early intervention for correction and rehabilitation, and the promotion of the integration of children with disabilities into formal education and training. A national conference on EFA; held in Kisumu in 1999 recommended a redoubling of efforts to increase the education of children with special needs in Kenya.

The Republic of Kenya (RoK), proposed as one of its main strategies for ensuring the provision Education For All for the learners with special needs was by improving the relevance and quality of special education through a reviewing of the curriculum to ensure its relevance to specific disabilities and to the teachers at school level. Another proposed strategy was to introduce a special allowance in order to raise the morale of special education teachers (EFA country paper, 1999). These are among the various strategies deviced by the government in an effort to equalize education opportunities for learners with disabilities in Kenya.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Laxity and low job motivation of teachers in the special education field among other problems, have been attributed to the adequate terms of service. Studies conducted by Shyamalla (1990) and

Sogomo (1993), identify high turn -over rates and lack of proper classwork preparation among some manifestations of teacher dissatisfaction and low job morale. The teacher union in Kenya has been known to champion the rights of teachers by voicing dissatisfaction with the pay package and constantly calling for nationwide teacher strikes, (Waihenya, 2003). Akasta (1986), asserts that the failure of the education system to recognize the factors that are valued by the teachers are known to contribute to such negative outcomes. Karugu (1980) also argues that there are cases where professionals perceived to be the best teachers, headteachers or office administrators resigned from their jobs for better employment in the private sector or in different government departments. Teaching is often viewed by majority of the entrants as a bridging occupation into which they join prior to settling down to more lucrative and satisfying jobs. The report by Akala (2002) shows that many teacher trainees join colleges as the only alternative to staying unemployed.

The central problem of this study was to search for and identify those factors that enhance special education teachers indicate as enhancing their motivation and those that negatively impact on it with regard to their job. The key issue was, to ascertain the extent to which job factors such as , achievement, challenges faced on the job, availability of advancement opportunities, skill expertise, work environment, job security, remuneration, education training and governing policies among others, contribute positively or negatively to the special education teachers' level of work motivation.

## 1.3 Purpose of the Study

(a) The purpose of the current study was to describe the importance of certain job factors in motivating special education teachers

(b) It was intended that the current study will use the opinions expressed by the special education teachers to re-structure the field of special education in such a way that would attract and retain highly qualified personnel while ensuring quality education for learners with special needs.

**(c)** The study hoped to come up with useful data that can later be instrumental in developing an attitude scale for the recruitment of personnel in the field of special education.

## 1.4 Research Questions

(1) What are the overall factors identified by special education teachers as motivating with regard to their jobs?

(2) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the type of disability taught?

(3) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to their type of school?

(4) Are the teachers in integrated schools motivated by the same or different factors in relation to their jobs?Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to variations in their school location?

(5) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to variations in their years of experience?

(6) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to variations in their level of education?

(7) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their level of special education training?

(8) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due differences in their gender?

(9) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to variations in their ages?

(10) Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their marital status?

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

The study derives its importance from the continuing national development and more specifically, the provision of quality education for all learners with special needs. It was hoped that the information will assist the education management personnel, planners and policy makers to arrive at decisions that will help improve the special teachers' morale and working conditions while at the same time counteract those factors that lower the teachers' motivation. The current study will provide an opportunity to appreciate the special education teachers' views regarding factors that motivate them to work and those that affect their efforts negatively.

This will allow researchers in the field of special education to become aware of new ideas pertaining to the practice of special education in Kenya that could set criteria for further research and inquiry. Policy recommendations based on the findings of the current study on possible sources of work motivation of special education teachers will serve as a blueprint in the achieving not only advancement in the field of Special Needs Education but also the provision of a well educated, keen, competent, respected and contented teaching force which is by far the most important contribution that the government of Kenya can make to the education of learners with special needs. In a developing country such as Kenya, the problems of teacher recruitment, training and commitment of special education teachers have impacts far beyond formal education of learners with special needs. If such problems remain unidentified and are left to persist, the whole pace of development in education, specifically that of learners with special needs, will continue to lag

behind. The information acquired through this study will help the administrators themselves to understand the different views that the educators express as their sources of motivation. Conceivably, these factors may transcend the boundaries of salaries and working conditions to their social environment and participation in goal-setting procedures within the schools. With regard to institutions offering special education, the current study may initiate development of programme and strategies that will contribute to optimizing the overall achievement levels of the students with disabilities thus creating a conducive teaching and learning atmosphere.

## 1.6 Delimitation of the Study

In studying such a complex field as work motivation among special education teachers a considerable focus was decided on. The researcher focused on schools having the four categories of disabilities of learners with special needs in Kenya which consisted of physical, visual, mental and hearing disabilities, (public special schools in Kenya constitute only these four categories of disabilities). Apart from the special schools, the researcher considered it necessary to focus also on integrated schools. It was hoped that including special and integrated schools would yield important information concerning the different experiences and views of the teachers in those different settings. The study was carried out on a randomly selected number of primary and secondary special schools within four provinces in Kenya. These provinces included Nairobi, Central, Eastern, and Nyanza. The sampled schools are located both in the urban and rural parts of the four provinces. The focus on different school locations was to provide information based on the teachers' different views depending on their experiences as influenced by their school locations. The population selected for the current study was teachers and headteachers within special schools and integrated schools. The term special education teacher includes headteachers, teachers and other school level administrators working in schools serving handicapped children.

# CHAPTER TWO

# EDUCATION IN KENYA

## 2.0 Introduction

Kenya has a highly developed educational infrastructure both in terms of coverage and organisation. In formulating the current education system, the Kenyan government is guided by the fact that the education offered must be national, democratic and must also cater for the people's cultural aspirations. Any change in the system signifies that education is not static and that monitored changes must always be brought in appropriately (RoK, 1999). The participation of the Republic of Kenya (RoK) in the Jomtien Conference in 1990 and its subsequent endorsement of the EFA; declaration in 1999, reinforced the commitment Kenya made on the provision of education to its citizens. The EFA 2000 assessment effort in Kenya reveals that the past decade witnessed a renewed government's commitment to EFA goals.

The development of education in Kenya has faced various changes and challenges. The EFA 2000 report shows that over the last thirty years, the education sector has undergone major transformations with more than ten reviews by official reports, sessional papers, studies of commissions, task forces and working parties established by the government. These reports examined Kenya's educational system and made recommendations; among these were Ominde Report (1964) of the Kenya Education Commission, the Gachathi Report (1976), of the National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies (NCEOP), the Mackay Report, (1981), on the Working Party on the Second University, the Kamunge Report (1988) on the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower. Training for the Next Decade and Beyond and the RoK report, (1999) of the inquiry into the Kenyan education system. These reviews were necessitated by the

quest to address the pertinent issues of access, relevance, quality and efficiency of the education system in the country. Even though the government formulated sound educational goals and policies resulting from recommendations made by these reports, their achievement is yet to be fully realised, especially at the implementation level. Addressing the education for learners with disabilities, most reports recommended that those with mild cases should receive education in regular schools while, special schools should cater for learners with severe disabilities. However, the government has not designed ways of ensuring their equal participation in education opportunities. The UNESCO (1994) report shows that learners with special needs have been poorly represented in schools and post- school education in Kenya.

## 2.1 Pre-Colonial Education System

Education before the advent of the church missions consisted of both formal and informal educational experiences. Anderson (1970), observes that formal education had in many ways been established in African societies. Sheffield (1971) describes three general methods of Kenyan tribal teaching first, parents and elders, second craftsmen under the apprenticeship system and third, elders in the initiation rites. However, by practice such as grouping children in classrooms for regular daily lessons and emphasising reading and writing, the colonialists did much to shape the more recent understanding of schooling. Owen (1982) states that attempts to abolish slave trade and efforts to curtail certain traditional 'barbaric' cultures led to the eventual influx of missionaries into Kenya. The primary goal of missionary education was to have converts to the religious order in a particular region. According to Lugumba (1973), the Church Missionary Society that had begun its work in the highlands had opened a school at Kabete in 1898. There were also developments on an extensive scale in Western Kenya. Lugumba further notes that Nyanza Province was opened up both from the East and the West. Missionaries from Uganda established the Maseno School that later became a very famous educational centre. The Friends African Mission from the United

States were active in the areas of Kaimosi and Mount Elgon from 1902. The Friends Missionary society subsequently started the Lumbwa Mission in Kericho in 1905. On the other hand, Lugumba notes that the Mill Hill Fathers began their work among Nyanza Province people in 1904 then later extended their work to Mumias and Kisii regions. Other Missions, which entered the Nyanza Province, were the African Institute of the Church of God at Bunyore in 1906, the Nilotic Independent Mission and the Seventh day Adventists. The Consolata Fathers who had started their work early in the century at Nyeri and Limuru areas later extended their activities to Kabaa near Ukambani (Owen, 1982).

Owen further observes that missionary education, for the most part was not focussed on Africans or their traditional education, it was foreign education taught to Africans. Concurring with this notion (Wallerstein, 1971) asserts that Europeans had an attitude of superiority and a civilising mission that quite often meant a christianising mission. He further points out that the curriculum introduced to Africans was not sufficiently altered to meet the needs of the African society, this later worked negatively to Kenya's development and eventual confrontation with the modern world.

## 2.2 Education in the Colonial Era

A commission of inquiry into the Kenyan education system in 1999, notes that in general, education in colonial period was racially stratified. There were separate schools and curricula for Europeans, Asians and Africans (Republic of Kenya, 1999). The colonial government imposed its education policies and practice on local communities thereby destroying the African traditional systems. Furthermore, Lugumba (1973) posits that African education was divided into several parts including elementary, intermediate and lower secondary and upper secondary tiers. The European and Asian education system on the other hand, did not have this kind of arrangement. Upward mobility was restricted for Africans through the rigorous examination systems at each of education levels. This trend resulted in great disparities in education opportunities between the different races

and regions in Kenya. As Lugumba (1973) points out, the general attitude of the Africans during the colonial era was against agricultural oriented education or an education that emphasised farming and craftsmanship. They regarded the society as intending to make them peasants in a modern economy, far below the economic level of Europeans and Asians since the main intention of the government's policy was for these different races to play different roles in the Kenyan society. The history of education in Kenya until late 1920s, shows that while colonial educators and administrators insisted that the salvation of the African people was through giving them vocational and agricultural education as the main employment channel, Africans rejected this type of education. It is interesting to note that rejection of technical oriented education system continues to persist as evidenced by the RoK Report (1998), whereby, the current education system emphasising technical oriented subjects has been viewed by some education analysts and stakeholders as unfavourable.

According to Anderson (1970), school development for Africans was painfully slow in colonial days compared to other East African countries like Uganda. Development of secondary schools such as, Alliance High School was initiated in 1926 and it served protestant missions for a considerable length of time. About the same period, the Roman Catholics established Kabaa as a secondary school. The report by the De La Warr Comission of 1937, led to the establishment of high schools such as Maseno and Yala in Nyanza. Lugumba (1973) postulates that African education was regarded by colonialists as needing gradual development and for which funds were to be spent sparingly. The large amounts of funds spent on the education of European and Asian children however, was on the other hand regarded as justified. Kemuma (2000) supports the notion that the Kenyan education system had a strong racial bias meant to create different societies within one political arena. This was part of the background on which Kenya acquired independence in 1963.

## 2.3 Post-Colonial Education

Against the background of colonial education that was racially stratified, it was inevitable that the first task of the independent government was to expand educational opportunities for Africans, especially secondary and tertiary level education. Upon gaining independence, Kenya adopted a philosophy of education that would best serve the country in a national purpose (Nafula, 2001). It was felt that in addition to imparting market skills to the labour force, the education system aimed at removing social injustices and disparities imposed during the colonial period. Consistent with this role of education, a key political conviction of the government stated that every Kenyan has a right to basic education (RoK, 1998). The government hence, formulated various educational policies such as the establishment of a public educational system with national curricula, a national teaching service and a national examination and certification body. The government also established national training institutions as well as special education programmes to meet various developmental needs of the country, (Nafula, 2001). The key components of the national education system in post-colonial Kenya, encompassed the following: early childhood education, primary, secondary and technical and higher education.

### 2.3.0 Early Childhood Education

The socio- economic change after independence led to the rise of pre-school centres. The emergence of the pre-schools is associated with areas where early exposure to modern education made it possible for parents to respond to childcare and development in pursuit for better education for their children. These parents, who were relatively better off economically, increasingly used pre-school centres as a head-start for the preparation for entry into primary schools. The government later recognised that pre-school education was a critical education cycle for laying a firm and healthy foundation for children during formative years. In Kenya, early childhood care and development caters for children between 0 and 6 years of age. Pre-school teachers, however,

deal with children aged three and above. The children below this age are generally taken care of by their parents, guardians and care-givers at home (RoK, 1999).

### 2.3.1 Primary Education

The specific objectives of primary education were stated in sessional paper number 8 on Education and Manpower Development for the Next Decade and Beyond (RoK, 1988). They include imparting literacy, numeracy and manipulative skills, developing a measure of logical thought and critical judgement and laying a foundation for further education**.** From the inception of formal western education in Kenya, primary education outdistanced other tiers of education in that there were inadequate numbers of secondary schools to handle the primary school-leavers. By 1964, primary school education had been reduced to seven years from the earlier eight-year period. The curriculum provided both general education and practical subjects. The subjects comprised the following subjects: English Mathematics, Mother tongue, Geography, History and Civics, Science (Agriculture, Health Education), Swahili, Physical Education, Music and singing, Religious Education ( Ministry of Education, 1982). Seven years of primary education culminated with a Certificate of Primary Education (CPE). The results determined who received further education at the secondary level. At this level, the problem of the ever-increasing number of primary school-leavers worsened every year. In support of this view, Lugumba, (1973) observes that the government attempted to combat the problem by including skills on the primary level that students could use in seeking gainful employment if they terminated schooling after seven years. It is interesting to observe that the problem of dropout after primary education has continued to persist, the Master Plan on Education and Training Report, (MPET; 1998) cites high wastage in education resulting from increased drop-out rates.

### 2.3.2 Secondary Education

Secondary education provides transition between primary education and higher education. Performance in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) at the end of the four-year school period is used as the criteria for selection into university and training in middle-level trades and other professions (RoK, 1998). The secondary school education previously included two phases, of four and two-year duration respectively. Modification of the secondary school curriculum by the introduction of the eight-four- four structure of education in 1983 abolished the A-level system and, saw the inclusion of more practical subjects in the curriculum. Owen (1982) states that such practical subjects included Agriculture, Home-Science and Business. Subjects taught during the school year included the following:

Mathematics, Religious Education, Physical Science, Physical Education, General Science, Art Education, Biology, Music, Kiswahili, Home Science, English, Industrial Education, French, History, Geography, Religious Education and Agricultural Education. Upon completing a total of six years of secondary school, students were required to take the first phase of the Kenya Certificate of Education Examination (KACE). Those who passed this examination were channelled into further education at the universities and training colleges. Some problems evidenced at this level right during this period was the high numbers of school-leavers and lack of space to accommodate qualified students to higher education (Owen, 1982).

### 2.3.3 Higher Education

Universities constitute the apex of the formal education system in Kenya. Universities are charged with the role and responsibilities of teaching, undertaking research, developing and advancing knowledge, storing and disseminating the knowledge generated (Nafula, 2001). According to Nafula, university education and training programmes are expected to respond to the demands of

national development and socio-economic needs and to provide solutions to contemporary problems facing the society. The development of university education started as the Royal Technical College in 1956. Sifuna (1973), states that the college became part of the East African University System which included Makerere and the University of Dar es Salaam. The University of East Africa was disbanded in 1970 thus giving the University of Nairobi its present status. According to Lugumba (1973), Kenyatta University College, formerly a secondary school teachers' college, became an affiliate of the University of Nairobi in 1971. Kenyatta University College had courses such as Engineering Science, Mathematics, Technical Drawing, Physical Education and Metalwork. In conclusion, the accomplishments made in the education sector after independence, represented the beginning of what would hopefully be a continuous plan of general education in Kenya.

## 2.4 Education Reforms in Kenya

### Introduction

Remarkable progress has been evidenced in the education sector since Kenya gained independence, and is well off in this respect compared to many low-income countries (Kimalu, 2001). Despite the tremendous progress in education, substantial problems still exist. Nafula (2001), notes that with regard to initial access, inherited geographical and gender disparities persist with a rising number of urban slum children, children with special needs, AIDS orphans, and the rural and urban poor who do not attend school. Karugu, et al., (1995), addressing the education of learners with special needs, provides evidence that as compared to the students without disabilities, the proportion of handicapped children receiving education is far below their actual population. Furthermore, Nafula (2001) observes that the general enrolment rates have not kept pace with the increase of the relevant age group. According to Akala (2002), the goal of the educational reforms was to ensure that educational opportunities reach all segments of the population especially those living in economically disadvantaged areas; however, these education reforms have had both positive and

negative effect on the education system. For instance, Akala notes that the cost-sharing scheme in education instituted in 1988 decreased enrolment and the quality of education as a result of insufficient funds for books and equipment. Due to increased level of poverty most parents could neither feed their children nor, provide them with proper health services or education (Akala, 2002). The government with assistance from partners and international organisations such asUNICEF intensified efforts to reverse the declining enrolments and improve on qualityand relevance of education and training.

### 2.4.1 Reforms in Pre-School Education

The government assumed the responsibility of pre-school education in 1980 and has since streamlined the pre-school programme. The training of pre-school teachers, preparation and development of the curriculum and teaching material are undertaken by the initiative of the government. The development of pre-school units and costs of teacher services on the other hand, continues to be met by communities and non-governmental agencies. To enhance the development of pre-school education, the RoK, in collaboration with the Van-Leer Foundation established the National Centres for Early Childhood Education (NACECE). The centres' main function was to educate the trainers of pre-school teachers who were then posted to the districts at the District Centre for Early Childhood Education (DICECE), (MPET 1998).

Unfortunately, pre-school education for children with special needs has not yet been accorded the attention it deserves by the government. Pre-school level of education is essentially more crucial for learners with special needs as they need to be identified early and subsequently provided with adequate intervention and remedial services (Bailey and Wolery, 1984). Therefore, in ensuring early access to education by children with disabilities, education policies must focus on reviewing current pre-school programmes to accommodate the needs of children with disabilities.

The table 1 below illustrates further the growth in enrolment rates of students in the early childhood centres between 1990-1998

Table1: showing Early Childhood Centres and enrolment rates

**Early Childhood Education Centres; enrolment of children**

| YEAR | Male | Female | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1990 | 35.8 | 35.0 | 70.8 |
| 1991 | 35.3 | 34.7 | 70.0 |
| 1992 | 34.0 | 33.4 | 67.4 |
| 1993 | 35.5 | 34.8 | 70.3 |
| 1994 | 35.4 | 34.8 | 70.2 |
| 1995 | 35.8 | 34.8 | 70.6 |
| 1996 | 36.1 | 35.3 | 71.4 |
| 1997 | 35.7 | 35.5 | 71.2 |
| 1998 | 35.4 | 34.3 | 69.7 |

*Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; Statistics Section. 1999*

Achola (1995), observes that the assistance given to the pre-school system by the Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and donor agencies such as the UNICEF helped increase the participation among disadvantaged communities. These projects approached the establishment of ECCDE centres as an integral component of community-based efforts aimed at improving health, providing nutrition, security and income generation for sustenance of the projects. The Kenyan Government through a World Bank funded project is currently investing heavily in the area of pre-school education and it is expected that the increase in access to this level of education will raise the gross enrolment ratio by the year the project ends in 2005. Despite these developments, the

relevance and quality of child development in pre-schools have been adversely affected by a number of variables including inadequacies in managerial infrastructure, staffing, physical facilities and instructional materials (MPET 1998). A report by the Ministry of Education (1999) also indicates that most pre-school institutions lack the financial capacity to employ sufficient number of teachers. In disadvantaged areas, the pre-school teachers do not possess academic certificates that qualify them for a regular teacher-training course. The RoK (1999) report shows that about 65% of pre-school teachers by 1994 are not professionally trained.

### 2.4.2 Reforms in Primary Education

Since 1985, Kenya has followed the 8-4-4 education structure (8 years of primary education, 4 years secondary and 4 years university education for a basic degree). The introduction of this new structure followed recommendations made by Mackay Report of 1981. It was based on the need to expand middle level education in order to increase opportunities for skill training and open more avenues for entry into higher education (RoK, 1999). Under the 8-4-4 system, the objectives of primary schooling include providing learning opportunities that enable pupils to acquire knowledge and skills for the workforce. The RoK (1999), observes that although the 8-4-4 system wasexpected to encourage orientation towards acquisition of technical skills, the general tendency among Kenyans to look down on technical education has not changed from the colonial period. The attainment of Universal Primary Education, (UPE) has been a long-term objective in the primary education sub-sector in Kenya. It was further reinforced by the Jomtien Declaration for Basic Education for All in 1990.

Steps towards achieving UPE have been made by the government through allowing re-entry to school for girls who are forced out due to pregnancies, revision of the curriculum to make it more relevant and manageable, giving greater recognition to non-formal education and more recently, the

introduction of free primary education in 2003. The crucial role of the primary school system, led to its being declared a human right to which every child is entitled and whose provision should therefore be the responsibility of the state (MPET, 1998). The report by the Ministry of Education (RoK 2000), indicates that there has been a remarkable expansion in primary education both in terms of the number of schools and the number of children enrolled. In addition, this report further shows that there has been a significant improvement in the participation of girls in primary education. School participation has however been affected by various problems. A study by Nzomo (2001), finds that in 1998, there were low completion rates as compared to enrolment rates. Nzomo posits that completion rates had not exceeded 50% by 1998 hence, this reflected internal inefficiencies within the system. According to Nzomo, high rates of repetition and drop out at this level could be attributed to factors such as the inability of households to meet the cost of education, girls' pregnancies and limited access to secondary education resulting in stiff competition for the few available places in the primary schools. As indicated by the table below, low enrolment rates are mainly evident in the north eastern part of Kenya which constitutes the Arid and Semi-Arid Land (ASAL). As the RoK (1999) shows, these areas have specific problems which affect access more seriously than those experienced by more economically productive districts. These factors include poor economic base, poor communication and infrastructure, lack of water, insecurity and conservative social cultural practices.

The table 2 below, compares enrolment rates between 1989 and 1998.

**Table 2. Gross enrolment ratios by province for the years 1989-98**

| PROVINCE | YEAR | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 |
| Coast | 78.8 | 78.2 | 74.3 | 69.4 | 64.5 | 64.7 | 65.2. | 63.3 | 73.3 | 74.5 |
| Central | 105.4 | 99.3 | 96.4 | 95.2 | 92.3 | 88.5 | 89.7 | 83.1 | 80.9 | 98.2 |
| Eastern | 94.9 | 93.6 | 92.7 | 90.1 | 84.8 | 82.5 | 79.0 | 77.9 | 76.7 | 93.8 |
| Nairobi | 86.4 | 68.0 | 67.1 | 66.0 | 51.3 | 62.1 | 61.4 | 58.5 | 56.0 | 56.9 |
| R. Valley | 89.5 | 87.9 | 86.5 | 84.4 | 76.7 | 77.4 | 75.8 | 75.6 | 75.9 | 86.7 |
| Western | 103.5 | 101.3 | 98.8 | 98.1 | 93.2 | 92.4 | 89.8 | 87.8 | 86.8 | 103.4 |
| Nyanza | 101.6 | 97.7 | 94.5 | 98.1 | 94.3 | 93.7 | 83.4 | 81.0 | 83.3 | 92.9 |
| N. Eastern | 30.0 | 32.4 | 30.8 | 29.4 | 22.1 | 28.6 | 19.7 | 27.2 | 31.7 | 24.8 |

***Source; Ministry of Education ,Statistics Section***

### 2.4.3 Reforms in Secondary Education

The secondary education is currently geared towards meeting the needs of both students who terminate their education after completing secondary school and those who proceed to higher education. In this context, the current secondary school curriculum places emphasis on job-oriented courses such as business and technical education. There are two categories of secondary schools in Kenya namely, public and private schools. The public secondary schools are funded by the government or communities and are managed through the board of governors and Parents-Teachers

Associations (PTA's). Private schools, on the other hand, are established and managed by private and individual organisations. According to the RoK (1999), there has been a tremendous increase in both the number of secondary schools and the enrolment of students. Although secondary education has expanded considerably since Kenya’s independence, access remains restricted.

The report by the RoK (1999) observes that limited access to education at the secondary level remains a major challenge that requires to be tackled. According to the MPET (1998), the number of students enrolled declined from 31% to about 27% indicating that the rate of enrolment is not keeping pace with the rate of growth of population of the eligible age-group. Also identified by the MPET was the gender disparity in the students' enrolments. Addressing the disparities in education, the report shows that between 1989 and 1996, the female proportion of the total enrolment (46%) remained lower than the (49.5%) achieved in the primary sub-sector. Regarding enrolment within districts, the Ministry of Education Annual Report (1999) shows that, there were consistently lower enrolment rates in the North Eastern districts also at this level, including Garissa, Wajir and Mandera. A high drop-out rate of students from secondary schools in these regions contributed to keeping the enrolments rates low. Female students had a higher drop-out rate of 14% between 1993-1996 as compared to 11% of male students. This view is supported by the fact that female students had frequent cases of teenage pregnancies and early marriages as well as preferences in male education provision among many households (MPET 1998).

According to the RoK (1999), the problems afflicting secondary education could be attributed to factors both in and outside education system including the type of curriculum used which tends to favour mechanical production skills, attitudes, and values. These lack emphasis on the development of intellectual abilities and skills. The report further notes that the curriculum is centralised and the examination system is geared to certification while the teacher-based

curriculum, utilising the local environment is not given adequate attention. Extrinsic factors such as rapidly growing population and sluggish economic growth have also been attributed to education problems by the Koech Report. The report reveals that equally important is the dire need for improvement of human resource in secondary schools and hence urges that the morale and

motivation of the teaching force must be raised through enhancement of both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

### 2.4.4 Reforms in Higher Education

The rapid expansion of higher education in Kenya, both quantitatively and qualitatively was necessitated by the need for universities to respond to demands of national development and emerging socio-economic needs, (RoK, 1994). The higher education system has undergone such commendable expansion that by 1998, there were a total of six public universities and eighteen private universities with varying degrees of recognition in the country. The establishment of the 8-4-4 structure of education extended the period of university education to four years. However, certain programmes such as medicine require an additional year or two to complete (Encyclopaedia of Higher Education Africa, 1999). Weidman (1995), observes that like most African countries, higher education was historically free with the government covering both tuition and living allowances. The rationale for free higher education in Kenya was based on among other things, the country's desire to create highly trained manpower able to replace the departing colonial administrators. Existing economic difficulties and an alarming increase in the student population however, culminated in the introduction of user charges in higher education in Kenya. Cost-sharing at the public universities was introduced in 1991 as a response to the ever declining state budget could not cope with the high student intake particularly when the first group of 8-4-4 students entered the Universities (Sayal and Martin, 1998). The cost-sharing scheme required the students and their parents to cover both tuition and living costs. Despite the expansion of higher education in the past years their capacity remains limited since universities accommodate only 7.5% of students graduating from secondary schools. Between 1990 and 2000, Kigotho (2000) reports that 180,000 of the students who attained the minimum entry qualification failed to gain admission to public universities. The MPET report (1998) notes that all universities have been characterised by serious

shortfalls and inadequacies in areas such as physical facilities, research amenities and professional staff. The low staff morale and motivation evidenced at the secondary school level are also present at universities. Reasons cited by the MPET include the declining power of staff salaries and unsatisfactory conditions at their work-place including overload in most departments and inadequacy of essential provisions.

## 2.5 Special Education in Kenya

### A Historical Background

In Kenya, Special Needs Education (SNE) refers to the education and training programme formally organised for children who are Physically Handicapped (P.H), Mentally Handicapped (M.H), Visually Impaired (V. I) and Hearing Impaired (H.I). The special education programmes in Kenya are offered in special residential and day schools, integrated schools, units within regular schools, and small homes that are constructed near regular schools. Children identified as having behavioural problems are catered for by the Ministry of Home Affairs at reform institutions also known as approved schools. These schools provide therapy and counselling services to the students, depending on their progress, they are allowed entry into regular schools for a specified probation period, (RoK 1999). There are however no schools established for students with speech and language disorders, learning difficulties and the gifted and talented children, (Karugu, et al., 1995). Education of students with disabilities in Kenya was introduced after the First World War by religious organisations such as the Salvation Army (Gamara, 1993). The Salvation Army Centre provided rehabilitation services to soldiers who had been disabled during the war and thus needed vocational training. Geiser (1998), notes that the efforts of religious organisations were complemented by charitable and non-governmental organisations such as the Red Cross Society and the Rotary Clubs. The first school for the blind was started at Thika in 1946 by the Salvation Army. It later grew from a small vocational school of twenty- five students to a four department

educational institution with a nursery, kindergarten and full primary school. A full secondary school for blind students was maintained separately (UNESCO, 1974). According to the UNESCO report, the Catholic Church established its first school for the blind at Igoji, Meru known as St. Lucy's School for the Blind in 1958. In 1971, with the support of the Kenya Society for the Blind, the Catholic Church established another such school at St. Oda in Nyanza Province. The school was opened in February 1971 with an intake of seven students which later rose to twenty two students in September of the same year (UNESCO, 1974). The establishment of the St. Oda School was followed by the establishment of a similar school at Likoni, (Mombasa) by the Salvation Army in 1971. In the category of students with mental disabilities, UNESCO postulates that the first schools were St. Nicholas and Agha Khan Special School in Nairobi, founded in 1948. These two schools were later amalgamated in 1968 and became the Jacaranda School (UNESCO, 1974).

The Jacaranda School worked directly with the Kenya Society of the Mentally Handicapped Children (KSMH), founded in 1969 together with child welfare society. Students enrolled in these schools were taught according to the government syllabus. With the gradual increase of the number of students, more buildings were erected using private funds from charitable organisations. The government also subsidised by providing funds for teachers' salaries, equipment and maintenance. The Kamunge Report, which formulated broad programmes of training and placement of the disabled, stated that a committee on Care and Rehabilitation of the disabled be established by the government to advise on the number and type of disabled people in Kenya. Based on the recommendations by this committee, the government produced the Sessional Paper no. 5 in 1968 on special education providing a framework for establishment of government policy on special education. The Kamunge Report recommended among other things, that special education should provide skills and attitudes aimed at rehabilitation and adjustment to the environment for learners

with special needs, provision of early identification for their correction and rehabilitation and the promotion of integration of the handicapped in formal education and training. The recommendations later followed an increase in integration of learners with special needs in regular schools. According to RoK (2003), there were initially 184 integrated programmes in 1990, however by 1998, they had increased to 655. In the category of the visually handicapped, there were 19 integration programmes sponsored by Sight Savers International (SSI), having a total of 1040 blind children integrated into regular primary and secondary schools. Integration of students having hearing impairments only existed at the secondary school level. With regard to the physically handicapped category, integration has been achieved at all tiers of the education system.

Table 3 below, shows enrolment rates in special schools at primary level.

**Table 3. Enrolment in Special Schools at Primary Level**

| **HANDICAP** | **1990** | **1990** | **1998** | **1998** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Schools** | **Enrol** | **Schools** | **Enrol.** |
| Visually Impaired. | 11 | 1135 | 16 | 2015 |
| Hearing Impaired. | 19 | 2204 | 31 | 2631 |
| Physically Handicapped | 10 | 1075 | 13 | 1730 |
| Mentally Handicapped. | 22 | 1701 | 46 | 2532 |
| Deaf blind. | - | - | 1 | 70 |
| **Total** | **62** | **6115** | **107** | **8978** |

*Source, Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development; 1999*

According to a report by the Ministry of Education in 2003, special education significantly developed following the establishment of a rehabilitation centre in 1971 and a special education curriculum unit at the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) in 1977, as well as the founding of the

Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) in 1986. The institute carries out programmes in diploma, in-service and distance learning and it provides assessment for identification and placement of children with disabilities. It also conducts research and consultancy services in the special education field. The Inpectorate section at the Ministry of Education was charged with the responsibility of overseeing policy issues and the entire management, supervision and financing of special education programmes in Kenya, while the directorate section was made in charge of maintaining standards, implementing the curriculum and the in-servicing of special education teachers among other responsibilities. The two sections work closely with other government departments, particularly the Ministry of Health, Culture and Social Services as well as non-governmental organisations, both local and foreign, to enhance quality of service delivered to persons with disabilities (RoK, 2003). The report of the Ministry of Education reiterates that the implementation and practice of Special Needs Education programmes are guided in the polices pronounced in the Sessional Paper No.6 of 1988, stressing the integration of children with disabilities into regular schools. Article 23.1 of Kenyan Constitution states that children with disabilities have a right to enjoy a full and decent life in conditions that ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate active participation in the community (Oriedo, 2000). Article 23.2 further recognises the right of a disabled child to special care appropriate to their condition. Equally significant was the Kamunge Report of 1988 which stated that the goals of education are essentially the same for every child but different techniques are required to help children with special needs. The report also urged the integration of mildly and moderately impaired children into regular schools as well as the sensitisation of the public about the needs and potentials of children with special needs (RoK, 1999).

Early identification and assessment are recognised in Kenya as the highest contributing factors of rehabilitation for children with special needs. In this connection, the Gachathi Report which

focussed on the identification and assessment of children, suggested several ways through which special education could be improved and expanded. These include the co-ordination of diagnostic activities and public education aimed at encouraging and enabling the public to identify various types of handicapping conditions and ways to seek the appropriate assistance. It also suggested that the public be educated on the causes of physical disabilities in order to facilitate prevention (RoK, 1999). A report by the RoK (1999), states that recommendations concerning special education were followed up in 1984, with the establishment of the Education Assessment and Resource Centres (EARC), a unit in the Ministry of Education. The EARC centre was funded by the Danish government through the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and the Government of Kenya. It co-ordinates assessment centres in 44 districts, assesses and places children in special schools.

### 2.5.1 Reforms in Special Education

The mentioned government polices and practices paved way for progress in the provision of special education services. This was evidenced in the report by the Ministry of Education (RoK) of 1999, which indicates that there had been an increase in the numbers of special education teachers and schools and physical facilities in the country leading to increased access and participation by special school children. Primary school level enrolment in special schools had increased from 6,115 in 1990 to 8,978 in 1998. Similarly, the number of special schools had risen from 62 in 1990 to 107 by 1998.

Despite this increase in enrolment rates, the development and expansion of special education services and provision have not adequately met the expectations stipulated within the Kenya's philosophy of education as expressed in the official documents. It is evidently clear that the country's education system has in the past not provided adequate opportunities for children with

special education needs. What has been realised as far back as 1940's has been through non-governmental organisations. This lack of serious commitment on the part of the government to provide equal education opportunities to special needs children may be attributed to factors including, complete lack of specific sections or clauses within the Education Act Laws of Kenya to ensure the rights of children with special needs to education and absence of well structured, explicit documents, or programme standards for the establishment of educational institutions to cater for special educational needs (Oriedo, 2000).

Availability of legislation and policy documents inevitably triggers off the need to collect reliable data which in turn assist in the planning and provision of appropriate services. To worsen the situation, the earlier recommendations by the education commissions established by the government are yet to be implemented due to lack of accurate statistical data containing numbers, age, gender and type of disability present in the country (RoK, 1999). Planners are therefore forced to rely on school enrolment statistics which only show numbers of children receiving education while those out of school are not taken into account. This has portrayed a lack of commitment on the part of the government to address issues related to people with disabilities.

The RoK report (2003), concedes that the government has faced various challenges in providing free education specifically to students with disabilities. It has not provided schools with the necessary equipment and facilities to enable students with special needs to access education. To meet these challenges and to ensure that children with disabilities equally benefit from the free primary education, the RoK set up a task force in July 2003 to carry out an appraisal exercise on special education to enable it to plan and provide education to the learners. The task force was commissioned to carry out the following exercises;

- establish the number of children with special needs in Kenya,
- identify the gaps and barriers affecting the provision of special education,
- identify institutional needs and support services required for children with special needs, and establish the unit cost of learners with special needs,
- ascertain the effectiveness of various bodies of the Ministry of Education in their
- provision of SNE and recommend necessary reorganisation.

Upon concluding its exercise, the task force recommended among other things that there should be massive training and in-servicing of teachers in SNE, the schools with public utilities be made disability friendly, SNE be included in all the activities of the Ministry of Education and that the Ministry creates awareness and sensitises the public on special needs education. As part of its strategies, the government also established an Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), to take effect between 2003-2007. The aim of the plan will be to identify the governments' priorities for special educatio

### 2.5.1 Constraints Against the Growth of Special Education

Despite the rise in enrolment rates of the learners with special needs especially after the introduction of free primary education, Government of Kenya, (GoK 2003) points out that the total enrolled pupil population is still very small compared to the population of all children with disabilities which is estimated at one million. It further notes that the Educational Assessment Resource Centres (EARS) had identified 100,000 children needing special education by 2003 and even those identified had not been placed in special education programmes.

The EFA (2000) reports an acute shortage of specially trained teachers in all special schools especially at primary school level and acute shortages of technical and support staff, braille transcribers, audiologists, speech therapists, interpreters, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, teachers aides at the primary, secondary and vocational levels. Oriedo (1999), asserts that the needs of children with disabilities cannot be met if most of the teachers do not have at least basic training in special education. Another limiting factor as cited by EFA is that the existing teachers in special schools do not receive guidance from inspectors on a regular basis to ensure quality of service.

The EFA Report also cite inadequate specialised equipment and instructional materials in all schools such as hearing aids for the deaf, braille materials and the white cane for the visually impaired as well as wheel chairs and crutches for the physically handicapped. The RoK (1999), argues that the introduction of the 8-4-4 curriculum disadvantaged most learners with disabilities because it limits their participation in colleges and universities. This situation is caused by high admission requirements and a crowded syllabus that is insensitive to the needs of learners with disabilities. The failure of the system to cater for learners with special needs results in the need to always keep up with changing curriculum needs. The RoK report further shows that hearing impaired children are disadvantaged when required to do Kiswahili exams since they also learn English and sign language. They are, therefore, forced to learn more than two languages which is especially difficult as hearing impairment interferes with language development.

In an effort to address this problem, the government, through the Kenya Institute of Education developed a sign language textbook in 1993, which was later revised in 1998 with contributions from persons with hearing impairments. This served as a step towards addressing the needs of students with disabilities. Students with visual impairment on the other hand, have problems of

manipulating some objects and identification of colours. RoK, (1999) also points out that some practical subjects such as Physical Sciences, Biology, Geography and Home Science have been found to be difficult for the learners with visual impairments. In addition, students with mental disabilities have been found to be incapable of following the regular school curriculum and subsequently, the national examinations as well. A report by the GoK (2003), provides support to this by citing a disability unfriendly curriculum as one of the challenges facing special education. The RoK (1999) states that the education of earners with visual impairments is affected by poor quality braille material and the presence of unqualified personnel charged with printing the braille papers. The said personnel usually lack proficiency in braille and are unable to ensure quality of the produced work. The report indicates that students use outdated and poor quality writing equipment. Also, when new text books are introduced in the school syllabus, Braille textbooks do not match the content in the new books leading to significant disadvantages for visually impaired students. Lack of adequate special schools has led to poor participation of learners with physical disabilities. Other factors limiting their participation include long distances to schools especially in rural areas, poor infrastructure and disability unfriendly environments in the special schools (KSPH, 1999).

Oriedo (2000), on the other hand postulates that factors affecting the provision of special education are; insufficient time provided during national examinations, inadequate institutions providing special education programmes, lack of proper networking between service providers, absence of clear policy guidelines on special education and a lack of legal framework on special education provisions. Also noteworthy is that most special schools are donor funded yet the issue of their sustainability has never been addressed therefore when the donor agencies withdraw their funding most programmes cease functioning. According to RoK (1999), regional disparities have been observed in areas such as the rural and nomadic locations which lack basic facilities in special

education. In these areas, low enrolment of children with disabilities has been further perpetuated by the fact that most special programmes are residential and require fees to be charged in order meet the operational costs. In most cases, parents of children with disabilities in these regions as in most other regions of the country, are too poor to afford any fees at all. This forces the students to drop out of school. The enrolment is further stifled by an imbalance in the distribution of the few institutions for the handicapped in Kenya. As evidenced by the MoE annual report of 1994, special education schools are unevenly distributed with the Central Province having 17, Nairobi Province 10 while the North Eastern Province has only two schools. Gender imbalance is also apparent in special education such that girls constitute only 40% of the total enrolment. The special education sector also faces management problems at national, provincial and school levels, which result from centralised bureaucratic structures (RoK, 2001). This situation has led to ineffectiveness in implementing recommendations made by the various stakeholders. Bota (2002), states that the networking among special education teachers at both local and national levels in Kenya is irregular or in some cases non-existent. Bota, also cites the lack of proper co-ordination among different ministries as well as between the government and non-governmental organisations in the country. More critical is the fact that the sector lacks trained personnel in special education as well as sustainable management information system.

## 2.6 TEACHER TRAINING IN KENYA

### A Historical Background

At the time that Kenya gained her independence, Lugumba (1973) notes that there were no less that 36 teacher training colleges with many of them small, understaffed and isolated and unable to serve the needs of the independent nation effectively. A process of amalgamation later reduced the number to 24 larger and more effectively operated teacher education colleges. This number was further cut down to 17 by the year 1964. Students who entered teacher training colleges after

standard eight education had a course lasting for two years and they were classified in groups, grade II or T3 and T4 (Lugumba, 1973). At the secondary level, those who passed the Kenya African Secondary School Examination underwent a two- year training period and proceeded to be Grade I assistant teachers, while the Cambridge School Certificate holders also trained for two years and were classified as Kenya Teachers Grade I. The Thogoto Rural Training Centre had a one-year course for grade II teachers, teaching agriculture for the intermediate schools. In 1953, a similar arrangement was made for African teachers at the Government African school, Embu, and later in 1956, the course was transferred to Kagumo Training College. During this period, all the

Kenya Teachers Grade I were trained at Kagumo and Siriba teacher training colleges. The grading system of teachers later changed to P1 level for those who possessed East African School Certificate, P2 for those with at least two years secondary education and P3 for those with certificate primary education. In 1972, the Kenyatta College became a university college and enrolled 200 undergraduate teachers while at the University of Nairobi, a department of education was established in 1966 to offer graduate studies in education for one to attain a teaching career. Teachers trained at the Kenyatta College and Kenya Science College were referred to as S1, (Lugumba 1973).

### 2.6.1 Teacher Training in Special Education

According to Lugumba (1973), teacher training of special education teachers first received the attention of the government soon after Kenya attained independence when the Kamunge Report of 1988 recommended that teachers trained in special education be assigned to work in special education programmes. The report further stressed that special schools be provided with teacher-aides, technicians and other specialised staff to cater for specific needs of the handicapped children and that district and medical staff be assigned to work in schools with handicapped children on a

part-time basis. The training of teachers in the area of the hearing impaired was formally established at Kenyatta College in 1969, by Sir Frank Williams who was seconded by the British Commonwealth Society for the Deaf. He was later instrumental in transferring the programme to Siriba Teachers College in 1971, so that trainees could earn a higher specialist certificate known as S1, thus enabling them to be ranked together with secondary school teachers (Ndurumo, 1993). The programme was later relocated to Kamwenja Teacher's College in Nyeri in 1977, and finally to the Kenya Institute of Special Education in 1987.

A training programme for teachers of the mentally handicapped children was initially established at Jacaranda Special School in 1966, however, the programme was later moved to Highridge Teachers College in 1969, and in may 1986, it was moved to the Kenya Institute of Special Education (Ndurumo, 1993). At the special education institute, the curriculum included physically handicapped, mentally handicapped, visually impaired, hearing impaired and learning disabilities as well as child psychology and pre-school education. As observed by Ndurumo, no programme for training teachers in the category of physically handicapped children existed in Kenya until 1986, when the diploma course was established at the Kenya Institute of Special Education.

The establishment of this centralised institute was a developmental milestone for Kenya because it made the training of various special education teachers possible in one institution. Previously, the training was offered in different colleges, an arrangement that economically prevented the government from providing the necessary manpower, equipment, materials and related recourses for effective training.

### 2.6.2 Reforms in Teacher Training

The government has constantly been concerned about the teaching profession. The inspectorate personnel from the government support teachers through supervisory visits and provide professional services where necessary (RoK, 1996). They also organise refresher courses, especially when new programmes are being introduced. The Teacher Advisory Centres (TACs), which are manned by experienced teachers, also serve as valuable resource centres where teachers meet to update themselves on teaching techniques to prepare teaching materials (RoK, 1996). Training for pre-school level of teachers is provided at the District Centres for Early Childhood Education (DICECE). There are two main courses offered for this type of training namely, a two-year in-service course offered to teachers, at the end of which they obtain pre-school teachers

certificate issued by the Ministry of Education. The minimum requirement for this course is KCPE. However; a report by the MoE in 1994, indicates that an increasing number of secondary school-leavers are currently admitted into these programmes. Other options include a short in-service courses lasting about five months for which the trainees obtain certificate of attendance or much shorter course, often on weekends aimed at proficiency development in various areas such as material development. A nine-month induction course for training of trainers is also conducted by the National Centre for Early Childhood (NACECE). The participants are often at the level of assistant lectures, either graduates or approved teachers, employed by the Teachers Service Commission. Their work involves training pre-school teachers and offering them professional guidance in the schools. The RoK (1994) Report notes that a marked improvement in the primary training sector was realised in 1990, with the number of public colleges increasing from 15 to 21. By 1998, 96% of the entire teaching force at the primary level had been trained. Secondary teachers received training at university level through a degree programme. In general, there were 14 private universities with an output of 6,000 students after three to four years, taking various courses

including teaching. In addition to university level teacher training, there were four diploma colleges. With regard to special education, Kenya Institute of Special Education, (KISE), was the only college offering training for teachers at diploma level until 1995; with an output of 120 diploma teachers biannually. However, demands on trained special education personnel led to an increase in student enrolment rates and a subsequent annual output of diploma teachers. Apart from the diploma programmes, degree courses in special education were later introduced at Kenyatta and Maseno universities respectively (RoK, 2003). Table 4 below, illustrates the institutions offering teacher education and training in Early Childhood Education (ECD), Primary and secondary schools.

**Table 4.**

**Institutions offering teacher education and training in ECD, primary and secondary schools**

| Level | Number of training Institutions | output/year |
|---|---|---|
| ECD | 31 District centers for early childhood | 4,000-5,000 |
| | 11 Private Early Childhood Institutions | |
| Primary | 21 public Teacher Training Colleges | 8,000-10,000 |
| | 8 private TTCs | |
| Secondary | 4 public Diploma Colleges | 600-1,000 |
| | 6 Public Universities | 4,000-5000 |
| | 14 Private Universities | |

*source; Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Statistics Section 1999-2000*

### 2.6.3 Some Challenges Facing Teacher Training

Despite the above mentioned expansion and reforms in the training of teachers, several problems observed by MPET (1998) include poor teacher motivation, also, the rise in teacher/student ratios over the years has affected the quality of classroom instruction. Akala (2002), argues that while

the norm of the teacher/pupil ratio is 1:50, disparities in the norm and the actual situation led the government to take measures to correct the situation by stopping the training of primary-school teachers in public teacher colleges. Given this scenario, Nzomo (2001) argues that the major challenge facing the government involves balancing the staff ratios of teachers by re-deploying teachers from overstaffed regions to the understaffed ones. Reacting to the problem of teacher/student ratios the government reviewed the policy of teacher training making it demand driven as opposed to the previous practise of guaranteed employment. Therefore, commencing 1999, the government began recruiting teacher trainees from only those regions and subjects where there was need for teachers. Akala, however, argues that strict control of teacher-recruitment has led to deteriorating standards in education that by 2001, students' performance especially in languages and science subjects reached the lowest ebb. Akala also points out that, TSC records indicate teacher shortages in many districts in Kenya including Turkana, Lodwar, Transmara and the entire North Eastern Province. Teacher shortages in special education has also been evidenced especially those for students with visual disabilities, (Bota, 2002).

While the government acknowledges the shortage of teachers in special subject areas including special education (GoK 2003), the World Bank policies emphasising the reduction of expenditure on teachers' salaries and allowances have also significantly contributed to teacher shortages. To aggravate the situation further, Akala argues that teachers in Kenya are poorly paid for the vital and more expensive services they provide in schools, while records at the TSC (2001), indicate that teachers' salaries in Kenya range from Kenya shillings 5,000 to 35,000 (approximately USD 63.3 to USD. 443.0), Akala asserts that this is far below the minimum wage for unskilled labour in most developed countries. In support of this view, Shiundu and Omulanda (1992) point out that there is need to remunerate teachers in such a way as to retain them in the teaching profession.

They observe that the young and better trained teachers opt for better paying jobs elsewhere hence their best efforts cannot be realised in the education sector. Another issue affecting teachers is the centralisation of the management activities of the TSC, high level of corruption and bureaucratic delays in teacher recruitment, employment and re-sizing. In most schools Akala (2002) observes that the scheme of service for teachers is outdated and inconsistent with policies suggested by the World Bank on decentralisation. With regard to training of special education teachers, their output does not match their demand. This scenario has been worsened by high turn-over rates occurring as a result of most teachers opting for further studies, better alternative employment and natural attrition.

The RoK (1999), observes that the actual costs including other expenses exceed KES 350,000. Training teachers in special education is not only expensive but takes one long to qualify. Currently, trainees must have C+ in the KCSE examinations and PI qualification including at least five years' teaching experience. Those pursuing a Bachelor's degree in special education must have the foregoing qualifications in order to do a four-year course. The RoK Report, observes that the duration taken to complete a special education course up to BED level could enable a student to be awarded a PhD degree in developed counties.

# CHAPTER THREE

# LITERATURE REVIEW ON JOB MOTIVATION

## 3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, literature is reviewed under four sub-headings, viz: the theoretical framework upon which the study was based, related literature on overseas studies, Africa and Kenya

## 3.1 Theoretical Framework

In trying to maximize the accuracy of the explanation of work motivation, there was a need to thoroughly and critically select the most appropriate theories. There are is a broad spectrum of theories that explain work motivation in organizational settings, however, by taking the incompatibilities between theories into account as well as the inappropriateness in the final measurements; there was need for careful selection. The researcher therefore had to identify a selection criteria that would best serve the purpose of the current study. This included the following factors;

1 Coherent previous research support from empirical validity explaining work motivation.

2. Providing the possibility of empirical testing given the allotted time and resource for the testing.

3. Covering a broad explanation of work motivation without being redundant to the other theories at hand.

### 3.1.1 Motivation Theories

Theories of motivation may be categorized into three groups, namely content, process and reinforcement theories. The content approach to motivation is concerned with the needs and aspirations of individuals and the value they place on these factors. An assumption is made that workers will use their work situations as a basis for achieving their objectives. Work then becomes motive-driven. Content theories assume that there is a level of ordering values that workers consider important e.g. money, car, safety, friends, and that some are given a higher priority than others. Theorists claim that the basic personal needs have psychological and socio-economic bases. Because of the drive to satisfy these needs, work motivation becomes possible.

Process theories of motivation are concerned not only with the things which motivate workers, but also the ways in which individuals might be motivated, they include the Hierarchy of Needs Theory and the Expectancy Theory. Much consideration is given to the question of how motivation might be generated, directed and sustained. Process theories acknowledge that individual expectation of subsequent outcome determine their behaviour. They propose, therefore, that managers and administrators should create conditions that promote motivation and eliminate those under which it might cease to exist. Reinforcement theories such as behaviour modification theory do not take account of the process, needs or factors of motivation but are based on the law of effect. This suggests that behavior might be repeated if it results in rewarding consequences and will be avoided if the consequences are unpleasant.

### 3.1.2 Human Needs Theories

This set of theories is concerned with individuals' goals, what these are, their level of importance to individual workers and why they are important to them. The theories include the Hierarchy of Needs Theory as developed by Maslow (1954), the Two-Factor Theory as developed by Herzberg

(1959), the Model of Motivation as developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Vrooms Expectancy Theory (1964). These emphasize an understanding of the factors that contribute to these needs and what happens when they are satisfied.

### 3.1.3 Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow (1954) based his theoretical framework on the assumption that motivation comes from within the individual and cannot be imposed on him. He did not agree with the common belief at the time, that motivation is something that someone does for someone else. He proposes that though motivation is often directed toward external goals, it is always an internal process. Maslow views human kind as wanting beings who are continually striving to find ways to satisfy their needs. A man or woman is motivated to reach a particular goal because he or she has an internally generated need to reach it. Needs are not static and once a need has been satisfied, it can no longer serve as a motivator of behaviour. Other needs then come into play and behavior is directed towards their satisfaction. Maslow (1954), identified five basic sets of needs, which he arranged in a hierarchy. The needs are ranked in terms of the order in which they manifest themselves. They ascend from the most basic survival level to that of self-actualization. The five sets of needs in the order in which they emerge are physiological needs, safety needs, the need for belonging and love, the need for esteem and the need for self-actualization. The physiology and safety needs are both centred on the individual, once they are satisfied, the next social needs emerge namely, the need for belonging and love. At this stage, the individual is motivated towards securing his or her place in a particular group and the development of close emotional relationships with others including the giving and receiving of love. Maslow (1954) called the next merging set of needs, the esteem needs. These not only include the need for self-respect and a high evaluation of oneself, but also for the respect or esteem of others and self-actualization. Maslow (1954) classified these needs into two subsets, first the need for independence, freedom and a personal

sense of confidence in one's competence in dealing with the world. Second, there is the need to have this competence recognized and appreciated by others. When all the needs are satisfied, the final one to emerge is the need for self-actualization. Maslow further asserts that, self actualization is not so much a state of being, like a hunger to be satisfied by periodic gratification, but is rather the process of being, in which one strives to become all that one is capable of becoming. The first four sets of needs are termed as deficit because they emerge as a result of lack of food or safety, but a self-actualizing person is freed from deficit needs thus engages in the process of realizing his capabilities of experimenting with the concept of self. It can be argued that there is sufficient homogeneity within various groups of employees to make for a relative similarity of needs hierarchy within each group. Even so, there is a chance that prepotency will occur in the group therefore personnel administration will have to keep up with them, (Wren and Voigh, 1984). Therefore, the personnel programmes must be geared to be sensitive to the changes that are continuously taking place in the needs of the employees. Wren and Voigh refer to a series of researches to determine the extent to which Maslow's classification is correct. What has been determined from their review of the topic is, that there is no support for the idea that one need rises to take the place of another need, or set of needs that has already been satisfied. They have however supported the idea of overlapping needs rather than distinct and separate ones. The researchers also add another dimension to the critics of Maslow's (1954) theory, namely culture, whereby individuals' needs vary according to their given culture. If one considers the fact that in society a system of values prevail and that in any given society, there will be a different set of values, then one will tend to reject the idea that there is one standard set of needs at each level (Wren and Voigh, 1984).

The Hierarchy of Needs Theory; however, has been used by researchers internationally to investigate a wide variety of disciplines. Maslow's (1970) theory on human motivation has also

been applied to work situations. The current study utilizes the Hierarchy of Needs Theory because it has provided useful information for motivation to work. As already mentioned, every person strives for the fulfillment of certain needs. Therefore an individual's actual state in certain overall needs classification determines his or her behaviour at work (Wiley, 1997). In other words, an employee's position on the ladder of hierarchy of needs influences his or her work performance. Individuals' needs have to be identified in order to motivate people's work behaviour. The knowledge of unfulfilled employees' needs may enable organizations to influence their work performance.

### 3.1.4 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959), offers an approach to an understanding of the motivation to work. According to him, man has two kinds of needs, his need as an animal to avoid pain, and his need as a rational animal to grow psychologically. According to his theory, a person's basic needs can be represented as two parallel lines pointing in the opposite directions. One line pointing toward man's nature concerned with the avoidance of pain arising from his or her environment, while the other points toward the human concern of dealing with possibilities of psychological growth and self-fulfillment (Rao, 1972).

Herzberg and his associates note an important distinction between two kinds of factors affecting these needs namely, extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors cluster around organization policy and administration, supervision, salary, personal job security and working conditions, among others, also known as dissatisfiers. This theory shows the factors involved in producing job satisfaction in employees, Herzberg et al., (1959) suggest that emphasis must be placed on achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, growth and advancement. According to Herzberg, people find these characteristics intrinsically rewarding. In the Two-Factor Theory, the

presence of certain factors would serve to increase the individuals' job satisfaction but the absence of those factors would not necessarily promote job dissatisfaction. The theory shows that individuals operate from a neutral point, possessing neither negative attitudes nor positive attitudes towards their jobs. The gratification of certain factors called motivators lead only to minimal dissatisfaction, for example, when hygiene factors are not gratified, negative attitudes are created producing job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's (1978) theory has been subjected to numerous tests by other behavioural scientists using people from a wide variety of occupations as subjects. These investigators including Katz (1977) and Cleave (1993), have produced an impressive verification of the theory.

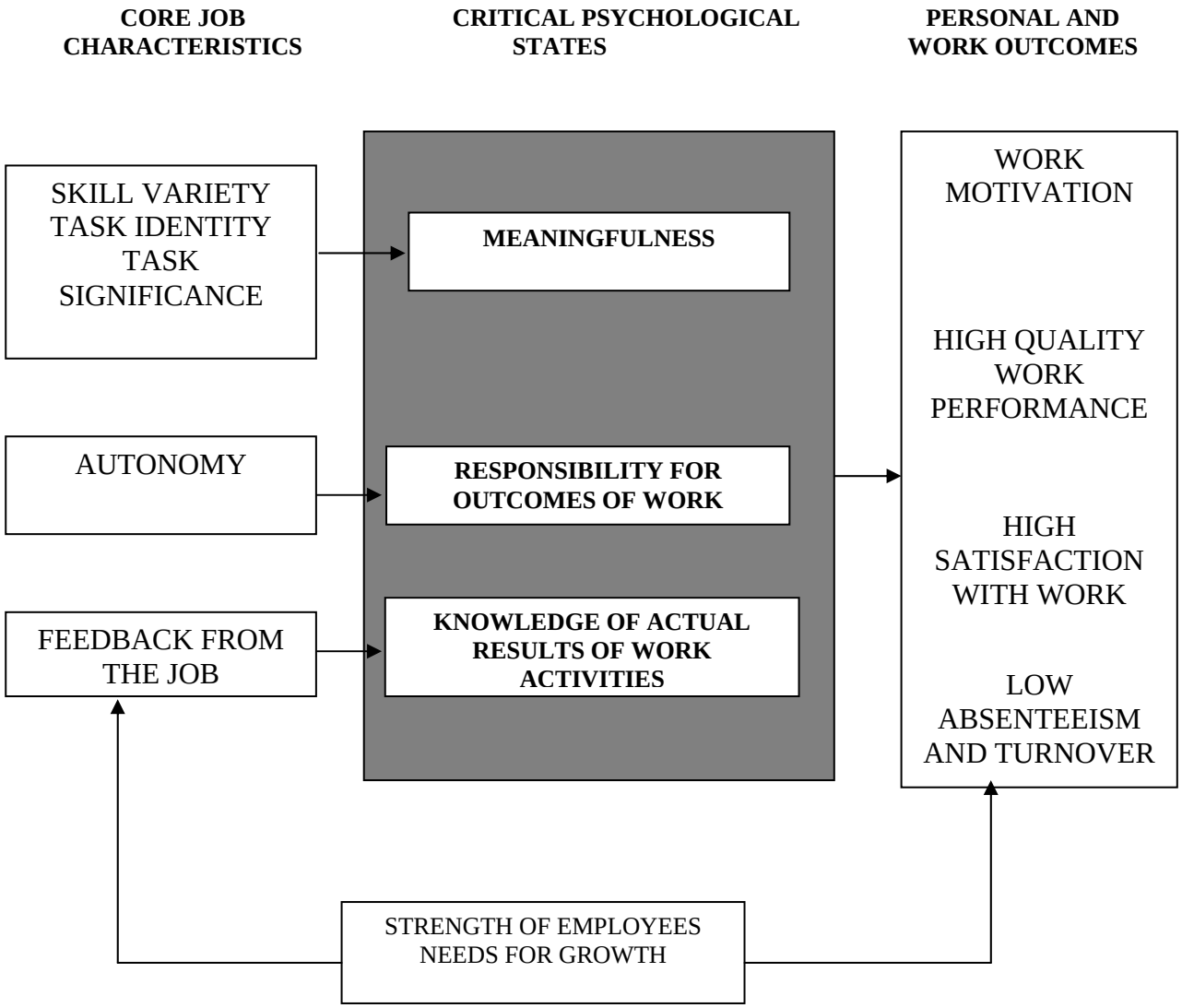
It has been contended by some critics that the motivators would only appeal to engineers and accountants, who were the original people studied and other professionals, not people in low-skill or relatively low paying occupations. This theory has been tested in Kenya by several researchers in Africa including Moore (1978) and in Kenya by Karugu (1980) and Gwahalla (1991) among others and was found to be verifiable as a theory of motivation. Later studies show that what motivates a manager also motivates a man or woman on the production line. The theory has therefore been verified through repeated interview and questionnaire studies but most importantly through its application to actual work situations. Reflecting on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, it can be seen that the hygiene factors of Herzberg's theory corresponds to the deficit needs that Maslow identified. Thus, it is through the wages and benefits that a person is able to provide for the satisfaction of his physiological and safety needs. The latter is provided by adequate working conditions through proper management of human relations. Maslow's (1954) theory, also holds that if any of these needs are unmet at any time, it will reassert its potency at the expense of the higher needs. The Motivation- Hygiene and the Needs Hierarchy Theories thus confirm each other with respect to what Maslow termed as the need for self–actualization, and which Herzberg (1959) called

the motivators. Maslow regarded the need for self-actualization as the only real growth need and it is evident from Herzberg's research that one can grow at work only when the motivators are present. The relevance of Herzberg's (1959) theory for the present study is that it emphasizes the fact that for individuals to be motivated with their work, certain job factors must be in place. These factors will therefore help the researcher to assess the job motivation of special education teachers, as well as their attitude toward their jobs, depending on the presence or absence of these factors. It will be of interest to the researcher to know if the motivators according to Herzberg are equally cited by the special education teachers as affecting their motivation.

### 3.1.5 Model of Motivation by Hackman and Oldham

The motivation theories mentioned before contribute to a certain extent to the Job Characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) which deals with the structure of work in order to achieve a high internal motivation, job satisfaction and work effectiveness.

**Figure 1: Job Characteristics Model adapted from J. R Hackman and R.G Oldham (1975); Motivation through the design of work**




The model in Figure 1 above illustrates that for a job to lead to the desired outcomes, it must possess certain "core job dimensions". These job dimensions include the following,

Skill variety: the degree to which the job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involves the use of the individual's skills and talents.

Task identity: The degree to which the job requires the completion of an identifiable piece of work, doing a job from beginning to the end with visible outcomes.

Task significance: the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people in the immediate organization or in the external environment

Autonomy: the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

Feedback: the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. If these core dimensions are present in a job, they are expected to create three critical psychological states that are necessary for motivation and satisfaction.

**Internal Motivation**

The model illustrates that the occurrence of internal motivation is caused by five basic conditions. These conditions not only influence the employee's motivation to work but also his or her satisfaction on the job. First, the individual must feel responsible and accountable for the results of his or her work. In other words, if he or she thinks that their efforts contribute only to a minor extent to the quality of their work outcome, the individual will not generate any feelings such as pride or sadness toward the quality of the work done. Second, the person must experience the work as meaningful, if the individual does not perceive his work as generally important, valuable or worthwhile, he or she will not develop any internal motivation. Even when a person feels responsible for the work done and receives information about his or her performance but still lacks the feeling of not doing a meaningful job, the internal motivation is unlikely to develop. All these factors, knowledge of results, experienced responsibility and experienced meaningfulness are necessary to develop and sustain a strong internal work motivation. Moreover, the stronger these factors are present, the higher the internal motivation will be (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

**Job Dimensions**

According to Hackman and Oldham (1975), the conditions for internal motivation are facilitated by five job characteristics. Three of these characteristics that contribute to the experienced meaningfulness of the work are; skill variety, task identity and task significance. First, skill variety is the extent to which a job requires different activities in order to perform the work. These activities entail the use of various skill abilities. Hackman and Oldham point out that a challenge and stretch of the employee's abilities and skills by his or her tasks will lead the employee perceiving the work as meaningful. In addition, the more the skills can be used, the more meaningful the task appears to be. Second, task identity refers to the degree to which a job involves completing a whole unit of work from beginning to the end with a visible outcome. Third, task significance is the degree to which the job has a meaningful impact on other people’s lives and well being, either within the organization out of it. If all the three characteristics are present in a job, the employee is more likely to perceive his or her job as meaningful. A job has a high motivating potential according to Hackman and Oldham (1980), if at least one of these three factors that foster meaningfulness in a job is provided to a high extent. The degree of both autonomy and feedback on the work done must be high as well.

**Influence of Personal Attributes**

Since job characteristics only set the stage for internal motivation, Hackman and Oldham (1975) state that the role of difference among people has to be considered as well. Several attributes of people influence their response to jobs with high motivating potential. They include, first of all, knowledge of skill. If a job is low in motivating potential, a person's feeling will not be greatly affected by how well he or she performs. If a job is high in motivating potential, then a person who has sufficient knowledge and skill to perform the job well receives satisfaction from doing well. However, a person who has insufficient knowledge and skill will receive negative feeling for doing

poorly. The second attribute is strong growth needs whereby the individual possessing such needs as personal accomplishment will experience high internal motivation for performing complex and challenging work. They react in positive ways to opportunities provided by enriched work. On the other hand, people with low growth needs will not strive to exploit opportunities for personal growth that are provided by such jobs. Furthermore, it seems they do not recognize that such opportunities exist.

**Work Context**

Finally, the model by Hackman and Oldham (1975) shows that satisfaction with the work context influences a person's response to work. The degree of satisfaction with the work context may be of importance to an individual in order to use opportunities for personal accomplishment provided by the job. A person satisfied with salary, job security, co-workers and supervision would react more positively to challenges and the enrichment of his or her work compared to the person who is dissatisfied with their work context. The present study utilizes attributes contained in this model including job relevance, knowledge, skill and level of satisfaction combined with aspects of the work context to analyze the responses of the special teachers to a job with motivating potential. Combination of these factors has more significant impact on the responses than just a single factor. A person with insufficient knowledge and skill to perform the job well, low needs for personal growth at work and a high degree of dissatisfaction with the work context would not have a high motivating potential score, negative personal outcomes will be expected. An individual with the knowledge and skill to perform complex and challenging work, a need for personal growth and satisfaction with the work context would experience a high personal satisfaction and work motivation in his or her tasks.

### 3.1.5 Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Vroom (1964) offers an expectancy approach in understanding motivation. According to his theory, an individual's selection depends on the probability that it will lead to the intended goal. The theory therefore asserts that people in an organization may not place the same value on factors such as promotion, pay, security and working conditions. They will always tend to rank them differently. The expectancy theory as regarded as Steiner and Farr (1986) shows that career choice is affected by the comparison of the present and other careers with regard to the perception of expected outcomes and rewards. Another career will be highly valued by the individual if it is perceived to result in more favourable work outcomes. If the individual believes that there is a good possibility of moving into that other career, he or she may choose to change careers, which may eventually lead to mass exodus of such individuals with similar perception.

Vrooms' expectancy theory shows that a worker may decide to change his or her career by comparing their present career with other careers available in the field. Vroom argues that there exist two different expectancies that an individual will strive for. The first expectancy is that a given performance will lead to the desired outcome, while the second is that the effort exerted will lead to the desired performance (Sobocki and Bartle, 2002). These two expectancies interact with one another and with the attractiveness of outcomes in order to determine the overall level of motivation (Vroom, 1964).

This theory offers the study crucial information about the expectations of the subjects used in the current research. By gathering teachers views on whether their career choice is meeting their expectations or not and by stating what their actual expectation are, the researcher will gather useful information that will be used when strategizing to improve their work environment. Consequently, this could lead to the restructuring of the education organization by focusing on the needs and

expectations of the teachers in order to maximize their productivity as well as attract and retain highly qualified personnel, while at the same time, curb their exit from the profession.

### 3.1.7 Summary of Theoretical Framework

Maslow (1954) identifies five basic needs, which all the individuals uphold. These needs are arranged in order of importance, with the physiological needs at the base and the self-actualization needs at the top. Moreover, he argues that the lower needs have to be satisfied first before the higher level needs occur (Maslow, 1954). This Hierarchy of Needs Theory, is often applied to work situations where it provides a useful indication of employees' various needs and motivations that may be applied to individuals at different levels. It has influenced management approaches and the design of organizations. It has also inspired studies and research in the field of individual motivation.

According to Gee and Bruke (2001), Herzberg's (1954) model represents a further development of Maslow’s thoughts regarding the recognition of higher needs of employees consisting of the two types of factors namely, hygiene factors and motivators. As already mentioned, the former set of factors which, are not directly related to the work itself, but to the work context, may reduce the extent of dissatisfaction experienced by employees but do not necessarily lead to satisfaction with work. The latter type of factors are directly related to the task itself and the extent to which it leads to satisfaction. The separation of satisfying factors and dissatisfying factors lead to the identification of the employees higher needs. Herzberg attributes the importance of the employees' work-lives alongside the work itself, as a source of satisfaction, Mullins (1999), Tejens and Myers (1998). According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), Herzberg's theory offers a clear and direct mindset about the motivation of the employees, furthermore with the help of this theory, companies will focus on designing jobs in accordance with issues central to the motivation and

satisfaction of their employees. Hackman and Oldham (1980), point out that their study focuses on the jobs that are carried out independently, by employees who operate more or less alone. The objective characteristics of the job, represent the central point of their research. They are of the opinion that restructuring jobs can often solve problems that have their roots in the unsatisfactory relationship between employees and their work. Hackman and Oldham consider the job itself, as well as the work context in their model. Similarly, the integration of features that generate the condition for high work motivation, satisfaction and performance is a fundamental concept of the model. It also assumes that individuals react in different ways to the same job, thus the design of work requires the consideration of personal as well as job characteristics. The job characteristics represent a basis for determining changes required in the job, which enhance the motivation of the employees.

## 3.2 Review of Western Studies on Work Motivation

A great number of definitions of motivation are presented by literature, e.g. Vignali (1997), points out that motivation is a process that triggers individuals to act as they do. Anouli (2000), sees motivation as a drive within an individual necessary to direct that person's actions and behavior toward the achievement of certain goals and, according to Luthan (1995) and Mullins (1999), on the fulfillment of certain needs and expectations. Moreover, Westerman and Danogue (1989) refer to motivation as a set of processes that energize a person’s behaviour and direct him or her towards attaining some goal, or put more simply, getting people to do willingly and well those things that need to be done. Generally, motivation deals with the forces that initiate, direct and sustain behaviour towards the attainment of certain goals (Bent et al., 1999). Popularly, in terms of the organizational aspect, motivation focuses on the individual’s willingness to put efforts into his or her work, and on the amount of effort made in order to obtain incentives or a special type of incentives (Molander, 1996). According to Mullins (1999), the motivational process represents a

very general model of human behaviour. This model assumes that an individual holds a number of needs, desires and expectations in varying strengths. Based on these needs and expectations, people act or behave in a certain way that they believe will lead to certain goals. As postulated by Steers and Porter (1991), the individual will be provided with feedback about the impact of his or her behaviour. The feedback, in turn, may induce the individual to alter his or her present behaviour, or may reassure them that their current way of acting and may strengthen their need to pursue this course of action. Mak and Sockel (2001) define intrinsic motivation as the desire of an individual to performs his or her work well, in order to receive the satisfaction of intrinsic needs. In other words an individual will performs a task, in order to achieve certain types of internal experiences that he or she regards as rewarding (Deci, 1975).

**Studies on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation is related to psychological rewards such as recognition of a task completed (Mullins, 1999). External rewards such as food, money, praise etc, are not the main reason a person engages in an activity (Deci, 1975). Intrinsic motives can be satisfied by the work itself. In other words, the task itself is the main source of motivation since it provides interests, stimulation, challenges and opportunities for personal growth and achievement to the individual (Molander, 1996). Deci (1975), refers to intrinsically motivated behaviour that which is determined by the individual's need for feeling competent and self-determined. Accordingly, a person will seek out challenges that allow him or her to behave in ways that provides him or her with a sense of competence and self-determination.

Extrinsic motivation on the other hand, refers to tangible rewards such as pay, fringe benefits, work environment, work conditions and job security (Mullins, 1999). Extrinsic motives cannot be satisfied by the work itself. This implies that pleasure comes from something the task leads to, such

as money. According to Jung (1997), the effect of work, as well as its contributing factors is also of importance for the need satisfaction. Therefore, work is also seen as a means to pursue other motives.

**Motivational Bases of Work**

Vroom (1964), argues that there are two types of conditions that will affect the likelihood that people will work; one is economic in nature while the other is motivational. For people to work, there must be a demand by members of the society for goods and services and a demand by the employer for people to produce these goods and perform these services. On the other hand, the motivational reason is that people must be willing to work. Further, Vroom (1964) predicts that given the opportunity, a person will choose to work when the outcomes which he expects to get from doing the work are more positive than those he expects to attain from not working. In view of the difficulty in formulating a meaningful list of motives, which are common to all persons, the motivational implications of the following properties of work roles will be discussed below.

**Wages**

One indisputable source of the desire for people to work is the money they are paid for working (Hollander, 1999). According to Vroom (1964), few people would dispute the importance of anticipated economic consequences in the guidance of human conduct. He further asserts that it would be incorrect to link the importance of money in any society simply to the satisfaction of biological needs. The goods and services that are purchased with money go beyond ensuring survival; they serve among other things as an indicator of social status, Hollander (1999). Originally restricted to wages, the economic outcomes derived from the occupancy of work roles now include a wide range of fringe benefits including retirement programmes, life and health insurance plans and educational programs etc. Gupta (1996), states that for a large majority of industrial workers, a

job is their only source of income. Other things being equal, the worker is likely to prefer a job that offers him a higher income. Vroom (1964) and Mobley (1979), reveal that money is also a source of status and prestige in the society. Nearly all occupational groups consider either the amount of pay or employment security to be relatively important (Smith et al., 1993). Recent research by Ingham (2000), suggests that individuals who believe they are inequitably paid are often dissatisfied with their jobs. The root of the desire for adequate pay is the desire of a person to satisfy his physical needs (food, shelter, clothing), though it can also entail much more than this. Money also serves as a symbol of achievement (Maclelland 1991), as a source of recognition and a means of obtaining other values such as leisure. To one, it is a status symbol yet to another, it allows greater freedom of action in all areas of life. The basis of the desire for equitable pay is the desire for justice or fairness. Other factors besides money and security have however been found to contribute to work motivation such as relationship with colleagues.

**Peer Relations**

Virtually, all work roles require social interaction with other people. A salesman interacts with his customers, a doctor with his patients, a supervisor with his subordinates and a teacher with his colleagues and students. It has frequently been suggested that the social outcomes provided by the work may constitute an important factor in the decision to work (Miller, 1981). Miller further argues that the motives of working cannot be assigned only to economic needs, for people may continue to work even though they have no need for material goods. Even when their security and that of their children is assured, they continue to labour. Obviously, this is due to the fact that the reward they get from work is social, such as respect and admiration from their peers. For many people, work activity provides fellowship and social life. The tendency to receive satisfaction from social relationships has long been recognized as a human attribute, (Arkinson 1978). The importance of socially derived satisfaction in the motivation to work has been suggested in the

study of Morse and Weiss (1978), who found that 31 percent of the respondents interviewed in their study would go on working even though it was not necessary economically; their reason being the relationship with the people with whom they worked.

**Social Status**

A person's occupation greatly influences the way in which other people respond to them outside the work situation. Vroom (1964), argues that members of a high-status occupation for example, doctors are accorded respect and have greater freedom of choosing leisure activities than those of lower-status occupations. The significance of economic determinants of status is also indicated by Warner et al., (1979). His study shows a correlation of .91 between the individual status and the status of the occupation. To some people, working may be perceived as instrumental to social acceptance and respect, whereas, not working may be anticipated to result into social rejection and disapproval. Vroom (1964), states however that the effect of employment on social status depends on the norm of the culture or subculture in which the person is a member. Conceivably, there are some segments of the population in which not working has no detrimental effect on a person's status, or may even serve to enhance it.

**Supervision**

It is frequently suggested the consideration by a supervisor for the needs or feelings of his subordinates has positive effects on their motivation to perform their jobs effectively. The more "considerate", "supportive" or "employee-oriented" a supervisor is, the greater the extent to which his subordinates will strive to do their jobs well. Thus Davis (1992) concludes that an employee-oriented supervisor will tend to get better productivity, motivation and work satisfaction. He asserts that a supervisor who obtains the highest productivity is supportive, friendly and helpful, rather than being hostile and endeavors to treat people in a sensitive and considerate way.

Evidence of a positive relationship between the amount of consideration shown by supervisors for their subordinates and productivity was obtained in the field study carried out by Katz et al., (1977), in a life insurance company. The results indicated that there was a substantial difference depending the amount of consideration those low and high productivity supervisors showed their subordinates. The highly productive supervisors were typically characterized as employee-centered, as they tended to describe human relations aspect of their jobs as most important to them. On the other hand, those in charge of low productivity work groups were typically characterized as production-centred, for they tended to consider their subordinates primarily as people to get their work done. Similar results have been obtained in more recent studies, Likert (1999), reports a correlation of .64 between supervisors' attitude toward workers and the productivity of geographically separated work units in a large package delivery organization. However, there are some inconsistencies in the findings from study to study that may reflect the fact that different situations require different supervisory methods.

**Influence in Decision-Making**

Contemporary writers on human relations in industry have always asserted that methods permitting subordinates to influence decisions that have effects on them result in more effective performance than methods that deny them to influence. Participation in decision making by a subordinate is assumed to result not only in greater job satisfaction but also higher productivity. Since these observations were made, a number of investigations of the effect of democratic leadership methods in different countries have been carried out. French et al., (1992), have attempted to replicate some of these findings concerning group decision- making. Misumi (1996) has conducted a series of experiments on the effects of democratic leadership and group decision-making on productivity in Japan. While identical experiments are not always possible in different cultures, none of these investigators found much evidence for cultural differences. When the entire pattern of results is

considered, there is a substantial basis for the belief that participation in decision-making increases productivity. The study by Misumi shows a correlational difference indicating that higher level of influence by workers in making decisions that they are to carry out results in higher productivity than lower levels of influence. However, results by Lewin et al., (1999) suggest that under some conditions, higher productivity may be achieved by the use of more autocratic methods.

**Job Content**

Although it has long been recognized that the content of a job or task to which a worker is assigned, has considerable bearing on the strength of his motivation to perform it effectively, research has given little attention to the motivational consequences of the task variables. Work variables have been found to be related to work interest and motivation and include the opportunity to use one's skills and abilities, the opportunity for new learning, the amount of work and control over work methods, Locke (1973), Alderfer (1986), Cooper (1994). While each of the above factors is conceptually distinguishable from each other, there is one element that they have in common, the element of mental challenge. New learning, creativity, autonomy, coping with difficulties and being responsible for decisions regarding the organization of the work, all involving the use of one's conceptual faculties. Further, a person's skills and abilities always includes his mental skills, directly or by implication. In the absence of an adequate mental challenge or in the presence of a work task that is accomplished with no effort, skill or thought required, one experiences boredom. One reason that a challenging job stimulates involvement is that it requires the exercise of the individual’s judgment and choice, thereby making oneself the main causal agent in performance (Patchen, 1990). Another reason is that coping with challenge requires effort and the expenditure of effort requires commitment to the goal one is seeking. If the degree of challenge is so great that one cannot cope with it, a person will experience a sense of failure and frustration with the work.

Research summarized by Hunn (1971), however shows quire clearly that not all employees consciously value, desire or seek mentally challenging work. Studies by Morse and Weissman (1982) suggest that there are important differences in the meaning of work between job levels. Lower level workers view work as only a means to keep busy and to earn a living, while higher-level workers more often view it as pleasurable in itself and as a means of fulfilling a variety of psychological needs. The fact that the employees at higher job levels are more likely to want mentally challenging work than employees at lower job levels may explain, in part, the almost universal findings of a positive relationship between job level and work motivation.

**Possibility of Advancement**

While it may seem logical that an employee could appraise the opportunity of advancement offered by his company or organization, other employees could still be dissatisfied with the chances for promotion, simply because they do not exist. Such individuals' valued standards would depend upon personal ambitions and career aspirations. Alternatively, an individual might view the promotion system in their firm as unfair yet still be personally satisfied because he does not possess the necessary qualifications for promotion or does not have what is required to advance his career, (Brag et al., 1994). The roots of the desire of promotion would include the desire for psychological growth, the desire for higher earning and the desire for social status to those who base their self-image on what others think of them. A studies by Henry (1996) suggests that a strong desire to move continuously upward is a strong characteristic of members of any society.

**Recognition**

Virtually, all employees value being praised for their work and being given credit where credit is due, especially by supervisors and colleagues whose judgment they respect. Similarly, most colleagues disvalue being criticized or not getting credit for their work accomplishment. Locke

(1973), found recognition as the single most frequently mentioned event, which motivates positive effort from workers. Studies on job satisfaction using Herzberg's (1959) methodologies, found it to be one of the most frequently mentioned satisfaction factor, (Widgor, 1996).

Another important function of recognition for work is that it provides feedback concerning the competence of one's job performance. Thus praise indicates that one has done his or her job correctly and according to the standards of one's supervisor. Criticism, on the other hand indicates that one has not met the standards. Depending upon the form in which such feedback is given, it can be used to correct the past errors or set future goals for performance (Locke et al., 1988). The desire for recognition is typically attributed to the desire or need for self-esteem or a positive self-concept according to Maslow's (1959) "Hierarchy of Need Theory". However, individuals with low self-esteem should be most dependent of recognition and most emotionally affected by it, positively and negatively. Furthermore, there is evidence that females are more sensitive than males to interpersonal relationships of this type (Barnowe et al., 1992).

**Working Conditions**

Generally, employees value physical surroundings that are not dangerous or uncomfortable. Most employees also value locations that are close to home, offer cleanliness, adequate tools and equipment and buildings that are in good conditions among others. The basic principles underlying an employee's preference for pleasant working conditions are, the desire for physical comfort based on his or her physical needs and the desire for conditions that facilitate or do not block the attainment of his or her work goals (Mann et al., (1985). The study by Mann et al. shows that complaints about physical working conditions are sometimes manifestations of deeper frustrations such as personal problems and anxiety.

### 3.2.1 Motivation Studies in Educational Institutions

In educational research, concern has been voiced about the applicability of the theories of Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1959) on primary and secondary school teachers. Questions have been asked as to whether teachers respond to the same motivators that Herzberg associated with profit-making businesses and have the same needs and patterns as those uncovered by Maslow (1954), in his studies of business employees, (Gawel, 1997).

Bellot and Tutor (1990) show that teachers can be motivated by both motivation as well as hygiene factors. They conclude that salary is the single most important influence to teachers' motivation and their perceived salary increase is tied to their personal achievement and to other motivation factors. While reviewing Maslow's (1954) theory, they show that teachers are less satisfied with personal achievement of esteem which is considered middle level need according to Maslow (1954), than with their achievement of self-actualization. Bellot and Tutor (1990), therefore conclude that self-actualization is a proponent need for self-esteem. They point out however that Herzberg and Maslow's theories still have a broad applicability internationally.

The task of the current study was to find out whether the same findings will be observed among the special education teachers in Kenya as well. Studies show that improvement in teacher motivation has benefits for students as well as teachers, however, there is not a consensus about the precise benefits. For example, researchers have had varying results when examining whether teacher motivation leads to increased level of academic achievement. Steven and White (1987), studied the records for 15 school districts with 191 teachers as subjects yet found no direct relationship between the teachers' motivation and student achievement. They concluded however that further research on this topic required the examination of the achievement levels of the students prior to the involvement with the teachers participating in the study.

Research by Peck et al. (1997), shows there is a correlation between teacher motivation and student self-esteem for example that of teachers with strong positive attitudes about teaching had students whose self-esteem was high. Students seem to recognize the effectiveness of teachers who are satisfied with their teaching performance. This association exists because teachers serve as more than just educators, they are role models. The advantages of having motivated teachers teaching pupils illustrates the importance of studying how teachers feel about their work.

The study by Harper (1996), which was influenced by achieving education excellence, identifies the need to attract, develop and retain professional workforce and shows that the effectiveness of efforts to improve the quality and caliber of teachers is contingent upon the greater knowledge of teachers' perception of themselves and the work they do. The results by Harper (1996) show that teachers' motivation is predicted by organizational factors such as participation in administrative policies. He further adds that if the goal of a school organization is to be conducive, there is a need to continue to adjust or redesign the organization structures of the school such that both extrinsic and intrinsic teacher job satisfaction and motivation are maximized. The study shows a significant difference in teachers' decision–making level and the motivation experienced. Woley (1996) shows that teachers who are more involved in decision-making processes are more motivated in their jobs. A study examining three domains of teacher empowerment such as control over content, control over method and level of influence in the school policy and its relationship with their job satisfaction, finds that these domains are positively related (Park, 1998). The study by Park further shows that a supportive relationship between the administration and the teachers can significantly enhance their motivation to teach. Teacher empowerment can therefore be seen as a consequence of democracy within schools and is found to be a significant promoter of motivation.

Work motivation has been related to a large number of demographic variables such as the teachers' age, gender, marital status, academic level, and experience among others. A study by Lortie (1975), shows that culture may have an influence on what teachers consider to be important factors influencing their motivation to work. A study by David (1997) on the other hand, shows that as the number of years of experience increases the female teachers' motivation level with superiors and their work tends to decrease.

In another study by David, aimed at determining whether the factors that influence job satisfaction and work motivation vary according to gender found that it played a key role in determining the relationship between the two dependent variables of job satisfaction and motivation. In Goodwin's study (1998) examining job satisfaction in relation to the number of years administrators had served in their current position, significant statistical differences were found. With each of the classifications of job motivation, the administrators with ten to twenty six years in their current position expressed a higher level of motivation than the administrators with seven to nine years of experience in their current position. Job motivation therefore, according to the study by Goodwin increases with duration spent in the current position. The knowledge and skills that prospective educators have before entering into teaching has been found to affect their quality and attrition. Previous research suggests that the amount of course-work teachers complete during their training correlates with their subsequent teaching performance and students' achievements, (Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994). Recent studies in general education show that graduates of extended pre-service programmes are more satisfied with their preparation and are viewed by colleagues as better prepared, (Hammond 1997).

### 3.2.2 Motivation Studies on Work Environments

A study by Beere (1996) examines the relationship between the human relations, oriented supervisory leadership style and satisfaction of needs. He goes one step further and argues that the satisfaction of needs as such, does not securely lead to motivation, rather motivation results from the satisfaction of needs that occurs in the process of task-oriented work. Beere (1996) finds that self-actualization, autonomy and social needs are the most important, while esteem and security needs are the least important. The results show that there is no significant relationship between the satisfaction of needs and Beere's measure of motivation nor between any of the leadership style dimensions and motivation. There are, however, significant relationship between leadership style dimensions and satisfaction of needs. Studies which systematically consider Maslows' theory in terms of performance include that of Clerk (1987), who attempts to fit a number of empirical studies, conducted for different purposes, into a framework that provides a progressive activation and satisfaction of needs at each hierarchical level. The findings are used to make predictions concerning productivity, absenteeism and turnover, as each need level is activated and then satisfied.

A second study by Lawler and Porter (1988) correlates the satisfaction of managers' needs with the rankings of their performance by superiors and peers. All correlations are significant but low, ranging from 0.16 to 0.30. Lawler and Porter (1988) conclude that the satisfaction of higher order needs is more closely related to performance than the satisfaction of lower order needs. A later study by Lawler and Porter (1999) appears to provide additional support for their earlier findings by showing that higher order needs accounted for greater relationship significance at 0.01 level than lower order needs. A number of studies conducted using Herzbergs' (1959) model of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, show that certain job dimensions appear to be more important for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Dunette et al., (1998) conclude from their studies that

achievement, recognition, and responsibility seem important for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, while such job dimensions like security, salary, and working conditions are less important. Brayfield and Crockett (1995) show an explicit theoretical linkage between satisfaction, motivation and organizational goal productivity. Mahoney and Jones (1996), provide some early empirical support for this notion. Essentially, they argue that an individual's motivation to produce at a given level depends upon his particular needs, as reflected in the goals towards which he is moving and his perception of the relative usefulness of his productivity behaviour as a path to the attainment of these goals. They qualify this by saying that the need must be sufficiently high, with no other economic paths available to the individual. Work provides products and services, that represent the basis of the success of any organization, but is also an important and highly central aspect in the lives of employees due to several reasons.

First, a person receives some kind of reward, extrinsic such as money or intrinsic such as the satisfaction coming from the work itself, in exchange for their performance (Steers and Porter, 1991). The individual holds certain personal expectations in terms of the form and amount of reward that he or she should receive for the provided services. Therefore, as Vroom (1964) theorized, the performance of such a person as well as the decision to remain in the organization is influenced by the extent to which such expectations are met (Steers and Porter, 1991). Second, the workplace presents opportunities for socialization with other people (Hall, 1994). Third, a job is often a source of rank or status in the society in general (Steers and Porter, 1991). In other words, the work may provide a source of social differentiation. Fourth, they pointed out that work has an individual meaning for each person which can range from a source of identity and self-esteem, to a source of frustration, boredom and a feeling of meaningless caused by the nature of the task and the characteristics of the person. Regarding the fact that employees spend a large part of the day at

work, for about forty to forty-five years, it is important that those employees experience positive feelings towards their tasks. An employee, irrespective of whether he or she is working in an office or not, will experience his or her tasks very differently if the attitude towards his or her job is good or bad. They argue that employees' feelings towards their work has a significant influence on the success or failure of the company. In other words, motivated employees contribute to a company's survival. Employees are a valuable resource that may contribute in several different ways to an organization's activities provided that the organization gives them an appropriate chance (Morgan, 1997).

Sigh and Billingsey (1996), argue that other specific working conditions that are related to teacher retention include school climate, age, grade level taught, and work responsibility. According to Lau and Huang (1999), highly committed persons expend considerable effort towards the achievement of the values of an organization. They may represent a corporate strategic advantage especially in a rapidly changing world. The achievement of organizational commitment however is not easy since this may also be influenced by personal and organizational factors (Schulz and Schulz, 1998). Knowledge about the similarities and the differences in the motivation of employees may make it easier for a company to devise strategies of motivating them and by so doing, generate organizational commitment. A consideration of individuals, therefore, such as their age, gender, work area and years that they have been working in the organization, may provide useful information. Variables other than the personal factors have been proved through research as contributing to the motivation of employees such as payment.

Evidence from research shows that money and pay satisfaction have seldom been found to be significant in explaining work motivation and are certainly not the strongest explanatory variable (Persson, 1994). According to Persson, Swedish companies do not consider payment as a

motivational aspect; the level of salary is often decided outside the organization. Nevertheless, the question does not exclusively concern payment level in order to motivate employees, but also what the general management is using as an appropriate incentive system (Mackenzie and Lee, 1997). One can therefore observe that there seems to be a scattered picture of the importance of payment as a motivator to work, however, it can be established that several studies have found payment to be the prime factor explaining work motivation. A scale used in the study measuring the degree of supportive management used by Sjoberg and Lind (1994) and Schou (1991), found that management was an important factor in explaining work motivation.

### 3.3 Related Studies in Africa

In Africa, studies reveal that great importance is attached to the status and prestige a person has in wider social setting, likewise, the kind of interpersonal relation between co-workers, supervisors and subordinates are also considered important. In his survey of Nigerian engineers' value orientations, Ejiogu (1983) observes an overwhelming preference for economic returns or extrinsic rewards whereas participation in management did not feature all that prominently in their value systems. Oladeji (1995), notes that workers throughout Africa are deeply immersed in an everyday struggle for material survival where the next job or the next pay package becomes the limit of their horizon. He further states that workers tend to visualize their jobs in an instrumental fashion according to the equation: work equals money and money equals security. Bhagat and Maquid (1982), state that job satisfaction like intrinsic motivation, is a luxury of most affluent societies and cannot be transferred without modifications from one society to another. To take advantage of any positive effects that organizational performance and quality of working life on job satisfaction, Kanawaty and Thorsud (1981) state that it becomes necessary to introduce contingent rewards. In other words, workers might be paid more for additional skills they may acquire in order to promote their motivation to put effort in their jobs. Improvement in the quality of working life and

organizational effectiveness are therefore likely to contribute to the motivation and job satisfaction of employees and reduce those factors that negatively affect their motivation. In a study on factors relating to teacher drop-out in Zambia, Moore (1978) shows that the status of teachers in Africa is low and recruitment is haphazard while training is inadequate. He further adds that a teacher does not get salary that keeps him content or enables him or her to maintain a good standard of life comparable to that of others having the same qualifications. A report by the International Labour Organization (ILO) on teachers in developing countries indicates that the regard accorded to teachers and the level of appreciation of the importance of their function are largely dependent on the economic position in which they are placed. The report further urges that teachers' salaries should reflect the importance the society places on the teaching function, compare favourably with salaries paid in other occupations requiring similar qualifications and should provide the teachers with a reasonable standard of living for themselves and their families, (ILO, 1991). Moore further asserts that teachers in Africa work in conditions that would daunt even the bravest of spirit. The communicative effect is to depress the public image of the teacher and to assign the profession a lower status in comparison to other professions. His findings reveal that teachers in Zambia place a lot of importance on remuneration due to which the majority of the teachers who quit the profession cite as the major cause. A study by Omar (1975), indicates that Libyan teachers exhibit low job satisfaction owing to the perception that salaries are inadequate, administration policies are outdated and only minimum opportunities for advancement are available.

Omar's findings are consistent with Herzberg’s (1959) Two-Factor Theory, which states that factors such as work itself, achievement, growth opportunities, advancement and hygiene factors contributes to the satisfaction of the teachers. However, exceptions of the traditionally accepted concept of motivation and hygiene seem to differ in Omar’s study, the recognition factor that is considered essential in Herzberg’s study is not identified as an important factor in this study.

### 3.4 Related Studies in Kenya

The Government of Kenya has over the years showed its commitment to the development of education. There has been a considerable increase in the investment in education and training over the past ten years (EFA, 2000). The country has also witnessed a surge of interest in the pursuit of basic education for all with the introduction of free primary education in 2003. Issues such as relevance and quality of education for girls, disadvantaged groups and children with disabilities have been approached with new vigor. In a study, which is believed, to be among the pioneer studies done in the area of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Kenya, Karugu (1980) examines the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among elementary school teachers and head-teachers in Nairobi. He points out that the failure of educational institutions in Kenya to recognize the satisfying factors as well as those that are dissatisfying has contributed to the exodus of workers form such institutions.

The finding of this study, which utilizes the premise of Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory, indicates that Kenyan educators identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers as a combination of both motivation and hygiene factors. Karugu consequently points out that it is imperative for educational administrators to equally consider the factors of teacher maintenance or retention and the satisfaction of teachers. The study by Karugu conducted twenty years back, was exploratory, and as recommended by him, it needed to be extended later to ascertain the validity of the instrument used, particularly with another sample group. Besides Karugu, later studies by Akatsa (1986) and Gwahalla (1991) have dwelt on the topic of job satisfaction of teachers.

**Government Policies**

Mukiebe (1995) argues that no educational reform can be fully effective without the agreement and active partnership of the personnel who will ultimately be responsible for its implementation.

Mukiebe further argues that workers in educational organizations should contribute to the policy-making process by representing their members' views. Negotiations and consultations should be encouraged at all levels. Transparent procedures and effective communication with all interested parties are the key factors in ensuring that consultations and negotiations achieve their objectives. Despite the aforementioned efforts by the government to provide education for all its citizens, a report by the Ministry of Education, during the International Conference on Education in Geneva (2001) shows that the education sector in Kenya has not faired very well. It reveals that the quality of education at all levels has been deteriorating over time due to limited learning materials and examination drive, as well as the teaching-learning approaches, especially in the mathematics and science oriented subjects. Based on the inherited education system, the report maintains that the government and other partners have not come up with a clear vision of education that would enhance the provision of education for all. The report further states that the process of policy-making, planning and implementation in the country does not seem to be based on the available information. Policies relating to education have been in most instances inadequate. The laws and regulations in Kenya do not adequately address equity issues in education, overloaded and inappropriate curricula, centralization of education management and non-involvement of all stake-holders in policy-making and management of education. All these have had a negative impact on special education in the country. The centralized bureaucratic structures and administrative rigidity have resulted in delays in decision-making processes and ineffectiveness in implementing recommendations made by various stakeholders.

### 3.5 Teaching Situation in Kenya

The management of education affairs has been hampered by inefficiencies and a lack of adequate resources. Mukiebe (1995) reporting on the teaching situation in Kenya, points out that inadequate remuneration for the teachers has led to low teaching morale causing major setbacks in the teaching

and learning process. She asserts that the status of teachers has declined drastically in the recent years and that the vast majority of teachers in Kenya do not receive the moral support and material recognition appropriate for their level of qualification and responsibility. Also noteworthy is that class sizes have reached unacceptable levels in numbers since the introduction of free primary education in 2003. Obviously, when a class is too large, learning suffers. Smaller classes allow for more personalized instructional techniques and the application of new teaching methods and furthermore teachers with smaller classes have been known to report higher job morale.

Financial remuneration has been found to constitute a major source of grievance expressed by teachers in Kenya. Mukiebe (1995), argues that low wages and poor working conditions have significantly contributed to teachers' unrest in most African countries effectively eroding the quality of education. Due to poor remuneration, the profession has failed to attract the best students. Educational standards suffer as long as teachers are poorly paid. In countries where teachers enjoy relatively good employment conditions, education tends to be given top priority and is consequently of higher quality. As noted by Ingollo (1991), teachers in Kenya have reportedly gone on strike on numerous occasions citing low wages as the main reason, as well as the government's inability in honour the wage increase and improve of teachers' terms of service as promised. Whenever this happens, time is lost on contact hours with the learners. Ingollo further argues that lack of motivation of the teachers in Kenya has been seen in acts such as absenteeism, lateness, and lack of proper preparation of class-work, which is reflected in poor performance among the majority of primary schools. According to the reports from the World Education Forum (2000), it has become almost impossible in most African countries to convince good students to choose a teaching career due to the poor salary accorded to them.

### 3.6 Special Education Teachers

Research on factors affecting the motivation of special education teachers in Kenya has not been sufficiently addressed as existing studies, such as Akatsa (1986); Karugu, (1980), Ingollo (1991), have focused mainly on the job satisfaction of regular primary teachers and their commitment to teach. While job satisfaction refers to the teachers' wellbeing with regard to their job, job motivation relates to their desire or drive to put more effort in teaching. Job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to motivation.

Special education teachers are endowed with such an important and challenging responsibility of educating learners with special needs, therefore studying the factors perceived by them as enhancing their motivation level is vital in ensuring their motivation on the job is enhanced, resulting in better instruction to the learners. A report by the Kenya Society for the Physically Handicapped, (KSPH); (1999), observes that among the problems effecting teachers in special education is that no curriculum exists for students with mental disabilities. It has also been found that deaf learners cannot grasp the music and languages that are included in the 8-4-4 curriculum. Additionally, sign language is not examinable in the 8-4-4 system of education. Crume et al., (1999), argue that many teachers of the hearing impaired are unable to teach them properly because they cannot communicate with them. Furthermore, they point out that most of these teachers sign very poorly. In the case of visual impairments, such students have serious difficulties grasping pure sciences and mathematics, which require observational skills. These factors have been found to create obstacles in their endeavor to provide instruction to this group of learners. The poor progress in most special schools in Kenya has been attributed to the lack of teaching and learning materials, as well as a curriculum that has not been adapted to the special needs of the learners. (Schmid and Nagata (1983), note that these factors may lower the teachers’ self-esteem leading to dissatisfaction with the job. In most Kenyan special schools, a high turn-over rate of teachers has been reported

whereby they opt to quit teaching for other types of employment in the government and non-governmental sectors while, some proceed for further education and do not resume teaching after that, ( Mukiebe 1995). Crume et al. (1999), criticizing the laxity of unmotivated special education teachers argue that a large percentage of teachers educating students with special needs are constantly absent from schools and do not have the drive to teach. Regarding headteachers, Crume et al., report that many of the headteachers in special schools have an equally high number of absences and lack the motivation to efficiently perform their work. In addressing issues affecting special education teachers, the MPET Report (1998); states that their retention and motivation can be achieved through the implementation of its recommendations for improvement of the school system such as establishing adequate physical facilities, instructional materials and professional development. It also recommends that in order to raise the extrinsic motivation of the teachers, teacher remuneration and special allowances for teachers serving in special schools, hardship areas and head of subject departments should be favourably reviewed.

### 3.6.1 Role of Special Education Teachers

Educating learners with special needs involves long teaching hours with little observable students' progress and lack of perceived success on the job can affect the teachers' motivation to teach (Schmid and Nagata, 1983). In support of this notion RoK (1999), asserts that special education teachers work with children, some of whom have severe to profound impairments. It further states that some children require the physical support of the teacher while their pace of learning is too slow thus needing a lot of patience on the part of the teacher. The report urges that due to the interdisciplinary nature of the teacher training curriculum at all levels, teachers in special school are accorded a special scheme of service. Cole and Walker (1989) argue that the many responsibilities of special education teachers may be viewed as "dirty work", at least by the society at large. This view may be due to the fact that these children are placed in special programmes because they

present special psychological, social and even physical problems. An example of “dirty work” includes the teaching of basic self-care skills such as toilet training for some physically and mentally handicapped pupils.

It is generally accepted that not even the specially trained teachers can deal successfully with the kind of problems exhibited by exceptional learners. Teachers who have to work constantly with special needs learners have to deal daily with the emotions aroused by them, sometimes this can be painful and stressful. If they do not have adequate ways of coping, they will be unable to survive and persist in their educational effort. Weiskopf (1980) shows that the factors that cause dissatisfaction for the special education teachers include job-related work after schools hours, writing individualized education programmes and working together with the parents of the children who may at times not be cooperative enough. Hersom (1993) argues that the environmental stress factors in special education are paperwork, ambiguous policies and lack of support from the administration. Stressing the importance of administrative support Williams (1993), argue that the administrative climate has the greatest effect on the perception of job satisfaction for both special and general educators.

A study by Gay (1998) shows that the workload of special education teachers has long been identified as an on-going problem and has been used to explain the shortage of special education teachers. He further states that creating a working environment for these teachers will help them to enrich their lives and that of the learners. A study examining special education teachers burnout in relation to three separate conditions namely, the number of heterogeneous special needs learners taught, the number of students per class and the proportion of emotionally impaired students to the total class composition finds all these factors positively related to teachers' burnout. In a study by Hester (1994), comparing the manifestations of stress between male and female teachers, the class-

size, paperwork and lesson plans are seen as more significant sources of stress for women than men. The study by Hester also indicates that teachers who choose to remain in special education tend to be slightly older and have more experience in the special education field, as well as have a degree higher than bachelors.

An educator who has a clear perception of the job is significantly less likely to experience low job motivation. Role descriptions in special education are often inappropriate, inefficient and impossible to implement which may prove to be stressful to the teachers (Weiskopf 1980). Unfortunately, this situation often occurs to special teachers in that issues such as special education definitions, criteria for placement, emphasis of programme forms of use and procedures to follow often change in special education as policies keep changing. Cummins (1994), assert that lack of qualified personnel in special education and the inability to retain experienced teachers impacts negatively on the quality of services provided to the students with special needs.

### 3.6.2 Teaching in Integrated Schools

A study by Weiskopf (1980), shows that many teachers in regular schools find teaching special needs students to be outside their role and certainly not included among their legitimate tasks. Learners with special needs certainly require more attention in comparison to the non-handicapped pupils. The patience of regular teachers may therefore be threatened while working with exceptional learners. Weiskopf (1980), contends that while setting a test may give a regular teacher breathing space for special needs students, this tactic may in fact create more problems since the learners may require help in reading the questions. Stensud (1983) finds that even if they have confidence in the management of the school and their colleagues, teachers in integrated schools often feel their competence challenged. In a study by Macquire (1994) on the attitudes of regular teachers towards their roles as special education teachers, the findings appear to be inconsistent

indicating that the teachers feel that their role as teachers of special needs children are not markedly different from their role as teachers of regular students. The current study focused on special education teachers in both special and integrated schools in selected Kenyan provinces, and their views constitute important information aimed at restructuring their profession. Identifying factors that contribute to their motivation and those that negatively affect it will lead to an improvement in their working environment resulting in the provision of quality education for the learners with special needs as well as improved working conditions for the teachers. The studies that have been reviewed in this chapter revealed a lot of literature related to the present study. No specific study directly related to the current work has been carried out yet. Hence the need to undertake the present study.

## 3.8 Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship in the special education teachers' overall choice of job motivation factors.
2. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to variations in the type of disability served.
3. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their type of school i.e. special and integrated schools.
4. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their school location.
5. There are no significant differences in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to variations in their years of experience.
6. There are no significant differences in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to variations in their level of education.

7. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their level of special education training.
8. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their gender.
9. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to differences in their age.
10. There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to differences in their marital status

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

## 4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the research design variables, the population and sample, the research instruments, procedure of data collection and data analysis used in the current study are discussed.

## 4.1 The Research Design and Variables

The current study was designed to examine factors identified by the special education teachers as contributing to their motivation to work. It specifically aimed at finding out if the special education teachers would identify with the factors of job motivation as contained in the Herzberg's (1959) Motivation-Hygiene Theory as well as those contained in Hackman and Oldham's' Model of Motivation (1975). A descriptive expost-facto research design was used for the study. Kerlinger (1973) describes expost-facto research design as a systematic, empirical inquiry into which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables as their manifestation has already occurred or because they inherently cannot be manipulated. Inferences about relationships between variables are made, from concomitant variations of independent and dependent variables. The current research design was chosen because the study was not confined to the collection and description of the data, but sought to investigate and establish the existence of certain relationships among the variables under investigation. Hence, the design was selected to satisfy this aspect of the study. The variables considered for this study are centred around the following main factors according to the literature review related to the study, namely, job design and teacher' job satisfaction. These factors comprised of the following variables;

*Job Design variables*: skill variety, feeling about work performance, autonomy, feedback on work performance, significant effect on others, independence and freedom.

*Teacher satisfaction variables*: advancement, challenging, recognition, opportunities for independent thought and action, satisfaction with senior special education administrators, cooperation with colleagues, supportive school administrators, security, adequate materials and facilities, salary, routine duty and paperwork interference, special education training and teaching materials. Skill variety, autonomy and feed back are job characteristics which according to Hackman and Oldham (1980) represent factors that can be related to higher order needs in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, they can also be related to motivators according to Herzberg's Theory of Motivation. Job security, salary, schools' characteristics, workload, support, policy and regulations are factors which concern the work context and can be related to the lower order needs or extrinsic needs of Maslow (1964) and Herzberg (1958) respectively. According to the theories, these needs have to be fulfilled before higher order needs can emerge or before the level of motivation and satisfaction with the work is decreased. The major independent variables of the study were demographic variables including: age, gender, marital status, experience, school location, training, type of disability served and school level.

## 4.2 The Sample of the Study

The population for the current study was designed to produce a representation of the teachers serving students with special needs in four selected provinces in Kenya. To arrive at a population sample, a two- stage sampling design was used. In the first stage, a stratified random sampling method was employed whereby the geographic regions from which the special schools were to be derived, were chosen first. In this case, the geographic regions chosen for the study were the four main provinces namely, Nairobi, Central, Nyanza and Eastern. From the mentioned provinces, both

special and integrated schools serving children with disabilities were selected. The justification for using the four provinces was that they constitute the highest number of special schools in the whole nation. This was considered an important factor by the researcher in order to provide easy and efficient access for data collection. The total number of schools, both special and integrated, was 32. The second stage was a purposive sampling of the teachers and headteachers from each school serving students with disabilities.

### 4.3 Population of the Study

From a total of 966 special education teachers in the four provinces, 142 were derived from special schools, while 128 teachers were to be included from integrated schools in the four provinces. The total population for the present study was therefore 270 teachers serving students with special needs. Special education teachers were selected since the focus of the current study was to determine the motivation factors as expressed by the special education teachers with regard to their profession. The different categories of schools selected for the study were special schools for the handicapped as well as integrated schools.

Studies by Hester (1994), Steiner and Farr (1986) have shown that teaching different levels of special needs learners has different impact on the teachers given the different duties required at different grade levels. Special schools in Kenya basically cater for four main categories of disabilities consisting of the physically, mentally, visually and hearing impaired. Another category of schools utilized by the researcher was the government and non-governmental schools. The need to use both categories was to provide the study with information inherent in them that may have impact on the motivation of the teachers in different ways. The list for special schools was derived from Special Education Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education. It contained the number of schools and the estimated number of special education teachers. The table 5 below, shows the

sampling frame of the total number of sampled special and Integrated schools. It also shows the total number of teachers used for the present study.

## 4.4 Sampling Technique

**Table 5:Special School Teachers in Central, Nyanza Eastern, and Nairobi Provinces.**

| **Province** | **SAMPLE FRAME** | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Type of school** | | | | **Category of disability** | **Total number of special education teachers** | | |
| | **Special schools no= 228** | | **Integrated schools No= 42** | | | | | |
| | No | Out of | No | Out of | | No | Sample | % |
| **Central** | 4 | 12 | 4 | 58 | P.H | 230 | 69 | 30.0 |
| **Nyanza** | 4 | 12 | 4 | 45 | M.H | 87 | 26 | 29.0 |
| **Eastern** | 4 | 8 | 4 | 37 | V.I | 90 | 27 | 30.0 |
| **Nairobi** | 4 | 4 | 4 | 24 | H.I | 364 | 89 | 24.45 |
| **Total** | **16** | **32** | **16** | **164** | | **996** | **270** | **27.36** |

***Source: Special education inspectorate 2001 (Ministry of Education)***

After purposively selecting the four provinces, the special and integrated schools in these provinces were then divided according to the type of disability, i.e. Hearing impaired, Visually impaired, Physically handicapped and Mentally handicapped. Eight schools were then randomly selected from a list of special schools and integrated schools within each of the four provinces, 2 schools in each category of disability were randomly sampled. Since teachers in integrated schools formed part of the study, the researcher randomly sampled one special school and one integrated school in each category of disability from Nyanza and Nairobi provinces. The total number of schools sampled for the study was therefore 32, comprising 24 special schools and 8 integrated schools. The teachers teaching in these schools automatically became the subjects for the study. The total number

of respondents used in the study was 270 special education teachers. Of which 142 were special school teachers while 128 were from integrated schools.

## 4.5 The Research Instrument

The instrument prepared for the research addressed the objectives of the research problem. The questions addressed in the instrument focused on the personal factors of the respondents as well as background information such as the level of special education training and location of the school in order to provide useful data on the influence of different factors on the teachers' job motivation. Also included in the instrument were the factors of job satisfaction as proposed by Herzberg's (1959) containing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors such as advancement, independence and recognition. The job design was included in a survey developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) based on the factors of job design that affect the teachers' motivation, such as the presence of skill variety, feedback on work progress and significance. These factors are assumed to have an influence on teachers' motivation to work.

### (a) Teachers Demographic Data Sheet (TDDS):

This part (I) of the instrument was designed to elicit background information of the respondents relating to their chronological age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, level of special education training, type of disability served and location of school.

### (b) The Job Design Survey

This constituted part II (a) of the questionnaire. It was modelled on the theory of Hackman and Oldham's job design model. The instrument has six items based on the job design factors. The researcher hoped to establish whether the identified variables by the special education teachers had contributed to their job motivation. To gather this information, a likert type scale with five-

response option was used and the respondents were to indicate if they agreed with the statements provided. The responses required them to indicate if they strongly disagreed, were undecided, agreed or strongly agreed with the statements provided in the questionnaire. The respondent was to choose the most appropriate statement applicable to him or her and indicate his or her choice by placing a tick against the chosen option.

**(c) Teachers' Satisfaction Survey**

The teachers' satisfaction survey scale formed part II (b) of the questionnaire. It was used to describe the teachers' views concerning their job in relation to certain job aspects described in the instrument. The instrument contained 13 items. These included aspects such as advancement, recognition, independence and freedom. Additional questions were included in this section after consultations with research supervisors; these were satisfaction with senior special education administrators and whether teacher training matched the realities of their job. This was intended to furnish the researcher with information on factors concerning administration and special education training that may influence the job motivation of the special education teachers. A likert type with five-response options was used to gather views on the teachers' satisfaction with the job factors contained in the instrument. The responses required them to indicate to what extent they agreed with the statements in the questionnaire. Specifically, they were required to place a tick against the option that best described their views, the five options consisted of: not at all, a small extent, moderate extent, great extent, and not applicable.

**Open-Ended Questions**

Part III of the instrument consisted of 3 open-ended questions each having 5 blank spaces where the respondents were required to:

(a) give 5 reasons that motivated them to continue to put effort in their work,

(b) indicate 5 factors within their work that negatively impact on their motivation to work

(c) give 5 recommendations that, if included in their work, would enhance their motivation to work.

## 4.6 Validity of the Instrument

The validity of an instrument is the degree to which a test or a tool measures what it is supposed to measure (Gay, 1998). In carrying out the research, the researcher paid close attention to the issue of validity of the research instrument. The instrument was based upon a well-validated questionnaire devised by Hackman and Oldham (1980) on the factors of motivation at work. Researchers in various fields have used the questionnaire internationally including Chelladurai (1997) to classify the facets of athlete motivation, Cleve (1993) to test the job characteristics model with administrative positions, physical education and sport, Moores (1978) and (Hester 1994) in the field of education to investigate factors affecting the turnover and retention of teachers, among others. The factors contained in the Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory formed the Teachers' Satisfaction Survey. They included factors such as advancement, challenge, recognition, independence, cooperation with colleagues, adequate facilities, remuneration and job security.

The content validity of the tool was established through expert judgment, which consisted of various phases. The researcher, at the time of designing the tool worked closely with supervisors who went through the tools, made their suggestions and ultimately certified them for valid exercise. Second, the researcher during the piloting of the tools took time to explain the research problem and its objectives to the respective respondents and encouraged them to freely give their input from their perspective as far as the research tools were concerned.

## 4.7 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability has to do with the accuracy and precision of the research instruments (Thorndike et al. 1977). An instrument's reliability gives an indication of the extent to which a particular instrument is replicable. The Job Design Questionnaire yielded a reliability coefficient of .5579 while the Teachers' Satisfaction Survey yielded a reliability coefficient of .7313. The tools were therefore considered reliable and were therefore adopted for use in gathering information for the current study.

## 4.8 Data Collection Techniques

To enable the researcher to effectively collect data, three research assistants were enlisted for the exercise. They included two males and one female, bringing the total number of persons involved in data collection to four, including the researcher. Several sessions were held with the research assistants with the aim of orienting them in the purpose and methodology of this research. The assistants helped in the administration of the questionnaire with as much close guidance and supervision from the researcher as possible. They were given instruction on how to administer the questionnaire prior to the exercise.

Permission to carry out the research from the schools was sought first from the Ministry of Education following that, letters were sent to the respective schools that were to participate in the study. The letters sought the approval of the heads of the schools as well as information on the dates of the visits by the research team. They contained background information concerning the purpose of the research, data collection dates and other necessary instructions. To ensure good quality of the data in terms of representation and size of the sample, the questionnaires were distributed to all the teachers who were sampled for the current study.

The researcher, together with the research assistants paid visits to the schools that were sampled to establish a rapport with the respondents before administering the questionnaires. In order to minimize misinterpretations and misrepresentations, the instructions given were clearly stated in a precise way so that the interpretation would be the same for all teachers. A total of 270 questionnaires were left with the respondents from the sampled special and integrated schools for period of one week to provide them with adequate time required to respond to the questions. The final return was above 80%, in that 250 of the proposed 270 questionnaires were filled out and returned. The research supervisors were engaged to evaluate the questions asked and examine the appropriateness and understanding of the questions included.

## 4.9 Data Analysis Procedure

The data were coded and analyzed with the help of a computer. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software was used specifically, for the purpose of analyzing the data obtained. Data analysis was first analyzed according to descriptive information following the research questions. The data were scored by calculating the percentages and means. To analyze the research hypothesis the following statistical procedures were used; The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to test the first hypothesis to identify the strength of the relationship between teacher motivation, and job design and teacher satisfaction factors. The procedure was found appropriate because from all the job factors included in the questionnaire, it was the interest of the researcher to establish if the teachers' choices of factors of job motivation were related to each other. Independent sample t-tests were used to test hypotheses 3, 8 and 10 in order to compare the differences between the mean scores of two groups of teachers i.e. male and female, married and unmarried and those in special schools and integrated schools.

The hypotheses; 2,4,5,6,7 and 9 were analyzed using a One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test Whether the teachers' motivation differed with the various educational training, type of disability taught and school location. Hypotheses 3,8 and 10 were analyzed using t-tests to find out the differences in the teacher' choice of motivation between two groups such as special and integrated schools teachers, male and female teachers and married and single teachers. Conclusions were drawn from the significance or insignificance of each of the statistical evaluation of each of the data.

**Summary**

This chapter was concerned with the design and methodology of the study and has also highlighted a full description of the design, the research design variables and provided a broad view of the description and selection of the population. The sampling procedures, the research instruments, data collection techniques and data analysis procedures have also been given. The procedures adopted to attain acceptable validity and reliability of the research tools have been explained.

**The Pilot Study**

The pilot study was conducted in four special schools within Nairobi, Kiambu and Thika districts. A total number of 40 special teachers were used for the pilot. These schools were therefore omitted from the main data collection. Questionnaires from these schools were collected and analyzed and certain changes were considered necessary after consultations by the researcher and the supervisors based on the findings of the pilot study. The changes included the following;

(a) The format for the questions in Part II (b) (T S Q) appeared ambiguous to the respondents and needed a further elaboration in order to provide clarity.

(b) The initial number of open-ended questions was found to be more than the teacher could handle objectively due to time limitations. Therefore the necessary action was taken to cut down on the number of questions and to simplify the questionnaire.

(c) The job design questionnaire (JDS), was included in the instrument following deliberations between the researcher and the supervisors. The aim was to provide actors regarding the job design of teachers that might have an influence on their motivation to work. The additional instrument was considered necessary in order to develop a diagnostic tool for measuring the motivation of teachers already in the field. Hence factors mentioned in the job design questionnaire correspond to the study variables under the current investigation.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

## 5.0 Introduction

This research was undertaken with the broad aim of establishing the factors contributing to the special education teachers' job motivation. The researcher used responses of special education teachers from four provinces in Kenya namely, Central, Nyanza, Eastern and Nairobi. From the four provinces, 32 special schools were sampled for the research. Given the few numbers of teachers found in these schools, all the teachers totalling 250 as opposed to the earlier intended 270, automatically became subjects for the research. They provided responses regarding their views on certain job aspects through filling out questionnaires. An analysis of the data collected is presented below under the following headings;

1. Descriptive statistics; this section will provide responses to the research questions provided in (a) the study and (b) answers derived from the open-ended questions.
2. Statistical analysis of the results obtained from the tests of the hypotheses formulated.

## 5.1 A descriptive data analysis according to the research questions

In this section, the researcher focused attention on the overall job motivation factors contained in the job design survey, as well as the teachers' satisfaction survey and gave a general description of the teachers' responses.

**Research question 1:** What are the overall factors identified by the special education teachers as motivating with regard to their jobs?

Data relating to the above question are summarized in table 6 below.

**Table 6: Overall factors as identified by the Special Education teachers by frequencies and means.**

| MOTIVATION FACTORS | FREQUENCY COUNT | | | | | MEAN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Job design survey instrument** | **S D** | **D** | **U** | **A** | **SA** | |
| Provides the use of a variety of skills | 9 | 2 | 1 | 105 | 133 | 4.40 |
| Provides me the feeling that I am performing well | 11 | 16 | 6 | 146 | 71 | 4.00 |
| Allows personal decision on work procedure | 69 | 48 | 10 | 1110 | 23 | 2.75 |
| Gives me feedback on work performance | 12 | 35 | 16 | 144 | 43 | 3.68 |
| Significantly affects the lives of others | 9 | 15 | 9 | 129 | 88 | 4.10 |
| Provides me independence and freedom | 20 | 58 | 20 | 106 | 46 | 3.40 |
| **Teacher satisfaction survey instrument** | **NAL** | **SE** | **ME** | **GE** | **NA** | |
| Provides opportunity for advancement | 19 | 58 | 92 | 73 | 6 | 2.83 |
| Challenging | 2 | 24 | 61 | 161 | 2 | 3.52 |
| Recognition for my work | 44 | 77 | 56 | 67 | 5 | 2.55 |
| Independent thought and action | 19 | 85 | 75 | 64 | 6 | 2.69 |
| Satisfied with senior special ed. administrators | 46 | 115 | 64 | 21 | 3 | 2.22 |
| Cooperation from colleagues | 4 | 36 | 87 | 120 | 2 | 3.28 |
| Support from school administration | 11 | 57 | 80 | 100 | 1 | 3.07 |
| Job security | 29 | 66 | 80 | 68 | 5 | 2.71 |
| Adequate school facilities | 27 | 120 | 72 | 26 | 3 | 2.37 |
| Contentment with current salary | 117 | 101 | 21 | 3 | 6 | 1.59 |
| Routine duties and paperwork interference | 62 | 90 | 37 | 46 | 13 | 2.17 |
| Training in special education | 27 | 47 | 79 | 89 | 6 | 2.88 |
| Teaching materials | 20 | 127 | 72 | 28 | 1 | 2.43 |

SD=Strongly Disagree, D: Disagree, U: Undecided, A: Agree, SA: Strongly Agree. NAL Not At All, SE = Slight Extent, ME= Moderate Ext, GE=Great Extent, NA= Not Applicable.

As presented in table 6 above, the Job Design Survey shows that factors such as, “the use of a variety of skills” was ranked first, followed by “the job significantly affects the lives of others”, and “provides the feeling that I am performing well.” While from the teachers’ satisfaction survey, in order of significance, the highest motivators were that the job was “challenging,” “cooperation from colleagues” and “support from schools administration.”

The least rated motivating factor in job design instrument was “allows personal decision on work procedure” while on the Teachers' Satisfaction Survey was “contentment with current salary.” The same data are also presented by bar graphs in figures 2 and 3 in pages 86 and 87.

**FIGURE 2: Motivation factors as expressed by special education teachers based on the Job Design Instrument.**

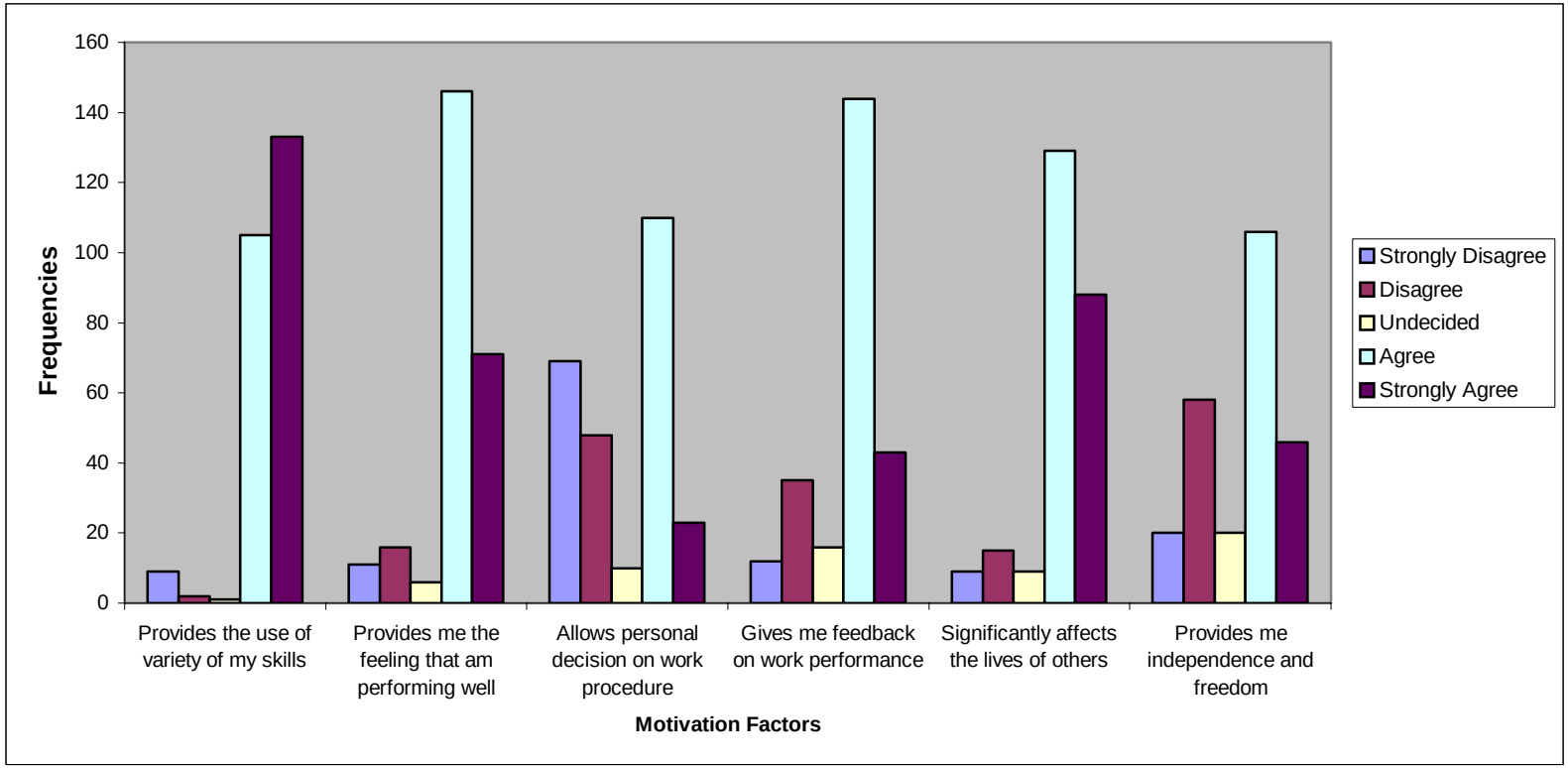
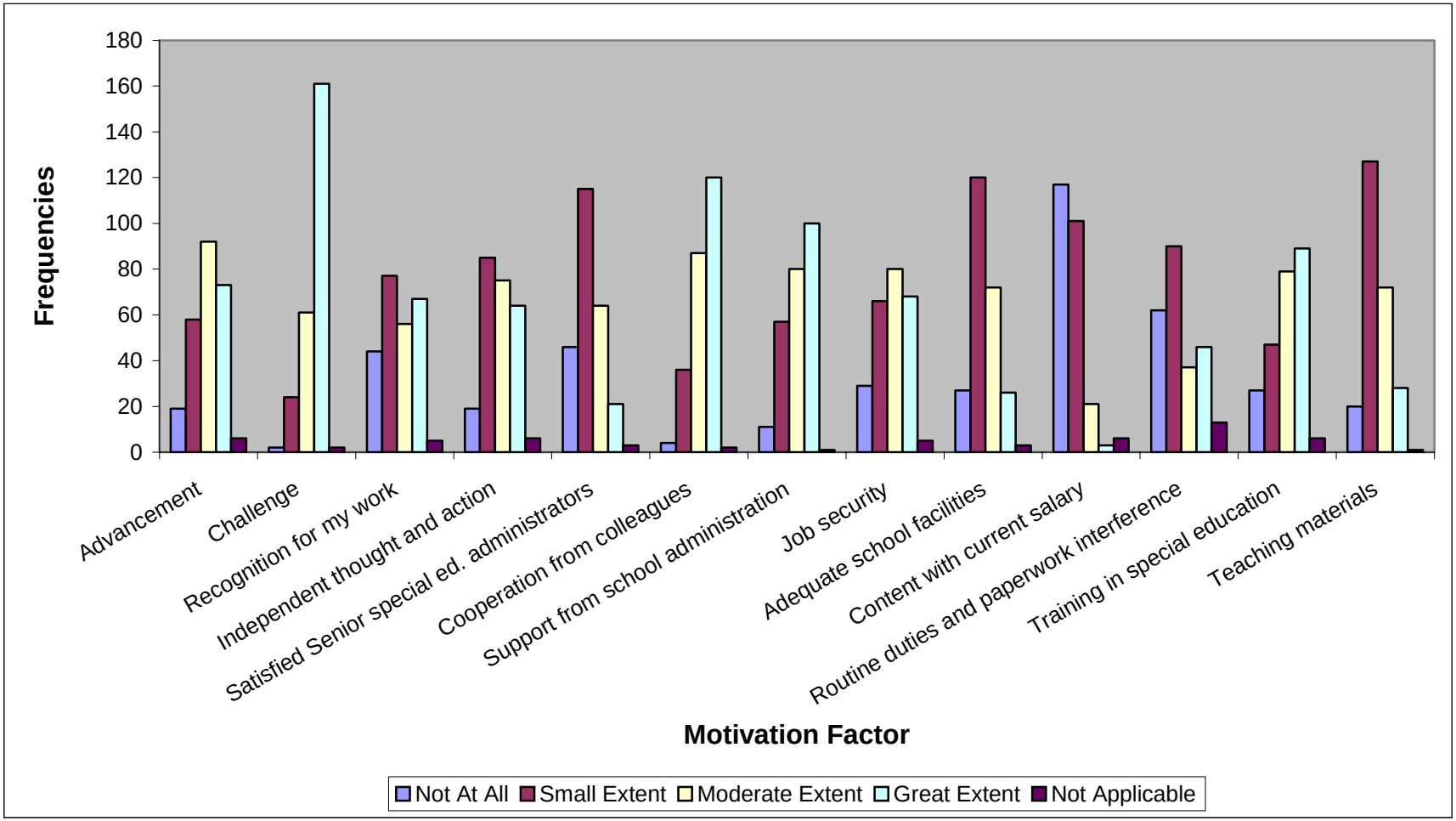


**Figure 3: Motivation factors as expressed by special education teachers based on the Teachers Satisfaction**



Figures 2 and 3 above illustrates the overall teachers' responses to both the Job Design instrument and the Teacher Satisfaction Survey instrument.

**Research Question 2:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the type of disabilities taught?

**Table 7: Summary of motivation factors identified by special education teachers by the type of disability taught by means and ranks.**

| Motivation Factor | TYPE OF DISABILITY SERVED | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **M.H no= (79)** | | **P.H no=50** | | **V.H no=17** | | **H.I no= (14)** | |
| | **mean** | **rank** | **mean** | **rank** | **mean** | **rank** | **mean** | **rank** |
| provides the use of a variety of my skills | 4.4557 | HM | 4.4167 | HM | 4..2353 | HM | 4.3558 | HM |
| provides the feeling that I am performing well | 4.0253 | HM | 4.1111 | HM | 4.1765 | HM | 3.9904 | HM |
| significantly affects the lives of others | 3.3936 | HM | 4.1944 | HM | 4.1250 | HM | 4.1942 | HM |
| gives me feedback on my work performance | 3.5582 | HM | 4.1111 | HM | 3.9412 | HM | 3.5962 | MM |
| challenging | 3.4937 | MM | 3.7222 | HM | 3.5000 | MM | 3.427 | MM |
| Provide me Independence and freedom | 3.2025 | MM | 3.7500 | HM | 3.0625 | MM | 3.4904 | MM |
| cooperation from colleagues | 3.1139 | MM | 3.3889 | MM | 37500 | HM | 3.3462 | MM |
| provides opportunity for advancement | 2.8734 | MM | 2.9722 | MM | 2.9333 | MM | 2.7596 | MM |
| Supportive school administration | 2.8354 | MM | 3.2778 | MM | 3.2500 | MM | 3.1538 | MM |
| training in special education | 2.8354 | MM | 2.1944 | MM | 2.8667 | MM | 2.7788 | MM |
| independent thought and action | 2.6962 | MM | 2.9444 | MM | 2.7500 | MM | 2.5962 | SM |
| allows personal decision on work procedure | 2.6456 | MM | 2.6944 | LM | 2.7647 | MM | 2.7788 | MM |
| security | 2..3924 | LM | 3.1111 | MM | 2.6000 | MM | 2.8558 | MM |
| availability of teaching materials | 2.3924 | L.M | 2.5833 | LM | 2.9333 | MM | 2..3750 | LM |
| routine duties and paperwork interference | 2.3038 | LM | 2.3056 | LM | 1.6000 | LM | 2.1058 | SM |
| recognition for my work | 2.2532 | LM | 2.8889 | MM | 2.8125 | MM | 2.5885 | LM |
| adequate facilities | 2.1772 | LM | 2.6944 | MM | 2.8000 | MM | 2.3173 | LM |
| satisfaction with senior special ed. administrators | 2.1139 | LM | 2.5278 | LM | 2.3750 | LM | 2.1923 | LM |
| contentment with current salary | 1.4937 | NM | 1.8333 | LM | 1.5333 | NM | 1.5673 | NM |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

As presented in table 7 above, the teachers educating students with different types of disabilities are approximately motivated by similar factors. All the teachers sampled rated the salary factor as a negative job motivator.

**Research question 3:** Are the teachers in integrated and special schools motivated by the same or different factors in relation to their jobs?

The data based on the type of school where the teachers taught (special and integrated) were tabulated and the scores for each group were calculated to find their means. Data are presented table 25 (pg.194). Results presented illustrate that teachers serving in special teachers and integrated schools, are almost equally positively motivated by similar factors. Salary was the factor rated most negatively by the teachers in both special and integrated schools.

**Research question 4;** Are the special school teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the location of their schools, (in regard to the province they are in). Data relating to the above question are summarized in table below.

**Table 8: Summary of motivation factors identified by the special education teachers by the location of their schools by means and ranks.**

| Motivation factor | SCHOOL LOCATION | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Central Province no =( 65) | | Nyanza Province no = (80) | | Eastern Province no = (63) | | Nairobi Province no = (42) | |
| | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank |
| Provides me the use of a variety of my skills | 4.1682 | HM | 4.5795 | HM | 4.2381 | HM | 4.7059 | HM |
| Provides me the feeling that i am performing well | 4.0000 | HM | 4.0909 | HM | 4.0000 | HM | 3.7647 | HM |
| Significantly affects the lives others | 3.8769 | HM | 4.3409 | HM | 4.1475 | HM | 3.7941 | HM |
| challenging | 3.6769 | HM | 3.5114 | MM | 3.5000 | MM | 3.2941 | MM |
| gives feedback on work progress | 35231 | MM | 3.9205 | HM | 3.6825 | HM | 3.3824 | MM |
| Provides opportunity for Independence and freedom | 3.2769 | MM | 3.4886 | MM | 3.4516 | MM | 3.3235 | MM |
| cooperation with colleagues | 3.1385 | MM | 3.3750 | MM | 3.4032 | MM | 3.0882 | MM |
| School administrator's Support | 2.9385 | MM | 3.1477 | MM | 3.1935 | MM | 2.9119 | MM |
| Provides opportunity for Advancement | 2.8615 | MM | 2.8636 | MM | 2.9344 | MM | 2.5294 | MM |
| special education training | 2.8462 | MM | 2.7952 | MM | 2.9672 | MM | 3.0000 | MM |
| security | 2.5846 | LM | 2.8182 | MM | 2.7541 | MM | 2.6176 | MM |
| allows personal decision on work procedure | 2.5538 | LM | 2.8636 | MM | 2.7778 | MM | 2.7647 | MM |
| independent thought and action | 2.5231 | LM | 2.7500 | MM | 2.6129 | MM | 3.0000 | MM |
| recognition for your work | 2.4615 | LM | 2.8409 | MM | 2.2581 | LM | 2.4706 | MM |
| teaching materials | 2.4615 | LM | 2.3182 | LM | 2.4262 | LM | 2.6471 | MM |
| adequate facilities | 2.3538 | LM | 2.4432 | LM | 2.3443 | LM | 2.2353 | LM |
| satisfaction with senior special education administrators | 2.2769 | LM | 2.3295 | LM | 2.2097 | LM | 1.8235 | LM |
| routine duty and paperwork interference | 2.1231 | LM | 2.2941 | LM | 2.2131 | LM | 1.8529 | LM |
| contentment with current salary | 1.5385 | NM | 1.6932 | LM | 1.5574 | NM | 1.4706 | NM |

As illustrated in table 8, special education teachers from all the four different provinces studied namely Central, Nyanza, Eastern, Nairobi were approximately motivated by similar factors. Apart from the teachers from Nyanza who felt the salary factor was slightly motivating, teachers from the other three provinces considered it not motivating.

**Research question 5**; Are special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their years of experience?

Data relating to the above question are summarized in table 26 (pg.195).

The results indicate that in spite of their years of experience, teachers from all the four provinces were positively motivated by the similar factors. Contentment with current "salary" was continuously responded to as not motivating by teachers with a teaching experience of 10 year's and below while those with more than 10 years experience found their salary slightly motivating

**Research Question 6:** Are the Special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their level of education.

**Table 9: Summary of motivation factors identified by the special education teachers by their level of education by means and ranks**.

| | LEVEL OF EDUCATION | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **MOTIVATION FACTOR** | **CPE/ KCPE No=(9)** | **KJCE No=(4)** | **KACE/ KCE No=(72)** | **EAACE/ KACE No=(25)** | **KCSE No=(54 )** | **Diploma No=(52)** | **Bachelors No=(34)** | |
| provides the use of a variety of my skills | 4.3750 | 4.5000 | 4.2778 | 4.2000 | 4.5185 | 4.4231 | 4.6176 | **Mean** |
| | HM | HM | HM | HM | HM | HM | HM | **Rank** |
| provides the feeling that am performing well | 4.3333 | 3.2500 | 3.8611 | 3.8400 | 4.1852 | 4.0000 | 4.1471 | **Mean** |
| | HM | MM | HM | HM | HM | HM | HM | **Rank** |
| alllows personal decision on work procedure | 4.1111 | 3.2500 | 2.7361 | 3.7200 | 3.0000 | 2.4808 | 2.6471 | **Mean** |
| | HM | MM | MM | MM | MM | SM | MM | **Rank** |
| gives feedback on work performance | 3.7778 | 4.2500 | 3.5556 | 3.6800 | 3.9630 | 3.5769 | 3.5882 | **Mean** |
| | HM | HM | MM | HM | HM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| significantly affects the lives of others | 3.2222 | 3.2500 | 3.9861 | 4.3600 | 4.2593 | 4.0196 | 4.0294 | **Mean** |
| | MM | MM | HM | HM | HM | HM | HM | **Rank** |
| provides freedom and Independence at work | 3.1250 | 4.0000 | 3.3750 | 3.0800 | 3.4630 | 3.3846 | 3.6176 | **Mean** |
| | MM | HM | MM | MM | MM | MM | HM | **Rank** |
| provides opportunity for advancement | 3.1111 | 1.7500 | 2.7042 | 2.7600 | 3.0370 | 2.8654 | 2.9412 | **Mean** |
| | MM | LM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| challenging | 3.0000 | 3.0000 | 3.3944 | 3.8400 | 3.5185 | 3.5962 | 3.6471 | **Mean** |
| | MM | MM | MM | HM | MM | MM | HM | **Rank** |
| recognition for your work | 3.0000 | 3.0000 | 2.3662 | 2.2800 | 2.8519 | 2.4808 | 2.6176 | **Mean** |
| | MM | MM | LM | LM | MM | LM | MM | **Rank** |
| independent thought and action | 2.7778 | 3.0000 | 2.5352 | 2.2800 | 2.8333 | 2.8654 | 3.9118 | **Mean** |
| | HM | MM | LM | LM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| satisfied with senior special ed. administrators | 2.7778 | 3.0000 | 3.1831 | 2.9200 | 3.2407 | 2.7500 | 3.2059 | **Mean** |
| | HM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| cooperation from colleagues | 2.7500 | 3.2500 | 3.2113 | 3.2400 | 3.5741 | 3.2115 | 3.1176 | **Mean** |
| | HM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| supportive school administration | 2.5000 | 3.0000 | 3.1831 | 2.9200 | 3.2407 | 2.7500 | 3.2059 | **Mean** |
| | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| job security | 2.5000 | 3.2500 | 2.6056 | 2.2800 | 3.1296 | 3.6538 | 2.6765 | **Mean** |
| | LM | MM | MM | LM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| adequate facilities | 2.5000 | 3.2500 | 2.3944 | 2.3200 | 2.5370 | 2.1731 | 2.2353 | **Mean** |
| | LM | MM | LM | LM | LM | LM | LM | **Rank** |
| contentment with current salary | 2.2500 | 1.5000 | 1.5211 | 1.4400 | 1.6667 | 1.6154 | 1.6765 | **Mean** |
| | LM | NM | NM | NM | LM | LM | LM | **Rank** |
| Routine duty and paper-work interference | 2.2222 | 2.5000 | 2.0141 | 2.7600 | 2.0926 | 2.1154 | 2.1765 | **Mean** |
| | LM | LM | LM | MM | MM | LM | LM | **Rank** |
| training in special education | "2.1250 | 3.5000 | 2.9859 | 2.7600 | 2.8704 | 2.7692 | 2.8824 | **Mean** |
| | LM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | MM | **Rank** |
| availability of teaching materials | 2.6250 | 2.7500 | 2.5915 | 2.2800 | 2.6296 | 2.2692 | 2.1471 | **Mean** |
| | LM | MM | LM | LM | MM | LM | LM | **Rank** |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivatin

The levels of education are described as follows:

**CPE;** Certificate of Primary Education **KCPE;** Kenya Certificate of Primary Education **KJCE;** Kenya Junior Certificate of Education **EACE;** East African Certificate of Education **KCE;** Kenya Certificate of Education **EAACE;** East Africa Advanced Certificate of Education

**KACE;** Kenya Advanced Certificate of Education **KCSE;** Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

As presented in table 9, the single job factor unanimously responded to by the teachers as highly motivating was “the job provided them the use of a variety of their skills”.

Three groups of teachers namely those with the Kenya Junior Certificate of Education (KJCE), East African Certificate of Education/Kenya Certificate of education (EACE/KCE), East African Advanced Certificate of Education/ Kenya Advanced Certificate of education (EAACE/KACE) responded that their salary was not motivating while the rest of the teachers responded that the same factor was slightly motivating.

**Research question 7:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their level of special education training?

**Table 10: Summary of motivation factors identified by the special education teachers by their level of special education training by means and ranks.**

| MOTIVATION FACTOR | LEVEL OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TRAINING | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | IN-SERVICE N0 = (97) | | DIPLOMA N0 = (51) | | BACHELORS N0 = (28) | |
| | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank |
| provides me the use of variety of my skills | 4.2887 | MM | 4.4314 | HM | 4.6429 | HM |
| significantly affects the lives of others | 4.1134 | MM | 4.1569 | HM | 4.3571 | HM |
| provides the feeling that am performing well | 3.9175 | MM | 2.5490 | MM | 2.5714 | MM |
| gives me feedback on my work performance | 3.7526 | MM | 3.5294 | HM | 3.7500 | HM |
| challenging | 3.4330 | MM | 3.9800 | HM | 4.1429 | HM |
| provides independence and freedom | 3.2990 | MM | 3.3600 | MM | 3.6429 | HM |
| cooperation from colleagues | 3.2784 | MM | 2.9200 | MM | 3.0357 | MM |
| school administrative support | 3.0825 | MM | 3.6078 | HM | 3.7500 | HM |
| special Education training | 2.8454 | MM | 2.3529 | LM | 2.7143 | MM |
| provides opportunity for advancement | 2.8041 | MM | 2.8627 | MM | 2.8929 | MM |
| job security | 2.7938 | MM | 1.9020 | LM | 2.0714 | MM |
| allows me to determine my work procedures | 2.7526 | MM | 2.1176 | MM | 3. 0714 | MM |
| opportunity for independent thought and action | 2.5464 | LM | 2.9216 | MM | 3.1429 | MM |
| recognition for my work | 2.4433 | LM | 2.6400 | MM | 2.6429 | MM |
| availability of teaching materials | 2.3814 | LM | 2.2400 | LM | 2.2500 | LM |
| adequate facilities | 2.3505 | LM | 1.7400 | LM | 1.5000 | NM |
| satisfied with senior special ed. administrators | 2.3093 | LM | 2.2200 | LM | 2.3214 | LM |
| routine duty and paperwork interference | 2.2.2371 | LM | 3.0200 | MM | 3.0000 | MM |
| contentment with current salary | 1.5052 | NM | 2.2800 | LM | 2.0714 | LM |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

As presented in table 10 above, teachers regardless of their level of training responded that the two motivation factors “provides me the use of a variety of my skills” and “significantly affects

the lives of others" were highly motivating. Teachers with In- service training were the only group that indicated they felt that their salary was not motivating.

**Research Question 8:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or by different factors due to differences in their gender?

As illustrated in table 27 (pg.196), both male and female teachers ranked the two factors "provides the use of a variety of my skills" and "significantly affects the lives of others" as highly motivating. On the other hand, the male teachers felt that the salary was not motivating whereas female teachers indicated that they were slightly motivated by the same factor.

**Research question 9:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their age?

As presented in table 28 (pg197), all teachers ranked two job factors namely "the jobs provided them the use of a variety of skills" and "significant effect on the lives of others" as highly motivating. The factor considered not motivating by teachers aged 30 and less was salary, older age groups indicated they were slightly motivated by this factor.

**Research Question 10:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or by different factors due to differences in their marital status?

**Table 11: Summary of motivation factors identified by the special education teachers by their marital status by means and ranks.**

| MOTIVATION FACTOR | MARITAL STATUS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Married no = 209** | | **Single no = 41** | |
| | **Mean** | **Rank** | **Mean** | **Rank** |
| provides me the use of variety of my skills | 4.6268 | HM | 4.7073 | HM |
| significantly affects others | 4.2249 | HM | 4.0732 | HM |
| provides the feeling that am performing well | 3.7895 | HM | 2.8049 | MM |
| gives feedback on work performance | 3.7177 | HM | 2.6098 | MM |
| challenging | 3.6220 | HM | 3.4634 | MM |
| cooperation from colleagues | 3.3541 | MM | 3.2195 | MM |
| independent thought & action | 3.2488 | MM | 3.0000 | MM |
| school administrative support | 3.2249 | MM | 3.4878 | MM |
| independence and freedom | 3.1866 | MM | 3.4634 | MM |
| special education training | 2.8756 | MM | 2.8537 | MM |
| job security | 2.8038 | MM | 2.4634 | LM |
| recognition for your work | 2.7990 | MM | 2.7073 | MM |
| provides opportunity for advancement | 2.7943 | MM | 2.6829 | MM |
| allows my decisions on work procedure | 2.7751 | MM | 2.4634 | LM |
| availability of materials | 2.6890 | MM | 2.9756 | MM |
| adequate facilities | 2.5789 | LM | 2.000 | LM |
| routine duties & paperwork interference | 2.5311 | LM | 2.0976 | LM |
| satisfaction with senior special education administrators | 2.0670 | LM | 2.1463 | LM |
| contentment with current salary | 1.8230 | LM | 1.7317 | LM |

**HM** Highly Motivating MM Moderately Motivating LM Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

As illustrated in table 11, both married and single teachers indicated that they were highly motivated by the fact that their job provided them the opportunity to use a variety of their skills, no factor was responded to by both groups as not motivating. However, among the factors considered by both groups as slightly motivating were, “adequate facilities”, “routine duty and paperwork interference,” and “satisfaction with senior special education administrators” and “contentment with current salary.”

**Teacher's responses to open-ended questions.**

In this section, the teachers were required to indicate any five job factors that contributed to their motivation to work. They were also required to write five job factors that negatively affect their morale and motivation, finally they were asked to write five factors that if added to their job environment would motivate them to work even better. Teachers' responses are presented in tables below:

**Open-ended question 1:** Write 1-5 things with regard to teaching special needs learners that motivate you to continue to put effort in your work.

**Table 12: Factors contributing to job motivation of the sampled special education teachers.**

**Factors contributing to the teachers' job motivation**

| Job factors | Frequency | Rank |
|---|---|---|
| Humanitarian reasons | 142 | 1 |
| Student cooperation | 67 | 2 |
| Job Security | 61 | 3 |
| Need to acquire new skills | 43 | 4 |
| Personal reasons | 37 | 5 |
| Availability of equipment | 21 | 6 |
| Positive community attitude | 15 | 7 |
| Good National administration | 13 | 8 |
| **TOTAL** | **399** | |

As can be observed from the table 12 above, illustrating the teachers' responses to open- ended questions, humanitarian reasons were more frequently given as contributing to their continued effort and motivation to work with students with disabilities, this was followed by the cooperation received from the students and then job security. Good national administration was the lowest ranked motivating factor.

**Open–ended question 2:** write 1-5 things with regard to teaching Special needs learners that negatively affect your morale and motivation to work.

**Table 13: Factors negatively affecting the morale and motivation of the sampled special education teachers.Factors Negatively Affecting the Teachers Job Motivation**

| Job factors | Frequency | Rank |
|---|---|---|
| Varied reasons. | 164 | 1 |
| Poor terms of service | 118 | 2 |
| Lack of equipment/facilities | 94 | 3 |
| Lack of special education policy | 81 | 4 |
| Poor national administration | 72 | 5 |
| Lack of proper teacher training | 40 | 6 |
| Negative attitude by society | 39 | 7 |
| Poor co-ordination among special schools | 31 | 8 |
| Poor school administration | 29 | 9 |
| Poverty related factors | 25 | 10 |
| Syllabus curriculum | 18 | 11 |
| Students' slow progress | 12 | 12 |
| **TOTAL** | **723** | |

As illustrated in table 13 above, the teachers gave varied reasons as negatively affecting their motivation and morale to teach, however, poor terms of service was the second most frequently ranked factor contributing negatively to their motivation while lack of equipment and facilities was ranked third.

**Open-ended question 3:** Write I-5 things that, if added to your work environment would motivate you to work even better.

**Table 14: Factors recommended by the sampled special education teachers by frequency and ranks.**

**Factors recommended by special education teachers**

| Job factors | Frequency | Rank |
|---|---|---|
| Improve terms of service | 241 | 1 |
| Improve national administration | 63 | 2 |
| Coordination programme among special schools | 42 | 3 |
| Improve equipment/facilities | 32 | 4 |
| Change syllabus/curriculum | 26 | 5 |
| Change attitude towards the disabled | 18 | 6 |
| Improve school administration | 15 | 7 |
| Develop policy for the disabled | 15 | 8 |
| Provide opportunity for advancing | 3 | 9 |
| Improve teachers' welfare | 3 | 10 |
| **TOTAL** | **458** | **100%** |

As shown in table 14 above, the factors ranked most highly as the teachers recommendations were the improvement of their terms of service, followed by improved national administration of special education. Other factors that followed, in rank order, were coordination among special schools, improved equipment and facilities and a change of special education syllabus.

### 5.2 Statistical Analysis

To test if there were any significant differences in the various variables stated in the hypotheses, a statistical analysis was conducted. A t-test and analysis of Variance(ANOVA) were used to

analyze the null hypotheses stated in the previous chapter. For each of the analyses, the probability was set at 0.05. The results are presented on the basis of the stated hypotheses.

**$Ho_1$** There is no significant relationship in the special education teachers' choice of motivation factors.

Pearson Correlation Coefficient was done to test whether the factors of job motivation were linearly associated with each other.

**Pearson Correlation Coefficient Test for relationship between teachers' choices of factors of job motivation.**

The first hypothesis correlates the teachers special education teachers' motivation with the job motivation factors according to the Job Design Survey and the teacher's satisfaction survey. Results are indicated in Table 15 below.

**Table 15; The correlation for relationship between teacher's choice of factors of job motivation**

| **Job Factor** | **Motivation** | **Variety of skills** | **Performing well** | **personal decision** | **feedback** | **significant effect on others** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| pearson Correlation | .000 | .216(**) | .461(**) | .312(**) | .516(**) | .389(**) |
| sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .001 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| N | 250 | 250 | 250 | 250 | 250 | 248 |
| **Job Factor** | **Advancement** | **Challenging** | **Recognition** | **Independence** | **Senior. Admn** | **Coop.from peers** |
| Pearson Correlation | .444(**) | .209(**) | .583(**) | .486(**) | .402 (**) | .386(**) |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .001 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| N | 248 | 249 | 249 | 249 | 249 | 249 |
| **Job factor** | **Admn. support** | **Security** | **Facilities** | **Salary** | **Routine duties** | **Training** |
| Pearson Correlation | .440(**) | .467(**) | .575(**) | .395(**) | .069 | .370(**) |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .280 | .000 |
| N | 249 | 248 | 248 | 248 | 248 | 248 |
| **Job factor** | **Teaching Materials** | **freedom** | | | | |
| pearson Correlation | .368(**) | .516(**) | | | | |
| sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | | | |
| **N** | **250** | **249** | | | | |

As illustrated in table 15, all the correlations between the strength measures and job motivation were positive and significant except for the job factor concerning routine duties and paperwork which has r-value of (.280). Results indicate that the r-value of the motivation factor concerned

with the provision of adequate facilities (.575), cooperation from colleagues (.516) and independent thought and action (.516) indicate a stronger relationship with the job motivation of the teachers than other factors. Based on the results therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Type of disability served and job motivation of special education teachers**

**$Ho_2$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of factors of job motivation due to variations in the type of disability served. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test whether the teachers' choices differed with the type of disability of their pupils.

**Table 16: Mean test scores and Lavene's Test for equality of variances based on the type of disability served.**

| Type of disabilty | NO. | MEAN | SD. | Source | ***D.f*** | Sum of sq. | Mean square | f. value | f.prob sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| M.H | 79 | 3.0223 | .4193 | Motivation Between groups | 4 | 2.008 | .502 | 3.175 | .014 |
| P.H | 50 | 3.2795 | .3416 | | | | | | |
| V.H | 17 | 3.2526 | .4162 | | | | | | |
| H.I | 104 | 3.0966 | .3519 | Within groups | 246 | 38.748 | .158 | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The F value was found to be significant at < = 0.05; F = 3.18, P = 0.014 < 0.05

To perform all pair wise comparisons between group means, an LSD which uses t- tests was used for this purpose. It was found that the teachers educating learners with mental disabilities (mean = 3.02), differed significantly in their choice of motivation factors to those educating learners with physical disabilities, (mean 3.28). Also, teachers educating learners with mental

disabilities differed significantly in their motivation choices to those educating the visually impaired learners (mean = 3.25). Teachers educating learners with physical disabilities were

also found to differ significantly to those teaching the learners with hearing impairment (mean = 3.09). The special education teachers educating students with multiple handicapping conditions did not have any significant difference in their choice of motivation factors with any type of disabilities. Based on the results, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Differences Between the Mean Scores of Sampled Special Education Teachers in Special Schools and Integrated Schools.**

**$Ho_3$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to their type of school.

To analyze this hypothesis, a t-test was done to find out whether special teachers teaching in special schools and those teaching in integrated schools differed significantly in their factors of job motivation. The results were as follows:

**Table 17: Mean Test Scores and t-value of the sampled special teachers in special and integrated schools.**

| Type of school | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | Df | t-value | T-Prob. Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Special school | 132 | 3.124 | 248 | 1.458 | .148 | .146 |
| Integrated school | 118 | 3.014 | | | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

Lavene's test was carried out to determine whether the variability of the scores within the two groups was the same. F = .171 p = .679; the variances were found to be the same implying that t = 1.458, df = 248 2 t-sig = .146 > 0.05 which is insignificant. The results therefore indicated that

the teachers serving in special schools (mean = 3.12) did not differ significantly in their choice of factors of job motivation with those teaching in integrated schools (mean = 3.01). Based on the results therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

**School location and job motivation of special education teachers**

**$Ho_4$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to their school location. A One-Way ANOVA was done to test if the teachers' choices of motivation factors differed with their school location.

**Table 18: Mean test scores and Lavene's Test for equality of variances for teachers in different provinces.**

| Provinces | No | Mean | SD | Source | ***D.f*** | Sum of squares | Mean squares | F-value | F.prob Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Central | 65 | 3.010 | .3484 | Motivation | | | | | |
| Nyanza | 80 | 3.200 | .3820 | Between | 4 | 1.764 | .588 | 711 | .012 |
| Eastern | 63 | 3.139 | .4373 | groups | | | | | |
| Nairobi | 42 | 3.020 | .4497 | Within groups | 246 | 38. 992 | .159 | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The F- value was found to be significant at < = 0.05; F = 3.711, P = 0.012 < 0.05.

To perform all pair-wise comparisons between group means, a multiple comparison test was done using LSD at < = 0.05 and it was found that teachers in Central Province (mean =3.01) differed significantly in their choices of motivation level to those in Nyanza (Mean = 3.20). and

to those in Nairobi Province (mean =3.02). The special education teachers based in Eastern Province however, did not differ significantly in their choices of job motivation factors with other provinces. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Years of Experience and Job Motivation of the Special Education Teachers.**

**$Ho_5$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to variations in their years of experience. A One-Way ANOVA was used to test whether the teachers' job motivation differed with the number of years of experience.

**Table 19: Mean scores for equality of variances of the special education teachers and their years of experience.**

| Years of Experience | No. | Means | SD. | source | *D.f* | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | F.Prob. Sig |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than | 11 | 3.145 | .3770 | motivation | | | | | |
| 1-5 | 29 | 3.042 | 4411 | Between | 4 | 196 | 4.912 | .301 | |
| 6-10 | 57 | 3.145 | .4138. | groups | | | | | .877 |
| 11-15 | 64 | 3.142 | 3966 | Within | 241 | 39.320 | 163 | | |
| above 16 | 89 | 3.163 | .3159 | groups | | | | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The results indicate that the f- value was insignificant at > = 0.05; f = .301, P = .877 > 0.05. Based on the results, the null hypothesis was accepted stating that there was no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to their years of experience.

**Level of Education and Job Motivation of Special Education Teachers**

**Ho$_6$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' job motivation due to variations in their level of education. A One-Way ANOVA has been used to test whether teachers' choice of job motivation factors differed with their level of education.

**Table 20: Mean test and Lavenes test for equality of variances for special education teachers based on their level of education.**

| Level of Education | No. | Mean | SD | Source | *D.f* | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | T-value | T. prob. Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| KJCE | 49 | 3.2706 | .3916 | Motivation Between groups | 7 | 2.156 | 359 | 2.263 | .038 |
| CPE/KCPE | 72 | 3.1847 | .4259 | | | | | | |
| EACE/KCE | 25 | 3.0495 | .4050 | | | | | | |
| EAACE | 54 | 3.0213 | .3759 | Within groups | 243 | 38.600 | 159 | | |
| KCSE | 52 | 3.2563 | .3600 | | | | | | |
| DIPLOMA | 34 | 3.0310 | .4509 | | | | | | |
| BACHELOR | 25 | 3.0165 | | | | | | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The f- value was found to be significant at < = 0.05; f = 2.263, P = 0.038 < 0.05

A further multiple comparison was done using LSD at < = 0.05 so as to perform all pair-wise comparisons between group means. The LSD uses a t- test to perform the comparisons. The results showed that teachers who were educated up to EACE/ KCE level differed significantly in their choice of factors to those educated at KCSE (mean 3.25). The teachers educated at KSCE level also differed in their job motivation with those educated at EAACE/KACE (mean 3.02). The KCSE teachers were again found to differ significantly with their job motivation to the Diploma teachers (mean 3.03). Based on the results, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Level of Special Education Training and Job Motivation for Special Education Teachers.**

**Ho$_7$** There is no significant difference in the choice of job motivation factors due to their level of special education training.

A one-way ANOVA was used to test if the teachers' job motivation differed with their level of special training.

**Table 21: Mean test scores for equality of variances for the teachers based on the level of training.**

| Level of Training | No. | Mean | SD | Source | *d.f* | Sum of squares | Mean Squares | T-value | f.Prob. sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Inservice | 97 | 3.0813 | | Motivation Between groups | 2 | .331 | .166 | 1.157 | .317 |
| Diploma | 51 | 3.0567 | | | | | | | |
| Bachelor | 28 | 3.1878 | | | | | | | |
| | | | | within groups | 173 | 24.776 | .143 | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The f- value was found to be insignificant at > = 0.05, F = 1.157, P = .317 > 0.05.

Based on the results therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there as no significant difference in the special education teacher's job motivation and their level of special training was accepted.

**Male and Female Special Education Teachers and Job Motivation**

**Ho$_8$** there is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to their gender. An independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if the male and female teachers differed significantly in their choices of job motivation factors.

**Table 22: Mean scores and t-test of male and female special education teachers.**

| Gender | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | *Df* Degree of freedom | F value | f probability |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | 107 | 3.137 | .3797 | 248 | .930 | .353 |
| Female | 143 | 3.087 | .4224 | | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

Lavene's test was done to determine if the variability of the scores within the groups was the same. f= 1.080; P = .300; the variances were found to be the same. This signified that t = .930, *df* .248, 2T significant = .353 > 0.05. The results therefore showed that there was no significant difference in the male teacher's (mean 3.137) job motivation and that of the female teachers (mean 3.089). The null hypothesis stating that that there was no significant difference in the teachers' choice of job motivation factors based on their gender was therefore accepted.

**Age Groups of the Teachers and their Job Motivation**

**$Ho_9$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their age. A one-way ANOVA was used to test whether the special teachers differed in their choices on the basis of age.

**Table 23: Mean test scores for equality of variances of teachers based on their age**

| AGE | No. | Mean | SD | Source | *df* | sum of squares | Mean squares | f value | f. prob. Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| less than 30 | 27 | 3.0806 | .5047 | Motivation Between groups | 3 | 6.08 | 3.044 | 185 | .831 |
| 31-45 | 169 | 3.1065 | .3799 | | | | | | |
| Above 45 | 54 | 3.1356 | .4307 | Within groups | 247 | 40.69 | .165 | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

The f- value was found to be insignificant at > = 0.05; F = .831, P = .831 > 0.05 . Based on the results, the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their age was accepted.

**Gender of the Teachers and their Job Motivation**

**$Ho_{10}$** There is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to differences in their gender.

An independent sample t-test was done to find out whether the married and single special education teachers differed significantly in their job motivation. The results were as follows:

**Table 24: Mean scores and t-tests for marital status of special education teachers.**

| Marital status | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | Degree of freedom | t-value | T (sig) Probablity |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Married | 209 | 6.3887 | .8309 | 248 | 2..741 | 0.007 |
| Single | 41 | 6.0102 | .6807 | | | |

Significant at .05 confidence level

Lavenes test was done to determine whether the variability of the scores within the groups was the same. The variances were found to be different implying that the

t =2.741,df = 248 2 T-significant =0.007< 0.05 which is significant.

The married special education teachers had therefore a higher mean of (6.3887) on job motivation than those who were single, with a mean of (6.0102). Based on the results, the null hypothesis stating there were no significant differences in the teachers' choice of job motivation based on their marital status was hence rejected.

# CHAPTER SIX

# DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

## 6.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the major findings of the study are discussed, interpreted and explained in terms of the motivation factors influencing the special education teachers studied.

## 6.1 Discussion

The discussion of the findings of the present research is centred on the major research questions directing the study. The research questions are as follows:

**Research question 1:** What are the overall factors identified by the special education teachers as motivating with regard to their jobs?

The overall factors identified by the special education teachers studied are summarized in table 6 (pg. 90), while figure 2 and 3 (pg. 92 and 93) provide a summary of the ranking of the motivation factors by the teachers.

The statistical analysis table 15 (pg. 107) indicates that all correlations between the measures of job satisfaction were positive and significant. Therefore, Ho 1 stating that there is no significant relationship in the special education teachers' choice of motivation factors was rejected.

A closer look at table 6 shows the detailed teachers' responses to the Job Design Survey instrument and Teachers' Satisfaction Questionnaire. The most outstanding factors identified by the respondents, as highly contributing to their job motivation was " provides me the use of a variety my skills". Other highly ranked factors were "significantly effects the lives of others" and "provided them the feeling that I am performing well".

These findings concur with Hackman and Oldham's (1975) theory which posits that the occurrence of strong internal motivation to work is caused by job factors such as finding the work significant, knowledge of results, and skill variety in order to sustain a strong internal work motivation. They describe skill variety as the extent to which a job requires different activities using various skill abilities. The same theory argues that a challenge that stretches employees' abilities and skills causes the employees to perceive the work as meaningful. Therefore, the more skills used by the employee, the more meaningful the task appears to be for him or her.

Ebru (1995) posits that providing opportunities for employees to improve their skills is an effective way of improving their retention rates by increasing their motivation while at the same time preparing them for higher-level jobs within the organization. He therefore urges employers to invest in the education and skills of all their employees. The theory by Hackman and Oldham, in support of this notion, points out that a person who has insufficient knowledge and skill will experience negative feelings for performing poorly.

The findings of the present study correspond to those of previous researchers such as Alderfer (1986) and Cooper (1994), who find that the opportunity to use one's valued skills and abilities are significant work variables which positively relate to work interest and motivation. Skill variety may feature highly as a job motivator for the teachers due to the kind of activities performed by them. The skills may include tasks such as providing individualized instruction according to the specific needs of the students, establishing conducive learning environments, assisting the students in activities of daily living and collaborating with interdisciplinary personnel to provide support services among several other duties that are part of the daily routine of a special education teacher. Since the use of their skill is considered a strong motivator for teachers, the administration in special education needs to capitalize on that by

providing frequent refresher courses for them to update on methods and skills. This will stimulate them to persist in their effort of educating special needs children. The second factor consistently ranked “highly motivating” by the respondents in the present study was that the job significantly affects the lives of others. The theory by Hackman and Oldham (1975) illustrates that for a job to be motivating, it must have a meaningful impact on the lives of others. Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham maintain that for a job to have high motivating potential, factors that foster meaningfulness to a job must be present. If these factors are present, the employee is more likely to perceive his job as meaningful. The present study reveals that special education teachers prevalently regard their job as having significant impact on the lives of others. This may be because it involves providing services to students with special needs. These students with special needs have for a long time been considered as invalids by the society, especially in Africa. Empirical evidence indicates that most of these teachers are known to be sympathetic towards such handicapped students and recognize that they have hopes, dreams, and aspirations like all people. They also know that they, as teachers, have a special ability to help students with disabilities to become productive members of the society. It is therefore important that administrators foster the goodwill of the educators by providing them with conducive working environment in order to ensure their internal drive is maintained.

Results from the teachers’ satisfaction survey instrument, by Herzberg’s (1959) show that factors highly ranked as motivating by the special education teachers include “challenging” and “cooperation received from their colleagues”. Some trends in these findings are not in line with Herzberg’s (1959) theory, cooperation from colleagues, factor ranked as highly motivating by the special education teachers for example, does not feature as a satisfier in the theory by Herzberg, but is generally classified as a dissatisfiers unable to contribute to satisfaction or motivation of a worker. This result also negates findings by Dunnet et al., (1998) who argue that job dimensions such as achievement, recognition and responsibility for the job are important job factors leading to the satisfaction of a worker and not peer relations. Cooperation from

colleagues is a highly valued job factor since the teachers need to consult with each other from time to time in order to share experiences and encourage one another in their endeavors. Arkinson (1978) suggests that for most people, work provides fellowship and social life hence the tendency to receive satisfaction from social relationships is a long recognized human attribute. Morse and Weissman (1982) posit that satisfaction at work is socially motivated as evidenced by the respondents in their study. The current study shows that the respondents also frequently cited the job factor “challenging” as a motivator. Schmid and Nagata (1983) explain that the challenges faced by the special education teachers involve planning and implementing the Individualized Education Programs (IEP) for each student and ensuring that they are strictly adhered to. They also have to deal constantly with the individual learning and behaviour problems of the students along with their other duties. This may indeed pose challenges to the teachers from time to time. The lowest ranked motivation factor by the respondents was “contentment with current” salary. To support this Bellot and Tutor (1990) reveal that salary is the single most important influence to teachers’ motivation and that they perceive salary increase to be tied to achievement and to other motivation factors. Other factors ranked least motivating were availability of “teaching materials”, “adequate school facilities”, “routine duty and paperwork interference”, and “satisfaction with senior special education administrators”.

Some trends in the present study, regarding low motivators are in line with various past studies such as those conducted by Sifuna (1973) who found that inadequate pay and lack of material benefits were considered as dissatisfiers among primary school teachers in Kenya, while the study by Karugu (1980) also identifies inadequate pay as dissatisfiers among primary school teachers in Nairobi. Mukiebe (1995) in addition, asserts that inadequate remuneration for teachers in Kenya has led to low teaching morale, causing major setbacks in the teaching and learning process. A recent research carried out by Ingham (2000) suggests that individuals who believe that they are inadequately paid are often dissatisfied with their jobs. Findings by Persson

(1994) however, in a study on Swedish companies indicate that payment is not a motivational aspect since the level of salary is often decided outside the organization. Mackenzie and Lee (1997) point out though that, the question does not concern payment level alone but also what the general management is using as the appropriate incentive system.

The theory by Vroom (1964) asserts the importance of economic consequences in guiding human conduct. He argues that an individual's motivation to produce depends upon his particular needs as reflected in the goals towards which he is moving. The individual holds certain personal expectations in terms of the form and amount of reward that he or she should receive for the provided services. Therefore Vroom theorizes that the performance of such a person, as well as the decision to remain in the organization, is influenced by the extent to which their expectations are met. If the needs of special education teachers are not met then, they may eventually choose to leave their career. Vroom however points out that it would be incorrect to link the importance of money purely to the satisfaction of biological needs of an employee in that goods and services purchased with money may also serve as an indicator of social status. Maslow's Needs Theory (1954) further supports the notion that human beings are wanting beings who are continuously striving to find ways of satisfying their needs. An individual is motivated to reach a particular goal because he or she has an internally generated need to reach it. The theory also shows that human needs ascend from the most basic survival needs to self-actualization.

While the present study supports this theory by Maslow, it does not support the idea of one need arising, then another need taking its place as this has not been evidenced in the findings. Results from the open-ended questions indicate that poor terms of service was cited most frequently by the teachers as negatively affecting their motivation. Many teachers indicated that the special allowance given to them for handling learners with special needs is far too minimal to motivate them It is interesting to note that salary, as reported in the previous studies has also featured

quite low as a job motivator in the current study. It would appear that the position of special education teachers on the issue of remuneration is not different from regular teachers. Furthermore, it seems that not much has improved much over the past years with regard to the issue of teachers' salaries. The aforementioned responsibilities may have caused teachers in the present study to feel that the salary awarded to them including the special education allowance is too minimal compared to the duties performed. It is therefore imperative that the government, as proposed in RoK Report (1999), accords them a suitable salary scheme to ensure these teachers remain content and motivated to their jobs.

Adequate teaching materials was also ranked as a low motivating factor. This confirms the report given by the Ministry of Education during the ICE conference held in Geneva (2001), showing that the quality of education has deteriorated in Kenya at all levels owing to limited learning materials. The policy requiring parents to provide facilities required by the school worsened the situation. Following this policy, school committees and parents associations are expected to subsidize these, but some have not lived up to these expectations due to the poor economic status of most parents with students having disabilities.

Special schools in the Kenya, especially those in the rural areas have been found to be affected most by lack of facilities. The fact that these schools require specialized expensive materials such as Braille machines for the blind and audiometers for the deaf makes the situation critical. In Kenya, most children with disabilities come from very poor backgrounds where their parents can barely manage to afford school fees for them, thus causing them to depend on donations from well-wishers. The supply of teaching material is of great concern to the respondents, perhaps because it plays such a central role in the outcome of the teaching and learning process. To achieve equitable education for all, the government ought to take the special responsibility of

ensuring that adequate teaching and learning materials are made available to special schools to enable proper classroom instruction.Another job factor mentioned as a low motivator by the teachers was “routine duty and paperwork interference”. This confirms the study by Gay (1998) who found that the workload of teachers has long been identified as an ongoing problem in the area of Special Needs Education. Steeno (1994) also found that the workload factor contributed most to the stress and dissatisfaction of both the elementary and secondary resource teachers. MacBride (1983) asserts that the most frequently reported causes of job-related stress for special education teachers were excessive clerical work, overcrowded classrooms, supervisory duties and the implementation of individualized instruction among others. It is interesting to note that factors which stress the teachers as reported in the previous studies are not very different from the factors regarded as least motivating in the current investigation. There is empirical evidence that the workload of teachers has increased in special schools. While special education teachers are generally used to working hard for a good cause and many cite the humanitarian factor, such as love for handicapped children as their motivation to serve students with disabilities; if their goodwill is exploited, the results can be counter-productive. The special education administration should implement strategies for reducing the teachers’ workload so as to better manage the job motivation of teachers. It is evident from the findings of the present study that the theories of Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Herzberg (1959) can be applied to the primary and secondary special education teachers in Kenya. It was, however, noted that the majority of dissatisfiers in the current study were the hygiene factors given by Herzberg (1959). In general, these findings agree with Herzberg’s theory, but when looked at more critically, the researcher disagrees with some trends in Herzberg’s findings such as “administrative support”, a motivator according to Herzberg, but cited as a major dissatisfier by the special education teachers.

Other researchers such as Bellot and Tutor (1990) found that teachers can be motivated by both motivation and the hygiene factors suggested by Herzberg (1959). Following these findings, it

was apparent that both the job design and teacher satisfaction factors used by the researcher should be applied when endeavoring to increase the motivation of special education teachers. There is a need for the continuous redesigning of the teachers' work environment so that the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors may be maximized.

**Research question 2**: Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the type of disability taught?

Trends observed in examining table 7 (pg. 94 ) indicate that teachers educating students with different types of disabilities were approximately motivated by similar factors namely " variety of skills", "the feeling that I am performing well" and "significantly effects others' lives." On the other hand, "adequate facilities", " satisfaction with senior special education administrators", "routine duty and paper-work interference", were among the least motivating factors cited by respondents. Contentment with current salary was lowest ranked job motivator.

Results from the One-Way ANOVA test presented in table 16, (pg. 108), indicate that there are significant differences among the teachers educating students with different types of disabilities. Those teaching learners with mental disabilities differ significantly in their job motivation to those educating students having physical disabilities. They also differ significantly to those serving students with visual impairments. Teachers of the physical impaired on the other hand, differ significantly in their response to motivation factors to teachers educating students with hearing impairments. The null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors due to the type of disability served is therefore rejected. It can thus be concluded that the type of disability served influences the teachers' motivation for his or her job. Zabel (1983) illustrates that01 high levels of stress may be caused by the fact that educating students with severe mental disabilities involves, what the members of society may perceive as, "dirty work". Other challenging services may include

struggling with the irrational behaviour of verbally and physically abusive mentally challenged students. Teachers educating these children have to constantly deal with the emotions aroused by such situations. Other contributors of low motivation for teachers may result from the fact that schools for the mentally challenged children in Kenya do not have a syllabus and have to make do with what is used for those who are not disabled, (Wanyama, 2003). Using such a general syllabus that is insensitive to needs of these students may lead to lack of academic success on the part of students. Lack of perceived students' success as suggested by MacBride (1983) could easily lead to teachers' low self-esteem and burnout. This could explain why teachers for the mentally handicapped indicated lower motivation in the current study as compared to the teachers educating students with physical or visual impairments. Teachers educating students with hearing impairments also cited lower motivation than those teaching physically handicapped students.

Educating students with hearing impairments places different demands on a teacher such as the need to learn sign language. It has been reported that not all teachers are conversant with the Kenyan sign language (KSL). Crume et al., (1999) assert that the main barrier in education for the deaf is the lack of effective communication. They point out that many teachers sign poorly and make little effort to improve their signing ability causing communication barrier with the students. Even for those who can sign well, they argue that there is a great amount of confusion on the proper mode to use with deaf children i.e. the Kenya Sign Language for Schools (KSS) or Kenya Sign Language (KSL). A report by the KSPH,(1999) indicates that students with hearing impairments most often perform poorly in national examinations. Among the reasons given in explaining the poor performance were that there is no specific curriculum designed for deaf children; they are supposed to adhere to the same curriculum used in regular schools. Working with such a general curriculum has been known to culminate in poor results on the part of the students, consequently eroding the morale of teachers. The report by the KSPH (1999) further argues that the 8-4-4 curriculum is too broad and that deaf students have problems grasping

subjects like Kiswahili, Music, Religious Studies and History. Also highlighted in the report is lack of specialized equipment for teaching the hearing impaired students. To support this notion, results of the open–ended questions indicate that the respondents frequently mentioned communication as one of the major factors affecting their morale to teach. Another obstacle, as observed by Crume et.al., (1999), is that the examination process of the Kenyan education system is insensitive to the students, in that the standardized tests written in English are far beyond the understanding of many children. Crume et al., (1999) further posit that comparing the KCPE results of schools for the deaf alongside the regular schools does little to benefit the schools for the deaf since these schools are in different categories and the schools for the deaf are almost guaranteed to be the last in every district. From the results of the present study, it is apparent that the special education teachers of different types of disabilities do not have similar problems with regard to their job.

The evidence provided on the problems associated with serving different categories of disabilities may indicate why significant differences exist in the motivation of special education teachers. The present study clearly shows why the type of disability served by the respondents influences these differences. This poses a challenge to the policy-makers, special education administrators and other stakeholders in that, problems associated with serving different types of disability must not be overlooked when deciding on an appropriate incentive system for special education teachers.

**Research question 3:** Are the teachers in integrated and special schools motivated by the same or different factors in relation to their jobs?

Information in table 17 (pg.109), presents the results by means and ranks of teachers based in special and integrated schools; table 25 (pg.179), on the other hand presents the t-test results of the comparison between the two groups.

The teachers in integrated and regular schools were approximately motivated by the same job factors i.e, the job “provides the use of a variety of my skills”, “ Significantly affects the lives of others”, “provides the feeling that I am performing well” and “gives me feedback on my work progress” were continuously rated as highly motivating by both integrated and special school teachers. The least motivating factor cited by the teachers was contentment with current salary. A closer look at table 4 indicates that special schools had slightly higher mean scores on factors regarded as highly motivating than integrated schools teachers. A t-test revealed that there are however no significant statistical differences in the job motivation between the two groups of views with regard to the factors affecting their motivation to teach students with disabilities. Therefore, when implementing motivation strategies, all teachers regardless of whether they are in special or integrated schools, should be addressed collectively as evidence shows that they do not differ significantly in their motivation.

**Research question 4:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the location of their schools?

Data in table 8 (pg. 96), in chapter 4 present the answer to this question while information in table 18, (pg. 110), presents the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results. It was found that teachers based in the four provinces had similar preference to job motivation factors such as, “the job provides me the use of a variety of my skills , “ provides me the feeling that I am performing well” and “significantly affect the lives of others.” “Contentment with current salary” was consistently considered not motivating by teachers across the provinces except for those based in Nyanza province who felt it was a least motivating job factor. Other least motivating factors cited by the teachers were routine duty and paperwork interference, satisfaction with senior special education administrators and “adequate facilities”.

A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), showed that teachers in Nyanza Province differed significantly in their motivation level to teachers based in Central province; similarly, the teachers in Nyanza differed significantly to those in Nairobi. Teachers based in Eastern Province did not differ significantly in their choices of job motivation to those in the other provinces. The findings therefore indicated that the province in which a teacher is based had an influence on their responses to job motivation. Hence, it can be concluded that special education teachers based in Nyanza Province were better motivated than those based in Nairobi and Central provinces. The hypothesis staing that there is no significant difference in the special education teachers choice of job motivation and their school location was thus rejected.

This trend in response may signify a variation in the working environment of teachers in the sampled provinces of the country. These variations may include the economic disparities existing across the provinces in the Kenya. Respondents based in Central and Nairobi provinces may be faced with similar economic pressures due to their proximity to the urban lifestyle. Respondents based in Nyanza province however, may not experience the same economic pressure since they have access to their basic needs without the influence the urban lifestyle imposes. These findings concur with those of Lancaster (1992) who sought to determine the sources of job stress and low morale among the special education teachers. His results revealed that special education teachers who taught in urban areas had higher stress scores and had lower morale when compared to those who taught in suburban areas. The present results however negate previous researches such as that of Macintosh (1986). In his study, teacher retention is seen as a problem mainly found in rural districts among special education teachers. Macintosh further adds that turnover is especially acute among professionals who must travel long distances from site to site in order to serve on an itinerant.

A study of rural teacher turnover in Kansas indicated that 20.9 percent of teachers in the study sample did not return the following year. Of those who did not return, 70.7 percent had

accepted positions in larger school districts. Many teachers reportedly resigned because of the isolation of their social and cultural lives. Furthermore, the teachers' level of community satisfaction, which was the largest determinant of whether a teacher remained in the rural community, was affected to the greatest extent by marital status. There is empirical evidence that many rural educators feel professionally isolated. Capper (1993) indicates that teachers in rural areas may find it difficult to participate in professional development opportunities because of the distance of travel involved, (Capper 1993).

The present study however contrasts these findings by showing that teachers in Nyanza province, which is based in a rural area, indicated higher motivation than those in Nairobi or the Central Province. Hence, the researcher theorizes that teachers based in urban centre and its proximity in the Central Province where the research was conducted, are required to struggle more to make ends meet with their meagre income, compared to those in rural Kenya, such as the Nyanza Province. Furthermore, they may constantly compare themselves to others in better paying professions working in the city which may contribute to the negative impact on their morale. The two mentioned provinces also constitute the highest concentration of government maintained special schools, which may result in higher student enrollment rates compared to other regions in the country. This being the case, one would expect high teacher/student ratios which have been known to impact negatively on the morale of teachers. The situation of large classrooms is likely to lower the morale of teachers who must attend to each individual need of the students with disabilities. Teachers in the Nyanza Province on the other hand, may not have the same kind of economic pressures such as rent payments and daily transport costs to and from their workplace. Also, compared to their peers in the villages, those teaching in rural areas may seem comparatively better off since they have a sound and steady source of income. They may even enjoy the admiration and respect of their peers due to their profession. To lend support to this idea, Ejiogu postulates that Africans place a lot of value on one's position in the society and view income as a means of establishing their status within the community. Ebru (1995) also

points out that workers usually compare their working conditions with the conditions of the society, under the variable of social conditions. If the social conditions of an individual are perceived as worse than the his or her working conditions, the workers deem themselves as being in a relatively good position. Furthermore, the theory by Vroom (1964), illustrates that a person's career choice is affected by their present and other careers, with regard to the perception of the expected outcomes and rewards. He further adds that another career will be highly valued by an individual if it as perceived in resulting in better work outcomes.

These findings imply that teachers are motivated differently based on their job location. Closer attention need to be given to factors inherent in the Nairobi and Central provinces that are negatively related to teacher' motivation. Administrators in special education should assess the working conditions of teachers across all the provinces in terms of school facilities, equipment, workloads, teacher-pupil ratio and other factors therein, dictated by the geographical location of the special schools. This information will enable them understand the conditions under which teachers work, therefore, enabling them to plan strategies on how to improve their work environment specifically as well as in general and reward them according to the difficulties imposed by their job location.

**Research question 5:**

Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their years of experience?

Information presented in table 26 (pg. 180), shows the data concerning this information while table 19 (pg. 111) presents the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) results. The results showed that teachers, irrespective of their years of experience, had a lot of similarities in their choice of factors that they considered highly motivating. They highly ranked "provides the use of a variety of my skills", "significantly affects the lives of others", and "provides the feeling that I am performing well" as the factors contributing most to their job motivation. The statistical

analysis using a one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showed that there is no difference in the job motivation of teachers based on their years of experience. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation and their years of experience is accepted.

Closer observation of the results reveal slight differences in the responses of the teachers with an experience of 16 years or more, who showed higher motivation by job factors than the other groups of teachers. This concurs with Kimengi (1991) who argues that, as teachers grow older, they learn to adjust their expectations to more realistic levels and therefore become more content with the existing rewards. Another variation in response noted is the motivation in regard to their salary. Teachers with an experience of 10 years or less feel that their salary is not motivating while those teachers with an experience of 11 or more found their salary least motivating. This may lend support to the fact that the more years a teacher spend on the job, the higher their annual salary increments and the higher the grade level, thus creating significant salary differences for those who are young in the profession. On the other hand, it may imply that the younger teachers tend to favor material rewards more as opposed to the older teachers who may place more value on job security. Other studies done on the topic such as that of David (1997) indicates that as the years of experience of female teachers increase, their motivation level with their work in general, as well as with their superiors, tended to decrease. In addition, Gatzke (1993), found that an increase in the teaching experience was associated with a decrease in both desire for professional development incentives and job satisfaction. Another study by Goodwin (1998) on the other hand indicates that there are significant statistical differences in the job satisfaction of the teachers and the number of years served in the current position. Job motivation according to Goodwin (1998) increases with the duration spent in the current position. Karugu (1980) also shows that the satisfaction of the elementary school teachers increase with their experience on the job.

A one-way ANOVA test carried out to determine the statistical significance within the different groups in the current study however, indicates that there is no significant difference in the job motivation of the teachers based on the years of experience. It can thus be concluded that a variation in the respondents' years of experience had no influence in their job motivation.

This is an interesting outcome because it implies that even with increasing years in their career, the special education teachers are not responding differently. Hence, according to the study findings, special education teachers, irrespective of the duration spent in their career are affected by job factors in the same way.

**Research question 6:** Are the Special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their level of education?

Table 9 (pg. 98) provides information showing the frequency and ranks of the results of special education teachers based on their level of education. Table 20 (pg. 112) presents the ANOVA results for the comparison between the different levels of education of the teachers.

Result on table 9 indicates that the only two job factors unanimously responded to as highly motivating unanimously by all the different groups of teachers according top their level of education were "the job provides me the use of a variety of my skills" and "provides me the feeling that I am performing well." On the other hand, respondents unanimously ranked contentment with current salary as the least motivating factor. Results of the one way ANOVA test indicate that there are significant differences in the teachers' responses based on their level of education. A closer examination shows that teachers educated up to KCSE level differed significantly in their job motivation to those educated at EACE/KACE, KCE and EAACE/KACE levels of education, in that they appear to be better motivated. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the special education teachers' job motivation and their level of education is thus rejected.

This trend in results indicates that respondents with a lower education level appear better motivated with their jobs than those with higher education training. This may imply that having a stable job gratifies those with lower education while those with a higher level of training may feel their educational effort has not been equitably rewarded. A recent study by Ingham (2000), supports this notion by asserting that individuals who feel inequitably paid are often dissatisfied with their jobs. He adds that the basis of the desire for inequitable pay is the desire for justice and fairness. Another motivating factor for teachers with KCSE level of education may be the shorter number of years spent in school, as well as having a secure job during a time when receiving posting for teachers was no longer guaranteed.

The resulting effect on teachers with higher education may be a feeling of dissatisfaction, that, if not addressed promptly, may result in negative behaviours such as absenteeism and low job morale which can be detrimental to the teaching and learning process. Some studies citing reasons for deteriorating academic achievement of school children conclude that the influence of classroom variables, such as the education level of the teacher, is of greater importance in developing countries than in other countries. This is a strong argument in favour of improving teacher education especially in developing countries (EFA 2000). To counteract the possibility of highly educated teachers choosing better paying careers and leaving teaching for lower educated personnel, it is necessary that a salary system equitable to their level of education is provided for them.

**Research question 7:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in the level of training in special education?

The results of this research question are presented in table 10 (pg. 100) which shows frequency and ranks of the teachers based on their level of special education training while table 21 (pg. 113) depicts the ANOVA results of the comparisons of the different levels of training.

The teachers irrespective of their level of training considered two job factors namely, “provides me the use of a variety of skills” and “significantly affects the lives of others” as highly motivating. Teachers with Bachelor’s special education degree however appeared to be highly motivated with the two job factors than the rest of the groups. This could indicate that these teachers have slightly higher motivation due to the higher level of training received, as well as the salary and grade increment awarded upon the completion of their special education degree course. On the other hand, it can also be argued that they may be more motivated because they are better equipped to handle students with disabilities than those with lesser training qualifications, while at the same time, their self-esteem is enhanced after receiving a Bachelors degree as compared to their counterparts with lesser special education qualifications. “Contentment with current salary” and “adequate teaching materials” are consistently cited by the educators as least motivating as well as “satisfaction with senior special education administrators”.

The ANOVA results presented on table 21 however, indicate that there were no significant statistical differences in the responses based on the level of special education training of the teachers. It can thus be concluded that special education teachers’ job-motivation remains unaltered regardless of the special education training they had received. These findings differ from the expected trend that the higher the level of training that a teacher receives, the more motivated he or she will be. The assumption is that the higher level of training the teacher receives, the better equipped a teacher is to handle these learners, hence the more motivated he is. This is however, not the case in the findings of the present study. As illustrated by Ebru (1995), insufficient education and training, inability to select qualified workers for the job, lack of communication and lack of job definitions, all affect job motivation negatively.

Another factor implicated by the educators as negatively affecting their motivation was “administrative support” indicating this plays a significant role in providing motivation and

morale for teachers. Hersom (1993) found that lack of help and support from the administration contributes to the environmental stress on special education teachers. Williams (1993) similarly found that the administrative climate had the greatest effect on the perception of job satisfaction for both general and special education teachers. In Kenya, Wihenya (2003) argues that the indifference of special education officials manifested by the Ministry of Education lacks records on the number of students with disability. He observes that in such circumstances, it is difficult to plan for them. He further asserts that the Ministry of Education lacks professionals trained in special education, thus seriously jeopardizing the provision of services to students with special needs in Kenya. The results of the open-ended questions support the fact that the senior special education teachers negatively motivate special education teachers. Many teachers feel that there is laxity and ignorance on the part of the administrators regarding the issues affecting special schools in the country.

It is vital that educational administrators to note the sentiments expressed by the special education teachers concerning their views about the senior administrative officials. It is frequently suggested that the consideration of a supervisor for the needs or feelings of his subordinates has positive effects on their motivation to perform their jobs effectively. It is assumed that the more considerate and employee-oriented the supervisor is, the greater the extent to which the subordinates will strive to do their jobs well (Davis, (1992). Senior special education officials may need to inform themselves on the needs of special education teachers as well as the factors affecting them in order to develop ways of enhancing their motivation. It would therefore be useful to organize regular consultative meetings between the ministry officials and the teachers to achieve this end. Moreover, the administrators need to undergo regular in-service training to enable them to gain an insight into the factors inherent in the education of special needs children.

**Research question 8:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their gender?

Table 27 (pg. 181) indicates the responses to this question by the special education teachers in terms of the means and ranks. Table 22 (pg. 114) presents the t-test showing that there were no significant differences in the responses of the male and female special education teachers. It can thus be concluded that gender has no influence in the way a teacher responds to the job motivation factors. Hence the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the special education teachers' choice of job motivation factors and their gender is accepted.

Both male and female teachers agree on the fact that their jobs provides them “the use of a variety of their skills” as well as their jobs “significantly affects the lives of others”. The two groups respond to these job factors equally as highly motivating. However a closer look on table 196, shows that the male teachers appear more highly motivating in other factors than the female teachers in their response. Variation in the response concerning “contentment with current salary” on the other hand showed that the male teachers felt it was not motivating while the female teachers regarded it as least motivating. This could be due to the fact that in the African culture, males are generally considered to be the breadwinners of the homes while at the same time they shoulder a lot of additional responsibilities to the extended families. This can explain why their opinion concerning their motivation with regard to salary is slightly more negative than that of the female teachers. To the male teachers in Kenya, their job is most likely to be the only source of income, therefore other things being equal, they will prefer a job that offers them higher income. It can thus be concluded that the male and female special education teachers are approximately motivated by similar factors. These findings are in contrast with results from similar studies such as the one conducted by Lortie (1975) which shows that as the years of experience for female teachers increase, their motivation with their work tended to decrease. A study by Scott (2000) on teacher satisfaction and motivation, found that males

appear to respond more positively to job challenges than females. Significant differences were found between males and females, where female personnel appear to suffer greater burnout than male teachers. In the current study therefore, results indicate that the teacher's gender need not present problems in designing ways of enhancing their motivation.

**Research question 9**: Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their age?

Table 28 (pg.182) indicates the responses to this question by their means and ranks while table 23 (pg. 115) presents the results of the ANOVA test conducted to examine the differences within the different age groups of the special education teachers.

Results on table 28 show that the teachers irrespective of their age, responded similarly to the factors of job motivation, factors stating that their job "provided me the use of a variety of their skills" as well as their jobs "significantly affected the lives of others". Both factors were regarded as highly motivating by the teachers. Among the lowest ranked factors are " adequate teaching materials", "satisfaction with senior special education administrators" and "contentment with current salary". On adequate teaching materials and satisfaction with senior special education administrators, the teachers unanimously responded that they were the least motivating job factors.

These findings are however in contrast with Hester (1997) in a study on burnout among special education teachers revealed that most teachers who chose to remain in special education were slightly older and more experienced in the special education field whereas a high turn-over rate was evident among the younger teachers. A study by Smith (1993) found that in public schools, a teacher's age is related to his or her job characteristics. The study by Smith indicates that the young or less experienced teachers have higher levels of job motivation than the older, more experienced teachers. Smith however, points out that although teacher's age is related to

satisfaction and motivation, this factor may not be significant in explaining the different levels of motivation with other job factors such as administrative support, teacher's control and classroom procedures. Scott (2000) negates these findings by observing that an increase in age does not necessarily predict greater satisfaction, rather higher dissatisfaction of the teachers is predicted by the length of service at the current school.

Statistical analysis using a one-way ANOVA test showed that there were no significant differences in the motivation of the teachers based on their age. Therefore, it can be concluded that the age of the teachers does not affect their job motivation. This trend is unfavourable as it is generally assumed that if older teachers were more motivated with their jobs after adjusting their expectations to reasonable levels, they could be instrumental in acting as mentors to the new younger teachers thus using their experience in assisting them to adjust faster to the realities of their job.

**Research question 10:** Are the special education teachers motivated by the same or different factors due to differences in their marital status?

Data in table 11 (pg. 102) presents the responses to this question while the information in table 24 (pg. 109)) shows the t-test results giving the statistical analysis of the comparison between the two groups. Here too, there are many of similarities between the two groups, in as far as the job factors that are considered to be highly motivating and slightly motivating are concerned. Both the married and single special education teachers stated that the “job provided them the use of a variety of their skills” and “ significantly affects the lives of others” are highly motivating job factors. Factors such as “school adequate facilities”, “routine duty and paperwork interference”, “satisfaction with senior special education administrators” and “contentment with current salary” are repeatedly rated as the least motivating factors by both the married and single teachers. Single teachers scored lower means regarding satisfaction with their salary than the married teachers.

Statistical results from a one-way ANOVA test indicates that there are significant differences in the responses of the married and single teachers thus indicating that the marital status of a teacher affects their response to the job motivation factors. The null hypothesis stating that the there is no significant difference in the job motivation of the special education teachers based on their marital status is thus rejected.

The results show that married teachers appear to have higher motivation towards the job factors than the single teachers. These findings concur with Cummins (1994), whose study on job satisfaction of urban special education teachers in Texas finds that the single personal demographic variable significantly related to job satisfaction was marital status.

In Kenya, the teaching career is a considerably stable job compared to many other jobs. It may consequently suit the married person who seeks stability. This may reveal why married teachers appeared better motivated with their job than the single teachers. One would therefore expect that the special education administration can use this information by focusing on the issues affecting single teachers when they consider strategies of enhancing their job motivation.

## 6.2 Implications and recommendations for special education teachers

The main aim of the current study was to use the Job Characteristics Theory by Hackman and Oldham and the Job Satisfaction Theory by Herzberg et al., as theoretical bases to analyze the motivation of teachers regarding their jobs. This approach was found to be appropriate. This study analyzed the special educators' work by delineating it into various work categories. In doing so, more detailed information has been obtained and thus more precise procedures and actions can be taken to improve the motivating potential of teachers' work. From the job dimensions in the model by Hackman and Oldham, of the job factors the teachers repeatedly cited are skill variety, task significance, and feedback on work performance as higher job

motivators. Thus implying that teachers tend to favour the ability to use a variety of their skills in their career, the fact that their task has significant effect on the lives of others and feedback on their performance. To capitalise on the teachers overwhelming motivation in utilising their skills to teach, opportunities should be availed to them by providing refresher courses, workshops, and seminars where they can be trained in the latest techniques, approaches and methods of teaching students with special needs. By so doing, this will further enrich their skills. They also conceded that their job significantly impacts the lives of others. This attitude should not be abused but encouraged by way of incentives and increasing their special allowance from the current percentage so that they can feel appreciated and recognised for what they do.

Locke (1973), argues that recognition is the single most mentioned factor found to result in positive effort from workers. Recognition for these teachers can also be enhanced by their receiving positive feedback about their performance or through promotions. This feedback can be given through regular meetings with the senior education administrators where the teachers can also freely voice their opinions on special education matters. This could make them feel recognised for the work they do.

The job characteristic model of Hackman and Oldham was generally supported in this study. A positive correlation was found between the job design factors and teachers' motivation. Special education teachers in the current study cite "contentment with current salary", "workload", "satisfaction with senior special education administration", "adequate materials and facilities" as demoralizing factors. Some trends in the results concur with the theory by Herzberg, which posits that extrinsic job factors usually cause dissatisfaction to the employees. The theory by Herzberg also shows that these hygiene factors affect the context in which work is conducted and when such factors are not gratified, negative attitudes are created producing job dissatisfaction.

Factors commonly referred to in the theory by Herzberg as motivators do not feature prominently as motivators in the current study. The two main factors cited include “work itself” and “responsibility”. One would expect factors such as achievement, advancement, and recognition to feature as high motivators among these teachers but it has proved not to be the case in the current study. This scenario can be attributed to the ethnic dimension of motivation of workers where, certain factors are deemed important depending on the cultural practices of the respondents. Kenya practises a collectivist culture where, individuals tend to regard themselves as part of a group or a given community. Factors like achievement or advancement of an individual, apart from his or her community is seldom desired. This being so, it is important that issues found to negatively affect their work are addressed with the intention of enhancing the motivation of teachers.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory illustrates that workers need a wage sufficient to feed, shelter and protect them and their families satisfactorily. According to Maslow, when all other needs have been met, employees will become motivated by the need for self-actualization. They will look for personal growth in their work and will actively seek out new responsibilities. Perhaps this explains why the teachers did not cite “advancement” as a motivator since they consider their basic need not yet fulfilled while on the other hand, one can argue that self-actualization my be an unrealistic goal, hardly attainable to majority of workers in Kenya in. Furthermore, Stoner et al., (1996) explain that the needs of human beings differ widely and are based on the cultures and value system of the particular worker, hence it is possible that a person might be concerned with fulfilling his or her self-esteem needs before one's need for security. It appears that this may apply to the special education teachers in the current study. To address this situation, education administrators and policy-makers should employ strategies to ensure that factors which are identified as causing dissatisfaction for the teachers are eliminated.

Measures should be taken such as increasing the special teachers' salary and special allowances, reducing the class size and teachers' workload and establishing forums where the teachers can air their views as well as their problems and experiences to the special education administrators. Such forums should be organized regularly to enhance positive relations between the teachers and the administrators while at the same time improve the working conditions of the teachers.

The current study found that the question of adequate pay for special education teachers has so far not been specifically addressed. In the past, the government addressed salary increments for teachers in general without giving specific consideration for those educating students with special needs. The only incentive given to these teachers is a special allowance that is very minimal for the type of work they do. The report by the RoK(1999) indicates that a 30% allowance based on the teachers' would be ideal compared to the current 10 %. Furthermore, the current responsibility allowance for head teachers is also said to be inadequate. If the salary factor is not addressed in time, the special education section may risk continued loss of manpower which is difficult to replace within a short time. Based on the findings of the present study, results show that workload of the teachers is a continued source of dissatisfaction. This concurs with Gay (1998) who asserts that the workload has been identified as an ongoing problem and has been used to explain the shortage of teachers.

The current study found that some special needs children often require the physical support of the teacher. Furthermore, their learning pace is slow, which can be frustrating and requires a lot of patience from the teachers. Curriculum planners should be in a position to address the extra burdens the exceptional students may present for teachers and introduce ways of reducing them. When teachers become overwhelmed with unreasonable workloads, they become frustrated in

their efforts to provide appropriate teaching for the students. The potential for laxity and negligence may be high especially by teachers in crowded classrooms. This therefore implies that for learning to be effective, teachers in special schools need to be allowed to handle smaller classes, while regular classroom teachers, who integrate special needs students need to be allowed to have fewer such students in light of the extra demands that are placed on them.

Many teachers report that their daily work with students constitutes only part of their responsibilities and that the planning involved in Individualized Education Programs (IEP) and counseling students, among others, involve after school and weekend time. It is important that ways of compensating teachers for this extra time are explored. Possibilities such as the provision of teacher-aides and team teaching may allow the special education teachers adequate time to handle some of these extra responsibilities during regular school days. Rather than reducing instructional effectiveness, these proposed strategies should actually increase the quality of instruction.

## 6.3 Implications of Findings to the Special Education Administration

The present study found that the importance of the administrators in special education cannot be underestimated or ignored. Subjects in the current study frequently cited dissatisfaction with the senior special education administrators. Davis (1992) asserts that a supervisor who obtains the highest productivity is supportive, friendly and helpful and endeavors to treat his or her subordinates in a sensitive and considerate way. Careful specifications of competence and knowledge need to be formulated for those with administrative responsibilities in the area of special education. This group of personnel are in a position to either facilitate or impede the classroom teachers' ability to carry out their duties effectively. It is imperative that persons managing special education are trained in special education and attain the necessary practical skills such as Braille, sign language, physiotherapy and other intervention skills in order for

them to practically understand the realities of special education. Preferably, qualified handicapped persons should be given preference in recruitment as headteachers, teachers, teacher-aides, education officers, and support personnel and administrators since they have a better understanding of students with disabilities and can also act as role models to these students. The RoK (1999) reveals that the last time the special education division had a head trained in special education was 1978, since then, persons without special education training have been posted to the ministry headquarters. Ensuring that administrators are equipped with the necessary knowledge in special education paves the way the for effective management of issues concerning special schools, teachers and their students. It is therefore important that all officers and heads of divisions, departments, and sections dealing with special education be effectively trained and frequently receive in-service training in special education. They should have appropriate knowledge in their areas of specialization, preferably at masters' level and above. Inspection and supervision services should be expanded and strengthened at district levels. Feedback on work performance features highly as a motivator for teachers in the current study. This implies that if provided, it can result in a positive behavioural outcome on the part of the teachers. The researcher recommends that special education administrators encourage teachers by providing them with feedback on their performance so as to create a good and strong job climate. To induce the motivation of teachers in their career, education administrators should observe critical issues found to contribute positively or negatively to their teachers job motivation. They should then redesign the nature of the teachers' jobs with respect to the weaker work categories and/or job dimensions in terms of motivating potential. Schools need to be positive places both to learn and to work in. When a teacher does his or her job well, he or she should be given positive feedback to motivate him or her.

Administrators can provide feedback, they can also encourage parents and teachers to provide feedback to one another, they can also seek ways for staff members to be recognized for outstanding efforts and achievements and to be given special opportunities to learn and grow by attending conferences and workshops. The school organization and working environment can be manipulated through various means so as to create an atmosphere in which teachers will perceive their job as having a higher motivating potential, while also improving on those factors regarded by the educators as the least motivating. Adequate allowance should be provided to these teachers as an incentive to boost their motivation for the services they render to the country. As the present study has observed, special education teachers provide specialized services that are over and above those performed by regular education teachers. They should consequently be compensated and recognized for the complex responsibilities presented by their job. Last but not the least, improving the motivating potential of the job should not be considered as the only way of enhancing the motivation of teachers. Other factors also need to be explored.

## 6.4 Implication of the Findings to Policy Makers

Policies relating to education in Kenya have been found to be inadequate (ICE 2001). With regard to special education, the situation is even worse. The laws and regulations do not address the inappropriate curricula for the students, management of special education or the non-involvement of all stakeholders in the management of special education issues. The centralized bureaucratic structures and administrative ignorance about special education has also resulted in delays in decision-making processes. As indicated in the present study, the type of disability taught, significantly affects the motivation of teachers. One of the reasons given is the inappropriate curriculum provided for students with disabilities. Teachers educating the mentally handicapped and the hearing impaired students are found to have lower motivation as compared to teachers educating students with other types of disabilities. The present study

revealed that the current curriculum is insensitive to the needs of these categories of students especially and this has contributed to their poor performance. This poor performance or lack of perceived success on the part of the learners has consequently been found to affect the morale of teachers. The personnel involved in formulating the curriculum for learners with special needs should base it on the following areas, general education, therapeutic education and vocational preparation according to the degree and type of disability as handled by qualified teachers. Attention should be given to vocational preparation by diversifying practical subjects in the schools. This type of curriculum will be suitable and relevant to the educational needs of the special education learners and will enhance their employment opportunities. Prominence should be given to providing adequate time, materials and facilities necessary to teach the subjects effectively.

Curriculum planners should also develop an appropriate job oriented curriculum for students with mental disabilities. Such a curriculum can be developed by all stakeholders such as organisations for people with disabilities, community development workers, teachers in special schools and integrated schools, the inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education, staff from special education departments in universities as well as staff from the Kenya Institute of Special Education. Once such a curriculum is developed, it should be tested in a few districts before implementation. Furthermore, as noted by Mugo (1999), an adopted curriculum for all types of disabilities is lacking.

Frequent changes in school curricula affect learners with disabilities, especially those with visual disabilities because the Braille material is expensive and takes time to produce. This causes students with visual disabilities to lag behind in the learning process while causing dissatisfaction and low motivation of their teachers. It is crucial that apart from the curriculum for students with mental disabilities, the curricula for all the disability categories should be looked into urgently and the necessary modifications made with the participation of all

stakeholders. Institutions charged with the responsibility of training special education teachers at degrees, diploma, in-service and distance education should ensure that the curriculum content in their programmes are relevant to the actual practice of special education in schools. It is

imperative that more emphasis should be given to relating instruction to the type of disability served. Teacher training in special education should give adequate preparation on ways of adapting the various subjects within the school curriculum to the needs of the specific disability served. Training teachers in education theory or subject knowledge without making it useful to carry out the daily tasks of the teacher represents a wasted opportunity, more attention should, therefore, be accorded to the teacher's daily task while designing special education courses. With the current global trend towards the inclusion of learners with special needs into the mainstream of regular schools, there is also the need of re-orienting special education teachers by providing in-servicing training to regular school teachers on techniques of servicing all categories of disabilities.

A recent report by EFA (2000), shows that most parents of the handicapped children are generally poor and the parent-teachers' associations (PTA's) are normally too small to adequately finance school projects. This had resulted in serious dropouts of these students despite the free primary education, which does not address the instructional needs of handicapped children. The government should therefore provide adequate funding for the provision of specialised equipment, teaching and learning aids to ensure that equal education opportunities is offered in special schools like that of regular schools.

Poor performance in national examinations by most special schools has been found to negatively affect the motivation of teachers. Crume et al., (1999) assert that they consider it interesting that education officials group schools for the handicapped students such as the deaf together with the non-handicapped schools in the national examination results. Such

comparisons do not benefit schools for students with disabilities because special schools and regular schools belong to two different categories and when compared the former will often to lag behind in the results. A policy should therefore be developed where special schools of the same category are compared separately, for example, the schools for the blind as one category

compared against each other. This mode of comparison would let the teachers know how they are fairing against other similar schools. This information would prove more useful, as lower ranking special schools could consult the higher-ranking schools to gain insight into ways of improving their performance, thus boosting the morale of both the teachers and the students.

Teachers and students in special education should be provided with support services in order to perform well in academic endeavours. These support services should include facilities and equipment such as wheelchairs, crutches, Braillers, computers with audio and visual backup, audiometers, and workshops for producing and repairing the equipment among other facilities. As a means of ensuring that the students with disabilities benefit from the free primary education policy, the ministry should establish and maintain units for the development, production, and distribution of special equipment, material, supplies and devices for use in the education of learners with special education needs. They should make these equipment available before the beginning of every term to avoid delays. This will not only help to boost the motivation of teachers but also ensure that the necessary materials to facilitate learning are in place.

Another form of support services that could prove useful to the special education teachers would be to introduce an advisory of resource teachers who could be located in large schools, or be itinerant as in Germany. They could help co-ordinate the work of all the professionals involved with the children, such as helping teachers to translate specialist information from other professionals into relevant teaching methods, preparing materials and also adapting the

curricula. Staff of the special schools can also extend their role in this advisory function as their expertise in the curricula and practice of teaching handicapped children will be of great support. This type of support and advisory system would therefore ensure that teachers' problems are dealt with locally with the local conditions taken into account. The advisory teachers would be required to have a higher level of knowledge and skill in order to supply specialist support to teachers of children with various educational needs. They will need training at a higher level in general special education, the specific aspects of handicaps and in the modes of intervention for particular age-groups of pupils.

The present study has found that certain additional variables significantly affect the motivation of teachers. Policy makers should understand that variables such as the marital status, level of education, and location of the school of the special education teachers significantly affect their motivation. It is thus crucial that a special taskforce is commissioned to specifically gather information surrounding these factors and others deemed necessary with the aim of establishing baseline data to be used in establishing ways of enhancing the job motivation of special education teachers. The government should develop a clear policy on special education. This policy should cover, the terms of service for teachers handling students with special needs. It should also develop a clear policy for staffing of special education personnel in the ministry, and the curriculum for students with special needs and adapting the national examinations to the needs of students with disabilities.

To effectively facilitate matters on special education, the government should constitute a fully-fledged department within the Ministry of Education. The current study found that no educational reform can be fully effective without the agreement and effective partnership of the personnel who will ultimately be responsible for its implementation. Mukiebe(1995) asserts that in any educational organisation, teachers unions should contribute to the policy-making process by presenting their members' views. Negotiations and consultations should be encouraged at all

levels of the education system. Participation in decision-making by subordinates is assumed to result in not only greater job satisfaction but also higher productivity of teachers. Studies by Misumi (1996) and French (1992) provide evidence that there is substantial basis for the belief that participation in decision-making increases productivity. Transparent procedures and transparent communication with all stakeholders are the key factors in ensuring that consultations and negotiations achieve their objectives. In this case, special education teachers are the basic service providers in this area and have the first- hand information on the realities of serving learners with special needs. Ensuring their participation is imperative as it provides a sound foundation in establishing strategies to improve special education.

### 6.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The current study explains the complicated nature of the work of special education teachers. This study breaks down teachers' work into specific job factor categories. The findings of this study are hoped to lead to greater and deeper exploration of this matter concerned among special education teachers in future studies. The main task for the stakeholders is not merely to ensure that the key elements highlighted in the present study are present but also to state what these elements are and how they are vital on improving teacher motivation. Based on the findings of the present study, there is a crucial need to address the factors affecting the motivation of special education teachers. There is a need for special education teachers to receive the moral and material support appropriate to their level of responsibilities.

- The special education allowances should be reviewed constantly to compensate for the challenges posed by the nature of the job of these teachers. This will make it possible for them to live with dignity and not be forced to engage in additional-.income generating activities in order to make up for the low pay.

- The special education teachers should be provided with an adequate working environment with resources and materials necessary to facilitate good teaching and to boost their morale.

- They should be able to receive in-service training and to attend workshops and seminars regularly in order to share ideas and to keep in touch with new trends and developments in the field of special education.

- The special education teachers should obtain continuous support and feedback from their aadministrators through organised forums where they can openly exchange views and opinions.

- They should be included in all activities concerning special education. They should also contribute to national debates on special education as they possess valuable experience as practising classroom teachers constantly in touch with students with special needs. This can consequently enhance their motivation and confidence in the system.

- The teachers should also be represented in curriculum development in special education since they can recommend what is workable based on their experience. They can help develop a modified curriculum that is responsive to the needs of learners with special needs. The curriculum should be adapted to the diversity of special learning needs. The special education component should be incorporated into teacher education curriculum at all levels of teacher training.

- The national examination system needs to be reorganised to suit needs of each category of students with disabilities. On the other hand, the students' performance in examinations should be classified according to each particular disability for the teachers to be able to compare their student's performance with others of a similar disability type.

- Frequent seminars, workshops and refresher courses should be organised for teachers educating special needs students which will enable them to update their skills, methods and strategies for dealing with their students, helping to enhance their confidence and job motivation. Similarly, teachers need to be provided with the opportunity to interact with fellow colleagues from other

- special schools in conferences with the aim of presenting experiences, views and knowledge and to simply encourage each other.
- Administrative personnel in charge of the issues of special education need to receive frequent in service in special education to enable them to acquire a working knowledge of special education so that they can handle these matters adequately. Preferably, qualified persons with disabilities should be appointed to administrative posts.

**Further research should be conducted in the following areas.**

- Determine the influence of the teachers' personal characteristics such as self-concept on their job motivation.
- Determine if students' achievement is influenced by the job motivation of their teachers.
- Compare the job motivation of special education teachers according to the different categories of disabilities served .
- Establish the perception of special needs students regarding their teachers' motivation to work.
- Establish if the job motivation of special education teachers is influenced by the students' class level.

# Definitions of Operational Terms

**Administrator:** refers to an official appointed by the Teachers Service Commission to manage a school organization.

**Commitment**: dedication to a long-term cause of action e.g, teaching

**Extrinsic motivation**: refers to motivation originating from outside factors and not really belonging to the subject with which it is connected.

**Education organization**: refers to the education management structure, charged with the responsibility of overseeing special education matters.

**Hearing impaired**: refers to an overall term that includes all levels of hearing loss where persons cannot use hearing as his or her primary way to gain information including the hard of hearing and the deaf.

**Hierarchy of needs**: this refers to needs of individuals arising from the most basic such as the lower needs of food and water, to the higher needs of esteem and self-actualization.

**Handicapped**: this is a condition that hampers a person, disadvantages or hinders him or her from functioning within the society eg. Disability

**Integrated schools**: these are schools where students with disabilities participate in education recreation and other extra curricular activities alongside those students who are not having disabilities.

**Learners with Special Needs;** these are students, who due to the varying disabilities, require special education instruction and provisions in order to adequately participate in classroom instruction

**Motivation:** attitudes that predispose a person to act in a specific way. It is an internal state that directs a person's behaviour

**Motivation factors**: these are factors that are associated with the self-actualization of an individual on the job such as recognition and advancement.

**Physical disabilities:** students having problems with their body structures that interfere with functioning.

**Special education:** individualized education for students with special needs.

**Special education teachers**: teachers who provide instruction to students with special educational needs in either special schools or integrated schools. The learners have special needs owing to the nature of their disabilities such as the physically and the mentally handicapped.

# ABBREVIATIONS

ASAL……Arid and Semi Arid Lands

CBM……..Christofell Blinden Mission

DANIDA…Danish International Development Agency

DICECE…..District Centers for Early Childhood

EAACE…..East African Advanced Certificate of Education

EACE…….East Africa Certificate of Education

EARS……..Education Assessment Research Centers

ECCD……..Early Childhood Care and Development

EFA…….Education For All

GoK……Government of Kenya

KCE…….Kenya Certificate of Education

KCPE……..Kenya Certificate of Primary Education

KCSE……..Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

KJCE……..Kenya Junior Certificate of Education

KIE……..Kenya Institute of Education

KISE……Kenya Institute of Special Education

MoE…….Ministry of Education

MPET……...Master Plan on Education and Training

NACECE…..National Centers for Early Childhood

NGOs……Non Governmental Organizations

SET……Special Education Teachers

SNE……...Special Needs Education

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# APPENDICES

**Part I: Personal Data Sheet.**

**Research Questionnaire: General Instructions and Guidelines**:

This questionnaire is part of a research project examining the factors, that influence the motivation of teachers serving students with special needs. It is not a test and therefore there are no right or wrong answers.

The main purpose of the questionnaire is to understand teacher motivation problems experienced in special schools. Please answer the entire questionnaire as best as you can. Kindly answer directly in the spaces provided and as requested.

To answer the questions, simply "TICK" (√) the most appropriate answer. Where no choices are given, provide your answer as truthfully as possible by filling in the blank spaces.

**To ensure complete confidentiality, you are not required to enter your name on the questionnaire.**

**PERSONAL DATA SHEET**

1. Name of your school …… 
2. Location of your school (Province) …….….
3. Gender

   Male …….……

   Female……..

4. Age

   30 or less……..….

   31-45…….

   46-55…….

5. Marital status

   Married……..

   Single…….

   Divorced…….

   Widowed…….

6. Years of experience in Special education

   0-5 years…….

   6-10…….

   11-15……..

   16-20……..

   Above 20……....

7. What is the highest grade you have attained in formal education

   K.J.C.E…….

   CPE/KCPE……...

   EACE/KCE……..

EAACE/KACE…….

KCSE ……..

Diploma…….

Bachelors Degree……...

PGDE…….

Masters…….

8. Have you undertaken any training in special education?

Yes…….…….

No…….……..

9. If "YES' to what level have you trained for?

Inservice……...

Diploma…….

Bachelors…….……..

Masters……...

10. How many years including the current one have you been teaching?

Less than 1 year……..

1-5 years…….

6-10 years…….

11-15…….…….

16 and above……...

11. What category of special needs students do you teach?

Mentally handicapped…….

Physically handicapped……..

Visually handicapped…….

Hearing Impaired……

12: Have you been trained to handle the type of disability you are currently teaching?

Yes…….

No…….

13. Your school is funded by

Government…….

Church organization…….

NGO(specify)…….

Govt/Church…….

Govt/NGO…….

NGO/church…….

Other(specify)……...

**Part II (a): Job Design Questionnaire (JDQ)**

Listed below are some statements about your job, for each statement, "TICK" (√) your response based on how much you agree or disagree with it.

MY JOB…

1. Requires me to do many different things at work using a variety of my skills

Strongly disagree …….….

Disagree ……..

Undecided…….

Agree ……..

Strongly agree …….

2. Provide me with the feeling that I am performing well .

Strongly disagree …….

Disagree …….

Undecided…….

Agree …….…….

Strongly agree …….

3. Allows personal decision to determine the work procedures to be used or permit me to decide on my own how to go about performing it .

Strongly disagree ……..

Disagree ……..

Undecided…….

Agree ……...

Strongly agree …….

4. Gives me feedback on my work progress.

Strongly disagree …….

Disagree ……..

Undecided…….

Agree ……...

Strongly agree ……..

5. Significantly affects the lives of others.

Strongly disagree…….

Disagree ……..

Undecided…….

Agree ……...

Strongly agree ……..

6. Gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work.

Strongly disagree …….

Disagree ……..

Undecided…….

Agree ……..……..

Strongly agree …….……..

**Part II (b): Teacher Satisfaction Survey.**

In this part you are asked to highlight your views regarding your job and evaluate how the following job features affect your motivation to work

Please "Tick" ( √) the response, which most accurately describes how you feel about your job.

1. To what extent does your job provide you with the possibility of advancement?

Not at all …….:.

Small extent …….:

Moderate extent…….

Great extent ……...

Not applicable …….

2. To what extent is your work challenging for your?

Not at all…….

Small extent…….

Moderate extent…….

Great extent.. …….

Not applicable…….

3. To what extent does your job provide you with the feeling of recognition?

Not at all……..

Small extent…….

Moderate extent…….. 

Great extent……..

Not applicable… …….

4. To what extent does your job provide you with the opportunity for independent thought and action.

Not at all…….

Small extent…….

Moderate extent…….

Great extent …….

Not applicable…… …….

5. To what extent are you satisfied with the way senior special education administrators manage special education issues?

Not at all……..……...

A small extent …….

Moderate extent…… 

Great extent…….

Not applicable… ……..

6. To what extent do you feel comfortable with the cooperative effort from your colleagues?

Not at all……..……....

A small extent…….

Moderate extent…….

Great extent …….

Not applicable ……..

7. To what extent do you feel the administrative behaviour towards the staff is supportive and encouraging?

Not at all……..……..

Small extent ……..

Moderate extent…… ☐

Great extent…….☐

Not applicable……..…….☐

8: To what extent does your job provide you with a sense of security?

Not at all…….☐

A small extent……..☐

Moderate extent……☐

Great extent……...☐

Not applicable……..……..☐

9: To what extent does your job provide you with adequate facilities?

Not at all……..…….☐

A small extent…….☐

Moderate extent……...☐

Great extent….…….…☐

Not applicable……..……..☐

10. To what extent are you content with your current salary?

Not at all……..……..☐

A small extent….……..☐

Moderate extent…….☐

Great extent……....☐

Not applicable……. ……..☐

11. Does the routine duties and paperwork interfere with your teaching?

Not at all…….☐

A small extent…….☐

Moderate extent……..☐

Great extent …….

Not  applicable…… …….

12. Did your teacher training match the realities of your job?

Not at all……..…….

A small extent ……..…….

Moderate extent…….

Great extent……..…….

Not applicable…….

13. To what extent are the necessary teaching materials available when you need them?

Not at all…….

A small extent…….

Moderate extent……..

Great extent……..…….

Not applicable…….. ……..

**Part III: Open Ended Questions on Teacher Motivation.**

1. Write 1 – 5 things with regard to teaching special needs learners, that motivate you to continue putting effort into your work.

(a) ……

(b) ……

(c) ……

(d) ……

(e) ……

2..Write 1 – 5 things with regard to teaching special needs learners that negatively affect your morale and motivation into your work.

(a) ……

(b) ……

(c) ……

(d) ……

(e) ……

3..Write 1 – 5 things which, if added to your working environment, would motivate you to work even better.

(a) ……

(b) ……

(c) ……

(d) ……

(e) …….....

## TABLES SHOWING DESCRIPTIVE DATA

**Table 25: Summary of motivation factors identified by teachers in special and integrated schools by means and ranks**.

| MOTIVATION FACTOR | TYPE OF SCHOOL | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Special School N0 =(132)** | | **Integrated School N0 = (118)** | |
| | **Mean** | **Rank** | **Mean** | **Rank** |
| Provides the use of a variety of my skills | 4.4995 | HM | 4.0938 | HM |
| Significantly affects the lives of others | 4.1019 | HM | 4.0625 | HM |
| Provides me the feeling that am performing well | 3.9862 | HM | 4.0938 | HM |
| Gives me feedback on work progress | 3.6927 | HM | 3.6250 | HM |
| Challenging | 3.5346 | MM | 3.4375 | MM |
| Provides independence and freedom | 3.4286 | MM | 3.2188 | MM |
| Cooperation from colleagues | 3.3134 | MM | 3.0625 | MM |
| Training in special education | 2.8889 | MM | 2.8125 | MM |
| Allows personal decision on work procedure | 2.7706 | MM | 2.5938 | LM |
| Provides opportunity for advancement | 2.7639 | MM | 3.3125 | MM |
| Job security | 2.7454 | MM | 2.5000 | LM |
| Independent thought and action | 2.7189 | MM | 2.5000 | LM |
| Supportive school administration | 2.6065 | MM | 2.4688 | LM |
| Recognition for my work | 2.5991 | LM | 2.1875 | LM |
| Teaching materials | 2.4444 | LM | 2.3128 | LM |
| Adequate facilities | 2.4074 | LM | 2.0938 | LM |
| Satisfaction with special ed. administrators | 2.1889 | LM | 2.4063 | LM |
| Routine duties and paperwork interference | 2.1435 | LM | 2.1435 | LM |
| Contentment with current salary | 1.6065 | LM | 1.4688 | NM |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

**Table 26: Summary of motivation factory identified by the special edicatn teachers by theri years of experience by means and ranks**

| Motivation Factor | YEARS | | OF | | EXPERIENCE | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 1 year No = 11 | | 1-5 Years no = 29 | | 6-10 years no = 57 | | 11- 15 years no = 64 | | 16 and above no = 89 | |
| | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank |
| Use of a variety of my skills | 4.0909 | HM | 4.3103 | HM | 4.5439 | HM | 4.4333 | HM | 4.3596 | HM |
| Significantly affects the lives of others | 4.000 | HM | 3.7931 | HM | 4.1250 | HM | 4.1695 | HM | 4.1236 | HM |
| Allows personal decision on work procedure | 3.8182 | HM | 2.9655 | MM | 2.7719 | MM | 2.6500 | MM | 2.5955 | SM |
| Provides me the feeling am performing well | 3.7273 | HM | 4.1034 | HM | 3.7895 | HM | 3.9157 | HM | 4.1685 | HM |
| Gives feedback on work performance | 3.7273 | HM | 3.3793 | MM | 3.8421 | HM | 3.5500 | MM | 3.7528 | HM |
| Challenging | 3.6364 | HM | 3.5172 | MM | 3.5179 | MM | 3.5333 | MM | 3.5056 | MM |
| Provides freedom and Independence to work | 3.5455 | MM | 3.65552 | HM | 3.1579 | MM | 3.1695 | MM | 3.5843 | MM |
| Cooperation from colleagues | 3.5455 | MM | 3.2414 | MM | 3.1607 | MM | 3.2833 | MM | 3.3258 | MM |
| Supportive school administrators. | 3.2727 | MM | 2.8276 | MM | 2.9286 | MM | 3.1667 | MM | 3.1348 | MM |
| Opportunity for independent thought and action | 3.0000 | MM | 2.7931 | MM | 2.5357 | LM | 2.5333 | LM | 2.8090 | MM |
| Provides opportunity for advancement | 2.9091 | MM | 2.8276 | MM | 2.8750 | MM | 2.7458 | MM | 2.8427 | MM |
| Recognition for my work | 2.9091 | MM | 2.4483 | LM | 2.4286 | LM | 2.5333 | LM | 2.6067 | MM |
| Availability of teaching materials | 2.5455 | LM | 2.3793 | LM | 2.4643 | LM | 2.4915 | LM | 2.3258 | LM |
| Job security | 2.4545 | LM | 2.7586 | MM | 2.8571 | MM | 2.7797 | MM | 2.5955 | LM |
| Adequate facilities | 2.3636 | LM | 2.2069 | LM | 2.2321 | LM | 2.4068 | LM | 2.4494 | LM |
| Special Education training | 2.3636 | LM | 2.6207 | MM | 2.6786 | MM | 2.9153 | MM | 3.1124 | MM |
| senior special ed.administartors | 2.0909 | LM | 2.2069 | LM | 2.0714 | LM | 2.1500 | LM | 2.3483 | LM |
| Routine duties | 1.8182 | LM | 2.1724 | LM | 2.1607 | LM | 2.2373 | LM | 2.1236 | LM |
| Contenment with salary | 1.2727 | NM | 1.5172 | NM | 1.5000 | NM | 1.6102 | LM | 1.6629 | LM |
| | | | | | | | | | | |

**Table 27: Summary of motivation factors identified by special education teachers by their gender differences by means and ranks.**

| Motivation factor | GENDER OF THE TEACHERS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male N0 = (107) | | Female N0 =(143) | |
| | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank |
| Provides me the use of variety of my skills | 4.4112 | HM | 4.3986 | HM |
| Significantly affects the lives of others | 4.1682 | HM | 4.0426 | HM |
| Challenging | 3.6604 | HM | 3.4196 | MM |
| Provides me the feeling that am performing well | 3.5794 | MM | 3.7622 | HM |
| Gives feedback on my work performance | 3.5794 | MM | 3.7622 | HM |
| Provides me independence and freedom | 3.3832 | MM | 3.4155 | MM |
| Cooperation from colleagues | 3.3302 | MM | 3.2448 | MM |
| Supportive schools administration | 3.1981 | MM | 2.9790 | MM |
| Provides opportunity for advancement | 2.9340 | MM | 2.9718 | MM |
| Special education training | 2.9340 | MM | 2.8380 | MM |
| Independent thought and action | 2.7547 | MM | 2.6434 | MM |
| Job security | 2.7075 | MM | 2.7183 | MM |
| Allows personal decision on work procedure | 2.6729 | MM | 2.8042 | MM |
| Recognition for my work | 2.6415 | MM | 2.4753 | LM |
| Teaching materials | 2.4245 | LM | 2.4296 | LM |
| Adequate facilities | 2.2424 | LM | 2.3239 | LM |
| Satisfaction with senior special ed. administrators | 2.1887 | LM | 2.2237 | LM |
| Routine duties and paperwork interference | 2.1132 | LM | 2.2042 | LM |
| Contentment with current salary | 1.5660 | NM | 1.6056 | LM |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

**Table 28: Summary of motivation as identified by the Special Education teachers by their age by means and ranks .**

| Motivation factor | AGE DIFFERENCES OF TEACHERS | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 30 yrs or less no= (27) | | 31-45 no=(169) | | Above 45 No = (54) | |
| | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank | Mean | Rank |
| Provides the use of a variety of skills | 4.2963 | HM | 4.4615 | HM | 4.2778 | HM |
| Significantly affects the lives of others | 3.8148 | HM | 3.9941 | HM | 4.1667 | HM |
| Provides the feeling that am performing well | 3.7037 | HM | 2.26568 | SM | 2.7037 | MM |
| Cooperation from colleagues | 3.4815 | MM | 3.7219 | HM | 3.6667 | HM |
| Gives feed back on work procedure | 3.4815 | MM | 4.2156 | HM | 3.8704 | HM |
| Provides personal decision on work procedure | 3.4074 | MM | 3.3988 | MM | 3.4815 | MM |
| Challenging | 3.2963 | MM | 2.8333 | MM | 2.8679 | MM |
| Provides me independence and freedom | 3.2593 | MM | 3.6095 | HM | 3.3585 | MM |
| School administrative support | 3.1111 | MM | 2.4911 | LM | 2.6415 | MM |
| Job security | 3.0000 | MM | 2.6746 | MM | 2.6792 | MM |
| Independent thought & action | 2.8148 | MM | 2.1183 | LM | 2.4906 | LM |
| Provides opportunity for advancement | 2.7778 | MM | 3.2426 | MM | 3.3019 | MM |
| Recognition | 2.7037 | MM | 3.0178 | MM | 3.2264 | MM |
| Special education training | 2.4151 | LM | 2.6845 | MM | 2.6604 | MM |
| Teaching materials | 2.4074 | LM | 2.3452 | LM | 2.4717 | LM |
| Adequate facilities | 2.2963 | LM | 1.5714 | NM | 1.7358 | LM |
| Satisfaction with senior special education administrators | 2.2963 | LM | 2.1964 | LM | 2.1132 | LM |
| Routine duty and paper-work Interference | 2.0741 | LM | 2.9524 | MM | 2.8491 | MM |
| Contentment with current salary | 1.4074 | NM | 2.4226 | LM | 2.4528 | LM |

**HM** Highly Motivating **MM** Moderately Motivating **LM** Least Motivating **NM** Not Motivating

# Erklärung

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorgelegte Arbeit selbständig verfasst und nur die Angegebenen  Quellenen und Hifsmittel benutzt habe.

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Datum Unterschrift