

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching and learning in black schools has not been optimal (Roodt, 2011). This has brought the teachers' occupation under scrutiny. The identified research problem for this proposed study is the seemingly poor work identity of teachers in Soweto. The assumption is that teachers will become better workers if they have at least satisfactory work identity. The construct of work identity has been studied in conjunction with other constructs including job demands and job resources (De Braine & Roodt, 2011). The following are the variables of this proposed study: Career Commitment, Work Identity, Job Resources and Job Demands. Career Commitment and work identity represent the *behaviour* of the teachers, whereas job resources and job demands are *working conditions*, which represent the setting within which the teachers' behaviour is manifested.

Teachers have made either a suitable or unsuitable career choice. In this regard, some may have a sound career commitment whilst others may have a poor career commitment. For those with a sound career commitment, their choice of teaching is a suitable one, whilst for those with a poor career commitment teaching is probably an unsuitable career choice. According to Blau (1988) **career commitment** refers to an individual's attitude towards his/her profession or vocation. In particular, career commitment is thought to encompass the degree to which work tasks interact with life plans as well as one's desire to work without expecting financial returns. **Work identity** is defined by Walsh and Gordon (2008, p. 47) as "a work-based self-concept, constituted of a combination of organizational, occupational, and other identities, that shapes the roles individuals adopt and the corresponding ways they behave when performing their work in the context of their jobs and/or careers". A teacher's poor work identity would impact negatively on his/her work role and behaviour, which could lead to teaching ineffectiveness, amongst other things. Furthermore, learners would be at a disadvantage if being taught by a teacher who does not identify with his/her job.

A teacher's occupation has job demands and job resources. **Job demands** are working conditions that comprise the following aspects of a job: physical (e.g. manual labour), social (e.g. group tasks) and organisational (e.g. working overtime). Job demands necessitate perpetual physical and psychological (cognitive and emotional) input from employees (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Job demands can be regarded as potential job stressors; this would be the case when employees are required to expend high effort when

they may not have it. On the other hand, **job resources** are working conditions relating to the job, which alleviate workers' stress, provide them with support regarding work tasks and duties, and motivate employees to make their experience at work pleasant. Job Resources help workers meet their job demands and induce learning and personal development in employees (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

1.1. Purpose of the study

The primary objective of this research is to examine the effect of career commitment on work identity and job demands and job resources among teachers in secondary schools. In this regard, the following considerations are pertinent: (i) for individuals with low job demands, career commitment would improve their work identity; (ii) for individuals with low job resources, career commitment may improve their work identity; (iii) for individuals with high job demands, career commitment may improve their work identity; and (iv) for individuals with high job resources, career commitment will enhance their work identity. Presumably such teachers are likely to remain in the profession despite work-related difficulties (excessive job demands and inadequate job resources), whereas those with low career commitment may leave the profession to find other jobs.

1.2. Background of the study

The decay and neglect of the African education system is probably the most insidious legacy of apartheid. The restoration of a culture of teaching and learning within predominantly African schools is a matter that the Government must tackle with haste. Schools that work, which appear to be the majority of former 'Model C' schools, need to be encouraged and their success replicated elsewhere (Roodt, 2010, p. 4).

The South African education system does not function optimally in underprivileged black schools. According to the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), in 2009 the national matric pass rate in former Model C schools was 94% in comparison to the overall pass rate of 60% in the remaining schools (Roodt, 2011). More specifically, the matric pass rate for Africans in former Model C schools was high (88%) in contrast to the low overall African pass rate of 55% in 2009. The SAIRR declared that the African matric pass rate in

former Model C schools in *Gauteng* in the year 2009 was 89% as compared to a 65% African matric pass rate in all schools (Roodt, 2010). In the writer's view there are inadequacies inherent in the education system. The inadequate system manifests itself in the form of teaching ineffectiveness and poor learning. Learner literacy and numeracy skills at both the primary and secondary school levels are not optimal and the Grade 12 pass rate is generally poor. According to Snyman (2012) of the SAIRR only half of Grade 10 learners reach matric and only one third pass. These inadequacies can be found in different aspects of the education system, viz., in the paradigm that informs it, its tools, operators and products. Regarding the *paradigm*, problems can be attributed to frequent shifts between traditional education and Outcomes-based Education (OBE) – a shift that has caused instability for learners and teachers alike. The insufficient *tools* (pedagogical resources) used within the system, such as libraries, laboratories, learning materials and classroom infrastructure, continue to exacerbate the problematic education system. In this regard, Roodt (2011) notes that in contrast to schools that were reserved for African learners during Apartheid, former Model C schools continue to reap the benefits of excellent facilities and resources. A press release by the SAIRR (2012) claims that the Gauteng province suffered the greatest plunge in the proportion of schools that had laboratories. Accordingly, the number of schools with laboratories declined from 76% to 40% and of this the proportion of schools with stocked laboratories plummeted from 42% to 14%. Roodt (2011) argues that teachers working in underprivileged black schools face extra job demands. Accordingly, such schools cannot afford to employ extra teachers to absorb the demands put on individual educators by exceptionally large classes. Secondly, there are reports of sexual harassment and abuse in schools. Furthermore, unlike in former Model C schools, teachers' unions (e.g. the South African Democratic Teachers' Union) are highly influential and can contribute to class disruption (closing down of schools) during strikes/labour action. Lastly, the *products* of the system (poorly-educated school-leavers), do not function optimally in the workplace. In this regard, the SAIRR has declared that whilst the number of Black African learners has increased by approximately 78 000% since 1955; the overall university entrance pass rate has declined such that in 2008 it was 13.4%, which is significantly lower than the acceptance rates of the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s (Cronje, 2010).

The education system is unequal across race, class, and the urban-rural divide. Seekoei (2010) differentiates between the low standard of education found in poor 'black' township schools and the high standard of education found in rich 'white' private schools. In this regard education in the respective schools is assumed to differ in terms of the management of

the school and the commitment of teachers. Roodt (2011, p.2) succinctly states that “Former ‘Model C’ schools...are oases of excellence in the desert of mediocrity that is our public education system, and provide pupils with quality education”. The dwindling performance of primary school learners on literacy and numeracy tasks, has elicited the following response from the State President: “Teachers must be at school, in class, on time, teaching for at least seven hours a day” (Zuma in Political Bureau, 2011, p.1). It has been suggested that the failing education system can be attributed to the ‘Triple Ts’, namely, teachers, textbooks and time. In this regard, ineffective teachers, lack of resources and insufficient teaching and work hours have been identified as causal factors (Political Bureau, 2011). In support of the ‘Triple Ts’ notion, Ndaba (2011) of the Sunday Times newspaper, reports a study by the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) which found that South African teachers spend less than 50% of their teaching time in a class each week, and even bunk classes on Fridays. The CDE research also found that of the 73 physical science teachers from Dinaledi schools (mathematics and science institutions) tested on basic problem-solving, only 60% passed. Inconsistent with these findings Mange (2011) argues that teachers are unfairly labelled as ‘underperforming’ and condemned for poor matric pass rates, whilst other stakeholders are absolved of the blame. Maluleke (2010), the general secretary of the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union (SADTU), has defended teachers, claiming that their underperformance is due to intolerable workplace conditions and violent learners alike. He further argued that teachers are underpaid, devalued and thus feel frustrated and demoralised.

1.3. Problem statement

Teachers have career commitment and work identity to a greater or lesser extent. However, teachers in predominantly black schools seem to show a poor work identity. According to Mead’s theory of symbolic interactionism, individuals ‘negotiate’ their identities (derive self-knowledge) through *social interaction* (Swann Jr., Johnson & Bosson, 2009). When individuals are able to successfully negotiate their identities, the following outcomes can be expected: optimal job performance, organisational commitment, improved relationships and perceived fairness of the organisation, amongst others. Failure to negotiate identities is likely to lead to poor job performance, reduced organisational commitment and perceived lack of fairness of the organisation. This idea can be applied to the concept of work identity, where poor work identity of teachers is manifested in the form of lack of commitment to work, low motivation, poor time-keeping, absenteeism, strikes and go-slows, reduced work hours and

poor pass rates among learners. This undesirable situation has the following implications: a) if teachers have a poor work identity, this will impact negatively on their work roles and behaviour, which would amount to teaching ineffectiveness, among other things; and b) learners are unlikely to benefit from teachers who do not identify with their jobs (learning ineffectiveness). The research problem is located in the psychological area of *employee well-being and human resource development*. This problem will be examined within the framework of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model.

The writer considers that teachers who have career commitment are likely to identify with their work, i.e. career commitment would buffer the negative impact of excessive job demands on teachers' work identity. Furthermore, career commitment could enhance teachers' work identity, despite insufficient job resources or excessive job demands, provided that teachers view their job as a vocation and not merely a means of earning a living. In all accounts, a strong career commitment could help teachers develop a positive work identity. The identified problem has implications for human resources in the teaching profession. In this regard *career commitment* could be viewed as an intervention strategy i.e. as a criterion for screening and selection of individuals for teaching positions.

1.4. Literature review: Theoretical and conceptual background

This section presents an account of the literature on the variables of the study, namely, career commitment, work identity, job resources and job demands.

1.4.1. Career commitment

According to Aryee and Tan (1992, p. 289) "career commitment is underpinned by the notion of a career as a predictable series of related jobs arranged in a hierarchical status in a particular occupation thus offering the career aspirant an opportunity for career progression". Blau (1988) maintains that the measurement of an individual's career commitment can give an indication of the person's career motivation. Hall (1971, p.59) cited in Blau (1988) regarded career commitment as "the strength of one's motivation to work in a chosen career role". Theoretically career commitment is distinct from job involvement and organisational commitment (Hall, 1971; Morrow, 1983 cited in Blau 1988). Support was found for this assertion indicating that the *career commitment* construct can be reliably measured and is empirically distinct from *job involvement* and *organisational commitment* (Blau, 1988).

Dedication to work is indicative of professional commitment and has been investigated using the following terms: professional commitment, occupational commitment, career salience and career orientation (Blau, 1988). The author maintained that individuals possessing high levels of career commitment are likely to leave a job if they deem such an action as necessary for the enhancement of their career. Such a decision would require confidence about one's career choice. In this regard, Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003, p. 382) suggest that career choice commitment denotes "certainty and self-confidence about one's choice and a positive outlook regarding one's vocational future". According to Vandenberg and Scarpello (1994) cited in Popoola and Oluwole (2007, p. 108), career commitment denotes "a person's belief in and acceptance of the value of his or her chosen occupation or line of work and willingness to maintain membership in that occupation".

On the subject of biographical information, Popoola and Oluwole (2007) assessed the career commitment of records management personnel in a State Civil Service in Nigeria. They did not find significant gender differences in respondent's commitment to their careers. However, single and married respondents differed in terms of their career commitment, whereby married respondents were less committed to their careers than their single counterparts. Furthermore, respondents' career commitment was found to be negatively associated with job tenure and education level. Accordingly, less experienced and less educated employees were more committed to their careers. In this regard, the authors associated high educational qualifications with a tendency to look for better career prospects and possibly reduced career commitment (Popoola & Oluwole, 2007). Age and career commitment were also negatively related; younger employees tended to commit more to their careers.

The association of career commitment with working conditions has been the subject of investigation by researchers. Goulet and Singh (2002) aimed to expand previous research on the correlates and antecedents of career commitment. Findings suggested that career commitment was positively related to job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment. Job involvement was an antecedent of career commitment. In this regard, an individual's involvement in a job is viewed as rational behaviour, which is based on the expectation that job involvement will result in successful career outcomes. The authors opined that job involvement implies that the job is fulfilling thus causing employees to commit to their careers. Goulet and Singh (2002) argued that satisfied workers who are committed to their organisation are likely to be in job situations that are rewarding and congruent with their career aspirations; such circumstances are viewed as conducive to high

levels of career commitment. Furthermore, fear of losing one's job and career commitment were found to be negatively related, such that employees with a heightened fear of losing their job are likely to be less committed to their careers. However 'job fit' was positively related to career commitment. In this regard, employees whose jobs are aligned with their career aspirations are likely to be strongly committed to their careers. Furthermore, 'education' and 'job status' were positively related to career commitment, indicating that employees with more education and higher job status have high levels of commitment to their careers (Goulet & Singh, 2002).

Chen, Myrtle, Liu and Fahey (2011) explored the role of job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between career commitment and job and career influences, among health care executives. Job satisfaction was found to mediate the impact of job tenure and career pattern on career commitment. Career commitment was positively related to career experience (e.g. changing employment sectors) and job satisfaction. Chang (1999) cited in Chen et al. (2011) maintains that individuals will have high career commitment if the expectations they hold of their job are confirmed. This assertion was not supported by Chen et al's. (2011) study. Moreover, career stage, career pattern and industry change did not have an effect on career commitment.

Aryee, Chay and Chew (1994) expanded research on the antecedents and outcomes of career commitment by considering three career stages. Career stage research assumes that individuals pass through different occupational phases during their organisational careers and each stage is different in terms of work attitudes and behaviours, types of relationships required and valued aspects of work. Findings revealed that motivating job characteristics were significantly and positively related to career commitment across career stages. However, expected utility of present job was found to be a stronger predictor of career commitment than job characteristics.

Shah (2011) investigated employee career commitment factors in a public sector organisation in a developing country using a sample of 1000 employees. Findings revealed job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job promotion to be predictors of employee career commitment. These predictors were found to have a positive relationship with employee career commitment. The author suggested that employees can bolster their career commitment by developing job satisfaction and organisational commitment as well as availing themselves of prospects for job promotion. However, this suggestion should be approached with caution, as literature argues that the development of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and opportunities for advancement in organisations are

influenced by other factors and may not necessarily be under employees' direct control. Hence, employees' career commitment could partly be attributed to external factors, i.e. situational characteristics, and not only individual differences (London, 1983 cited in Ballout, 2009). Blau (1985) found some support for London's (1983) model. In this regard individual characteristics (e.g. being unmarried, having extra work experience) and situational characteristics (e.g. appraising one's work situation as being structured in terms of role clarity and high supervisor initiating structure) were the strongest predictors of career commitment.

Bedeian, Kemery and Pizzolatto (1991) examined career commitment and expected utility of present job for attaining valued career outcomes, as antecedents of turnover intentions and turnover behaviour using a sample of 244 nursing professionals. It was found that expected utility of the present job for attaining valued career outcomes interacted with career commitment to predict nurses' intentions to leave their employment. Moreover, for subjects with high career commitment expected utility of present job was negatively related to turnover intent. The opposite was true for subjects with low career commitment. In unpacking these findings Bedeian et al. (1991) suggested that subjects with high career commitment would leave an organisation that did not offer them career growth opportunities. However, subjects with low career commitment would be prompted to stay in an organisation that offered them career growth opportunities. Duffy, Dik and Steger (2011) examined career commitment as a mediator of the relationship between calling to a particular career and work-related outcomes. Results revealed that career commitment, organisational commitment and job satisfaction were moderately correlated with calling. A weak correlation between withdrawal intentions and calling was established. Career commitment fully mediated the calling-job satisfaction association, it partially mediated the relationship between calling and organisational commitment. Accordingly, participants who viewed their work as a calling had higher organisational commitment and job satisfaction owing to the fact that they were more committed to their career. Career commitment was also found to suppress the association between calling and withdrawal intentions. Accordingly, calling was linked to stronger withdrawal intentions when an individual's career commitment level was accounted for. The authors concluded that having a calling in the absence of commitment may prompt individuals to exit their current job. Furthermore, individuals who view their career as a calling report higher commitment levels to their career.

Riveros and Tsai (2011) investigated career commitment and organisational commitment in for-profit and non-profit sectors. In this regard, the authors aimed to establish whether workers were more committed to their personal achievement in their careers or instead

committed to the organisation. The study found that career commitment and organisational commitment were interrelated. In this regard, organisational commitment predicted career commitment. Riveros and Tsai (2011) noted that Vandenberg and Scarpello (1994) found that career commitment predicted organisational commitment. Organisational type (for-profit/non-profit) did not influence the strength of employees' career or organisational commitment. Moreover, older employees rather than younger ones seemed more committed to their careers. Furthermore, career resilience was found to be the strongest predictor of career commitment (Riveros & Tsai, 2011).

Poon (2004) investigated the moderating role of emotion perception (the ability to identify emotions, express them accurately and distinguish between precise and imprecise expressions of emotions) on the relationship between career commitment and career success, using a sample of white-collar workers from an array of occupations and organisations in Malaysia. Results revealed that for workers with moderate to high (not low) emotion perception, salary level (i.e. objective career success) was contingent on career commitment. This finding points to the idea that career commitment does not unconditionally result in objective career success. Unexpectedly, emotion perception failed to moderate the career commitment-career satisfaction relationship; indicating that individuals who have career commitment will experience career satisfaction irrespective of emotion perception (Poon, 2004).

Weiss (1999) examined the relationships between perceived workplace conditions (e.g. school leadership, student behaviour and teacher autonomy), morale, career choice commitment, and planned retention among first-year teachers in the United States. Findings suggested that high morale, strong commitment to teaching and intentions to stay in the teaching profession were related to a school culture that promotes collaboration and teachers' participation during the decision-making process. The author suggested that undesirable workplace conditions could impact on new teachers' career commitment and intention to remain in the profession.

Fresko, Kfir and Nasser (1997) investigated a model for the prediction of teachers' commitment to teaching, which was measured as teachers' unwillingness to change their career. The most significant discovery was that job satisfaction was found to be a direct predictor of teachers' career commitment. Teaching experience did not have a significant bearing on the model's variables. Teacher commitment has been outlined as the extent to which teachers have a psychological attachment to their profession (Fresko et al., 1997).

Generally, levels of attrition and reasons for this phenomenon are viewed as indicators of poor commitment. Fresko et al. (1997) noted that individuals who exit the teaching profession may do so due to economic reasons as well as dissatisfaction with working conditions and administrative procedures. Moreover, teachers might be driven to leave their employment by alternative employment opportunities that are more lucrative or for personal life choices. A separate explanation for varying degrees of teacher commitment is given by Evans (1998, p. 103) cited in Day, Elliot and Kington (2005) who attributes commitment to the meaning the teaching profession holds for individuals:

Teachers do not all share the same levels of commitment to their job. For some, it is a major part of their lives;...and they afford it extensive consideration and high priority. Others may perceive it differently. To them, teaching is just a job...They may carry out their duties conscientiously and they may enjoy the work, but it is not their centre of gravity.

Aryee and Tan (1992) investigated the antecedents and outcomes of career commitment using a sample of 510 teachers and nurses in Singapore. Findings revealed the following significant predictors of career commitment: work role salience, organisational commitment, organisational opportunities for development and career satisfaction. Regarding career success, people who achieve their career objectives are likely to be satisfied and identify with their career role. Aryee and Tan's findings are consistent with Blau's (1988) discovery of a correlation between career commitment and organisational commitment. Regarding the outcomes of career commitment, it was found that commitment to one's career was positively associated with skill development. However, career commitment was negatively related to intentions to withdraw from one's career. This implies that employees who are dissatisfied with their careers or do not experience career success might consider retreating from their current careers and seek placement elsewhere. Work quality did not share a significant relationship with career commitment. Drawing on similar lines of research, Klassen and Chiu (2011) explored the occupational commitment and quitting intention of practicing (i.e. experienced) and pre-service (i.e. novice) teachers. The influence of teachers' self-efficacy, job stress and teaching context, on their commitment and quitting intention, was assessed and established. Unexpectedly, it was found that pre-service teachers rather than practicing teachers had *higher* levels of occupational commitment, *reduced* levels of overall stress and *weaker* intentions to leave their profession. The authors attributed this finding to

the idea that practicing teachers experience more stress and that previous research has demonstrated an inverse relationship between teachers' levels of stress and their commitment. Moreover, this result was viewed as a reflection of novice teachers' unrealistic expectations of the work environment. Findings also suggested that for practicing and pre-service teachers, self-efficacy was positively related to occupational commitment. Job stress and intention to quit were found to be negatively associated with occupational commitment. A final discovery was that high school teachers experienced high stress levels and reduced levels of self-efficacy. Furthermore, teachers who worked with children in grades 1 to 12 tended to consider quitting their profession more than those who worked with children in the kindergarten context.

1.4.2. Work identity

Work-based identity influences the roles workers adopt and their behaviours in the workplace. Lloyd, Roodt and Odendaal (2011) cited in De Braine and Roodt (2011) also suggest that the construct of work-based identity is complex, has multiple identities and represents the individual's self-concept. Kirpal (2004) cited in De Braine and Roodt (2011) asserts that work-based identity involves the individuals' identification with their work environment, the organisation and its objectives, as well as work duties, which promote individual and collective productivity at work. Work identity can be viewed as an individual's work-related self-image.

According to Mead's theory of symbolic interactionism, individuals 'negotiate' their identities (derive self-knowledge) through *social interaction* (Swann Jr., Johnson & Bosson, 2009). When individuals are able to successfully negotiate their identities, the following outcomes can be expected: optimal job performance, organisational commitment, improved relationships and perceived fairness of the organisation, amongst others. Failure to negotiate identities is likely to lead to poor job performance, reduced organisational commitment and perceived lack of fairness of the organisation (Swann et al., 2009).

Social theory postulates that people create their identities by categorising themselves into distinct social groups which offer them specific member-identities to integrate with their personal identities (Baron, Byrne & Branscombe, 2007). In accordance with this theory the process of creating work identity is achieved through *organisational identification* – a process wherein the individual identifies with other members in the organisation or occupation (Walsh & Gordon, 2008; Witt, Patti & Farmer, 2002). Organisational

identification pertains to a mental association between members' perceptions of the organisations/occupation's identity and their self-concept (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994) cited in Walsh & Gordon (2008). *Organisational identity* refers to "an organisation's or an occupation's central, distinctive and enduring character" (Walsh & Gordon, 2008, p.49).

Regarding 'identity congruence', Walsh and Gordon (2008) assert that the more individuals perceive their occupational and organisational identities to be congruent, the more likely their job performance will be consistent with the organisation's expectations. However, when employees belong to organisations or occupations that offer conflicting identities (e.g. positive and negative distinguishing values), which cause them to identify and dis-identify with its membership, these employees may experience dissonance termed 'Schizo-identification'. The notion of 'Schizo-identification' articulated by Walsh and Gordon (2008) has found manifestation in organisations where the mobile Black worker is alienated in the workplace, i.e. even in the face of Affirmative Action and Employment/Equity the achieving Black worker is not fully accepted by his/her White counterparts and is also alienated from his/her Black lower class. From these accounts it can be seen that work identity formation is dynamic and continuous. It is conceivable therefore that as individuals change organisations or occupations, this would result in a change in their work identity. The individual's work-related self-concept would reflect the new environment. In this way the individual could have different work identities throughout the working life-span.

Whereas Walsh and Gordon (2008) studied the *creation* of individual work identity, Witt et al. (2002) on the other hand, examined the moderating effect of work identity on the organisational politics/organisational-commitment relationship. They offer a unique psychological insight into the way the construct of work identity *operates*. In their study, they found that individuals who have a strong *work identity* that is based on their occupation (occupational identity) were less affected by the level of perceived politics in the organisation – when considering their organisational commitment – than employees who identified primarily with their employing organisation (*organisational identity*). Both Walsh and Gordon (2008) and Witt et al. (2002) concede that little research has examined the concept of individual work identity.

Eryigit and Kerpelman (2011) performed a cross-cultural investigation of the link between identity processing styles (individuals' orientations to work identity) and actual work identity formation (engagement in exploration and commitment tasks) in the career domain, in two national contexts, viz. the United States and Turkey. It was found that the

relationship between identity processing styles and actual work identity was consistent across the two geographic locations. Although a stronger link between informational style and work identity was found in Turkey; gender and work status impacted differently on actual work identity across milieus. Generally, the study revealed that the presence of an information- or normative-orientation promoted work identity in the career domain. Eryigit and Kerpelman (2011) found that information-oriented college students tended to search for career alternatives that were suitable for them and chose their careers tentatively, i.e. assessed and expanded their choices, and internalised career paths that were a suitable match for them. Normative-oriented students did not differ from those who had an information orientation. Eryigit and Kerpelman (2011) argued that young college students possibly rely on significant others' standards and expectations when making their tentative career commitment. Further findings of the study were as follows: unlike in America, being female in Turkey was negatively associated with the creation of and identification with career commitment. Regarding the link between work identity and work status, Eryigit and Kerpelman (2011) suggested that American college students used their employment opportunities to gain detailed information about their current career choices, whereas Turkish students view paid work as a source of financial stability and would aim to make career decisions instead of exploring alternatives.

In their article, Dutton, Roberts and Bednar (2010) categorise research on work-related identities into the following four perspectives that emphasise the various ways in which identities can be 'positive': (i) *Virtue perspective* – which asserts work-related identities become more positive when they comprise virtuous attributes; (ii) *Evaluative perspective* – which argues that work-related identities become more positive when individuals perceive their own and group identities in a positive light; (iii) *Developmental Perspective* comprising of 'progressive identity' development and 'adaptive identity development'. Progressive identity development posits that the individual's work-related identity is transformed and becomes more positive i.e. an ideal or more developed identity. Adaptive identity development asserts that the individual creates possible work-related selves and chooses those that are congruent with internal and external standards; and (iv) the *Structural Perspective* comprises 'balanced identity structure' and 'complementary identity structure'. The core assertion of balanced identity structure is that the content of work-related identity is organised to bring a balance between personal identity and social identity. This balance creates a more positive work-related identity.

According to Dutton et al. (2010) there are varied ways in which social resources help individuals to construct their work-related identity. Regarding the *Virtue Perspective*, the authors propose that individuals whose work-related identity is characterised by virtuous qualities are able to form high-quality relationships with in-group and out-group members in the workplace. In terms of the *Evaluative Perspective*, individuals who appraise their work identity positively are likely to have positive emotions and are better able to form an increased network of relationships in the workplace. Regarding the *Developmental Perspective*, compatibility of an individual's work identity with external standards will result in an increased number of quality relationships that the individual will form in the workplace. The *Structural Perspective* suggests that an individual with a complex work identity structure is more able to form relationships with diverse groups and is also better able to form high quality relationships in the workplace.

Dutton et al. (2010) posit that social resources, for instance, enhance the quality of individuals' interpersonal behaviour in the workplace, resulting in greater job involvement and job performance involving interdependent work tasks. Individuals learn through group participation. This is consistent with the contention of Schaufeli et al. (2009) that job resources induce learning and personal development within the employee.

Ibarra and Petriglieri (2010) argue that work identity and play identity are distinct yet complementary ideas. On the one hand work identity aims to preserve existing identities and adhere to extrinsically imposed image requirements. On the other hand, play identity deals with the invention and reinvention of the individual. Certain types of work identity require the individual to act within the boundaries of an existing professional identity, i.e. physicians (healers) may be required to perform the role of "carer", often ascribed to social workers. Work identity is said to be embedded in external reality, whereas play identity is thought to emerge at the interface between fantasy and reality. As such, work identity occurs in the present moment, whilst play identity "unfolds at the threshold between present and possible identities" (Ibarra and Petriglieri, 2010, p. 16).

There are forms of strategic action that employees undertake when forming their work-related identities. There are two types of identification relating to work, namely, classical and flexible (Kirpal, 2004). Individuals with a *classical work identity* highly identify with their occupation, the organisation, the products of their labour, or their routine work activities. Such individuals are viewed as somewhat change-resistant as they lack the personal resources necessary for adaptation to new demands. Moreover, such individuals may view change as unpredictable and uncontrollable. Their resistance to change is reflected by a

reduced inclination towards learning, developing themselves professionally, or altering their work context e.g. changing their employer. A “*classical progressive*” occupational identity is characterised by classical career development with an inclination towards a higher level qualification and specialised positions. Such individuals are willing to take on extra responsibilities and adjust and re-define their work identity. Kirpal (2004) found that individuals who had a *flexible and individualised work identity* used flexibility, mobility and learning as a means to achieve their goals. This flexible and individualised work identity would enable them to change organisations or their occupation if need be. Both highly qualified and less skilled individuals could have a flexible and individualised work identity despite being located in unstable employment. The author argues that “*strategic careerists*” possess a type of flexible work identity, whereby they view their present occupational position and attachment to the organisation as a mere aspect of their overall career which involves regular change. These strategic careerists are committed to progress (“moving on”) and feel responsible for the construction of their careers (Kirpal, 2004).

The flexible employee anticipates and internalises requirements for continuous adjustments and changes in the work place, leading to a transitory work attachment and identity for the less qualified, and a highly individualised work identity based on professional skills and competencies for the higher qualified. The key feature here is that the individual is active in pursuit of her or his own goals, professional development and self-realisation. Their work identity is highly individualised, primarily based on personal skills, capacity for continuous learning and a rather project-oriented work attitude. (Kirpal, 2004, p. 216)

Kirpal (2004) echoes the sentiments of Evans (1998) by asserting that long-term adjustment is a form of adaptation whereby workers come to accept their present work circumstances as a compromise. For instance, workers might tolerate unfavourable conditions and remain in their job so as to ensure job security and stability. Short-term adjustment on the other hand is a conditional type of adaptation whereby individuals are aware of their intention to remain in a job or with the same employer for a short time. This form of adaptation can be attributed to: personal choice, long-term career plans or job dissatisfaction.

McInnes and Corlett (2012) distinguish between five *forms of work identity*, viz. performative, controlling, reconciling, negotiating and confirmatory. *Performative work identity* occurs when the employee feels compelled to enact a specific identity due to personal, social or institutional pressures. For instance a worker with such work identity may produce quality work for his/her supervisor (because this is what is expected of the worker) despite harbouring negative feelings towards the supervisor. *Controlling work identity* occurs when individuals are not given enough freedom to negotiate their relationship between themselves and others. For instance someone might be dictating the work-related actions to be undertaken by an individual with this type of work identity. *Reconciling work identity* happens when 'interactants' (parties engaged in interactions with one another) try to construct identities that complement each other and the social obligations that preside over themselves. For instance employees might attempt to enact ethical policies/conduct when dealing with each other or customers. *Negotiating work identity* emerges when 'interactants' share an open relationship and when social obligations do not prohibit alterations in individuals' identity positions. *Confirmatory work identity* happens when social context obligations have a reduced impact on interaction and the individual has enough freedom to negotiate his position in relation to others. In this type of work identity, the self and the other sustain their self-definition within their mutual environment (McInnes & Corlett, 2012).

For Abdi (1999) work identity among Europeans is centred on socio-economic advantage, whereas the work identity of Africans revolves around the concept of 'Ubuntu', i.e. humanism. The communal ownership of land and economy points to a collectivist work identity among Africans. The racial and exploitative discourses and ideologies of the Europeans were damaging to the Africans (identity deformation) and ensured European dominance. Colonial and Apartheid education systems were major tools in the identity deformation and subjugation of Africans. This was commensurate with the formation of a distorted work identity of Africans, which was characterised by subordinate and menial roles and economic exploitation. With regard to the article by Walsh and Gordon (2008) on work identity, it can be deduced that the work identity of Black South Africans was historically not based on desirable competencies, work values, positive self-distinction and prospects of career advancement. The Black Consciousness Movement sought to reconstruct the African identity in the organisation and society at large (Abdi, 1999). It is noted that Abdi's (1999) article was preceded by a post-apartheid South Africa wherein the emergence of a Black middle class has seen a shift in work identity formation, in that Black South Africans are

adopting traditionally European work values and economic pursuits. Today, the work identity of middle class South African Blacks is no different from their white counterparts.

In their study, Saayman and Crafford (2011) investigated the construct of work identity, with a particular focus on identity tensions and demands that promote work identity. They identified 'culture', 'structure', 'job and role' and 'management and leadership framework' as situational identity demands that regulate work identity. *Organisational culture* refers to the shared values, meanings, beliefs, goals, mission and vision of the organisation (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2009). Individual workers identify with this culture as they form their work identity. Culture regulates work identity to the extent that the organisation sets the parameters within which individuals create and display their work identity (Saayman & Crafford, 2011). Organisational culture is coercive to the extent that individual workers are expected to conform to it. *Organisational structure* refers to the manner in which job tasks are formally divided, grouped and coordinated. It is comprised of the following elements: work specialisation, departmentalisation, chain of command, span of control, centralisation and decentralisation, and formalisation (Robbins et al., 2009). In this regard, an individual's work identity is influenced by the prescribed work role (job description), the specific department in which the individual works, authority that presides over the worker (chain of command and span of control), decision-making power (centralised or decentralised), and the extent of formalisation (high or low) in the job. These multiple factors serve to regulate an individual's work identity. Hence, organisational structure plays a role in the emergence of employees' work identity. *Job and work roles* can influence employees' work identity either positively or negatively. Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) (as cited in Saayman & Crafford, 2011) caution that a weakened work identity can result from job frustration despite the worker's ability to perform the job tasks and work roles. Similarly, when individuals identify with their work roles and are able to negotiate work roles and their job expectations are met, this will promote their work identity (Saayman & Crafford, 2011). With regard to the *management and leadership framework*, Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) cited in Saayman and Crafford (2011) posit that when workers are given decision-making power (participative management) this promotes their work identity. On the other hand, in a bureaucracy where authority is centralised and decision-making follows a chain of command, this disempowers workers and thereby negatively affects their work identity.

Kirpal (2004) provided the following account of some theoretical considerations regarding the construct of work identity:

- i) *The development of a work-related identity is a dynamic process.* Work identity is viewed as the outcome of the interaction between personal resources, values and attitudes; work processes and settings.
- ii) *Work identity is multi-layered and multi-dimensional.* It is comprised of historical, economic, social and individual-psychological dimensions. The *historical dimension* speaks to the national context that influences economic activities; the *economic dimension* is concerned with the capital-work relationship. Historical and economic dimensions are viewed as 'structural or context' variables. Most importantly, the *social dimension* acknowledges the initial conceptualisation of work identity as a collective identity formed in collaboration with other individuals, groups and institutional bodies. The *individual-psychological dimension* considers individuals' occupational history, career development and their work attitude and views regarding their work context.
- iii) *Membership and interaction with others are fundamental aspects to the idea that work identities are collective in nature.* Each worker is part of and belongs to pre-defined structures (departments, divisions, work teams) within the organisation. These structures serve as a framework for employees' identification and self-realisation.
- iv) *Work identity considers individual agency.* Although work has the capacity to influence individuals, individuals themselves have the power to influence work processes and structures. They are proactive change agents that shape their own communities of practice.
- v) *Work identities are dynamic, might evolve over the individual's life-span and differ in the level of importance individuals assign to them.* The creation, upkeep and evolution of occupational identities are dependent on the type of relationships in which they are embedded. Work identity is an aspect of an individual's global identity (Kirpal, 2004).

Socialisation has a bearing on work identity, in that it helps develop in individuals, appropriate conduct, beliefs, attitudes, norms and values. According to Kirpal (2004), in the workplace, identity formation processes interact with socialisation and learning. Individuals become inducted into the culture (norms, values, attitudes, professional standards) of the organisation by performing certain work activities. Socialisation in the workplace involves providing new employees with necessary skills and competencies to achieve work outcomes. Kirpal (2004) is of the view that performing work tasks, regardless of whether they are rudimentary or complex, engenders in the worker a sense of identification with the work. Furthermore, employees learn when they perform their job tasks. Ibarra and Petriglieri (2010) assert that individuals can utilise work identity to manage or reduce the discord between their true feelings and the image they are forced to display as role-players. Work identity is

thought to be related to structural conditions such as job titles and role responsibilities which are influenced by organisational politics. McInnes and Corlett (2012) share the sentiment of Collin et al. (2008) and Kirpal (2004) that work identities are collaboratively constructed and contested through continuous dialogue that links the ideas of the organisation (culture, policies, etc.) with individual's personal and professional self-concept.

Greenhaus, Peng and Allen (2012) assessed the links between indicators of work identity (i.e. work centrality, career satisfaction, job level and salary) and family identity with the amount of weekly hours worked by 193 married business professionals. The authors asserted that the four indicators of work identity serve to reinforce or promote the salience of employees' work identity. Indicators of work identity were positively associated with work hours when work overload was low. This indicates employees are likely to behave in accordance with their identity when working in jobs with fewer demands (Greenhaus et al., 2012). However, high levels of situational demands (i.e. work overload) forced individuals to work in ways that were inconsistent with their identities, e.g. working overtime despite having a weak work identity. Collin, Paloniemi, Virtanen and Etelapelto (2008) found that students' work identity development was contingent on the availability of social and interactive support in the workplace (job resources). The authors suggested that employees should use 'fight-back' strategies as tools for practicing active agency and achieving identity construction at work. These strategies help employees generate a sense of meaning in their work and can be used to counteract the constraints on workplace learning, vocational development and work identity formation.

Aryee and Luk (1996) found the following determinants of work identity for men and women: interesting work, supervisor support and self-employed work status versus salaried employee work status. However, skill utilisation, monthly income and breadwinner status were identified as significant determinants of work identity for men, whereas job satisfaction resulted in women's work identity. Aryee and Luk (1996) concluded that favourable working conditions will induce work identity, regardless of the person's gender. According to, Eryigit and Kerpelman (2011) ideal conditions for work identity involve an array of career options for the individual including the individual's ability to autonomously exercise their discretion, availability of resources to assess the career options and the chance to revise one's career decision should it not be the optimal one. Kirpal (2004) argues that structures that are formalised and regulated (e.g. recognition of formal qualifications) promote stability and continuity which enable individuals to develop their professional orientation and work identity. Moreover, such structures may help individuals develop self-confidence and

occupational attachment. A stable employment condition also fosters individuals' work identity, by enabling employees to develop an attachment to the organisation and work commitment, and plan their professional/career development (Kirpal, 2004).

Collin, Paloniemi, Virtanen and Etelapelto (2008) examined the constraints on workplace learning vocational development and work identity formation. These authors maintain that learning and identity formation are intertwined. It was found that *constraints* on employee learning and professional identity formation at work were largely social, e.g. the fast pace of work tasks, competition between work teams, lack of personal resources and poor decision-making ability on the part of the supervisor. In this regard, employees' learning and identity formation were tied to feelings of togetherness with others as a result of social interaction. This idea is consistent with Kirpal's (2004) notion that work identities are collective in nature. Moreover, the following local cultural changes in the organisation were found to interfere with employees' learning at work: problems regarding the dissemination of information and knowledge, issues of cooperation and teamwork, and issues regarding appreciation shown to workers.

Aryee and Luk (1996) investigated work identity and family identity among dual-earner couples in Hong Kong. The central assumption of the study was that individuals develop an identity that is attached to the roles they become involved in. Greenhaus et al. (2012) concur that this idea accords with research findings that suggest that individuals with a strong work identity devote more time to their work than those with a weak work identity. However, the authors caution that people do not always conduct themselves in a manner that is consistent with their identities. This would be the case when employees feel obliged to work overtime due to work overload despite having a weak work identity. Aryee and Luk's (1996) study's central assumption was supported, regarding the roles prescribed to males and females in a gender-stratified society. That is, husbands were more likely to define themselves in terms of work roles, whereas wives defined themselves in terms of family roles. Furthermore, women achieve balance between their work and family identity by sacrificing one for the other; whilst men identify with both their work and family roles. Building on this line of research, Greenhaus et al. (2012) found that men tended to work long hours irrespective of their work and family identities. Women's' work hours were related to their work and family identities. Further findings revealed that men's work hours were unrelated to their job demands and the strength of their work and family identities. However, women who perceived that they had discretion over their work hours were likely to reduce their work hours when their work identity was weak or when their family identity was strong.

Greenhaus et al. (2012) attributed the gender difference to the manner in which men and women interpret their work and family identities.

There is a paucity of research on the construct of work identity among teachers; despite an exhaustive search no studies could be found reporting on the work identity of teachers. The findings of this study could help to fill the gap in the literature.

1.4.3. Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is a work-related well-being theory that combines work engagement and job burnout. This model suggests that separate working conditions, namely, job resources and job demands are responsible for producing work engagement and job burnout, respectively (Korunka, Kubicek, Schaufeli & Hoonakker, 2009). These authors argue that these working conditions each induce two distinct processes, namely a motivational process in which sufficient job resources, which promote employee motivation, may lead employees to become engaged in their work; and an energetic process in which high job demands cause employees' physical and psychological reserves to diminish, possibly resulting in job burnout. Accordingly, the JD-R model postulates that whilst job demands induce strain and tend to have adverse effects on employees' health (strain process), job resources serve to support the employee by evoking and promoting occupational well-being – hence, a motivational process (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Korunka et al. (2009) acknowledge the JD-R model's claim that job resources have a buffering effect on job strain (burnout), i.e. job resources such as social support and performance feedback moderate the effects of job demands on job burnout.

Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola (2008) identify a limitation of the JD-R model, being that it focuses strictly on the psychosocial work environment as a cause of health-related and motivational outcomes, without due regard to the impact of factors that are unrelated to work. The authors mention that there is empirical evidence that work and home factors may impact on employee well-being and health. In this regard, they cite a study by Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2005), which found that emotional home demands were negatively associated with females' experiences of work engagement, whilst home resources were related to work engagement in men and women. Hakanen et al. (2008) further discovered the following: i) in accordance with the JD-R model, lack of job resources predicted burnout, suggesting poor work engagement; ii) a negative effect of job demands on work engagement; iii) when home demands and home resources were added to the model, job demands no longer had an effect

on work engagement; and iv) work engagement is contingent upon the work environment (workplace conditions). The authors refute the likelihood of finding consistent support for a model that separates job demands and job resources to predict work engagement because job demands and job resources are largely intertwined.

In a study by De Braine and Roodt (2011), the Job Demands-Resources model was used as a predictor of work identity and work engagement. Findings suggested that both job demands and job resources predicted work-based identity, with job resources being the strongest predictor.

Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke (2004) utilised the job demands-resources (JD-R) model to assess the association between job characteristics, burnout and performance using a sample of employees working in different sectors and job positions. Results of the study supported the following hypotheses: (i) job demands were the most important antecedent of the exhaustion aspect of burnout, which consequently predicted in-role performance (tasks strictly required on the job); and (ii) job resources were the most salient predictors of extra-role performance (activities which enhance the collective character of the organisation). However, support was not found for the third hypothesis, viz. that the relationship between job demands and exhaustion would be buffered by job resources. In this regard, Bakker et al. (2004) took this to mean that certain resources (autonomy and social support from colleagues) have a restricted capacity to buffer the negative impact of job demands (work overload and emotional demands) on work-related strain such as exhaustion. In a different study by Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie and Stough (2011) which aimed to extend the JD-R model by determining how well working conditions (job demands and job resources) predicted psychological strain and organisational commitment among Australian university academics over three years, job resources were also found to behave in an uncharacteristic way, i.e. Time 1 job resources predicted Time 2 strain and organisational commitment in a direct manner. Furthermore, Time 1 job demands indirectly predicted Time 2 strain via job resources. Boyd et al's. (2011) study provided support for the JD-R model whereby over time job resources (procedural fairness and autonomy) predicted organisational commitment. Furthermore, the health impairment notion was partially supported whereby over time job demands predicted strain. The partial health impairment process was due to the moderating effect of job resources. The results of the study highlighted the importance of the job resources of procedural fairness and autonomy for the well-being of Australian academics. On the other hand, Bakker et al. (2004) confirmed the JD-R model assertion that job demands and job resources engender two different psychological processes, namely,

stress and motivational processes, respectively, which impact on organisational outcomes. The authors also suggested that employees are likely to develop cynicism, exhaustion and disengagement in jobs that have excessive job demands and insufficient job resources.

Using a sample of 805 Finnish teachers working in elementary, secondary and vocational schools, Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2007) investigated whether job resources would buffer the negative relationship between work engagement and pupil misbehaviour. With regard to the conservation of resources theory, the authors posited that job resources would impact on work engagement in the event that teachers come into contact with high levels of pupil misbehaviour. Results revealed that organisational climate, supervisor support, appreciation and innovativeness were the key job resources that buffered the impact of pupil misconduct (job demand) on teachers' work engagement. In this regard, job resources functioned as coping mechanisms to help the teachers deal with demanding conditions at work i.e. stress caused by badly-behaved pupils.

Rothmann, Barkhuizen and Tytherleigh (2008) investigated the associations between burnout, ill-health, job demands and job resources, and dispositional optimism using a sample of 279 South African academic staff working in a higher education institution. Findings suggested that the presence of job demands (e.g. work overload) with the lack of job resources (e.g. social support) caused exhaustion and cynicism, amongst the academics, which led to physical and psychological health impairment. The authors concluded that academic staff in higher education institutions would succumb to burnout in the midst of heightened job demands and insufficient job resources. Rothmann et al. (2008) argued that academic staff working in higher education institutions are confronted with heightened teaching and research demands amongst other things. These demands are attributable to the following trends: i) transformation in the form of mergers that has occurred in higher education institutions since the advent of democracy in South Africa – these mergers resulted in a student profile that is more reflective of the multicultural demographics of the country; ii) the influx of students, who attained a poor-quality primary and secondary education, into higher education institutions; iii) academics having to balance their lecturing duties with assistance of disadvantaged students, production of internationally-credible research and personal skills development.

1.4.4. Job Demands

Job demands are working conditions that comprise the following aspects of a job: physical (e.g. manual labour), social (e.g. group tasks) and organisational (e.g. working overtime hours). Job demands necessitate perpetual physical and psychological (cognitive and emotional) input from employees (Schaufeli et al., 2009). These authors assert that job demands can be regarded as potential job stressors; this would be the case when employees are required to expend high effort when they may not have it, in order to meet job demands. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model claims that job demands induce strain and are thus associated with a strain or health impairment process (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Fourie, Rothmann and van de Vijver (2008) investigated the effects of job demands, job resources and sense of coherence on the burnout and work engagement of non-professional counsellors in South African banks. Their findings supported the assertion that job demands and job resources contribute to work engagement and burnout. In this regard, subjects with a strong sense of coherence experienced more work engagement and less burnout. Furthermore, a significantly strong correlation between job resources and job demands was established. Accordingly subjects with high job demands also perceived a lack of job resources. The authors point out that it is possible that people can experience work engagement when faced with high job demands. In this regard, workers can still experience job satisfaction despite having to deal with work overload and long working hours. Furthermore, some workers prosper under stressful work conditions. This argument suggests that job demands are not completely negative. These authors state that job resources may moderate the effect of job demands on work engagement. They refer to a study by Hakenen, Bakker and Demerouti (2005), which revealed that job resources reduce the effects of job demands on work engagement. Moreover, the relationship between job demands and work engagement is weaker for people with high as opposed to low job resources.

Using a sample of university employees who held administrative positions, Sargent and Terry (1998) assessed the effects of work control (task, decision and scheduling control) and job demands on employee adjustment and work performance. Work control was defined as the extent to which workers were able to exert influence over their tasks and duties during at work. The researchers sought to find support for Karasek's (1979) demands-control model, which postulated that high levels of work control protect workers from the harmful effects of a demanding job. They found that under high levels of task control, job demands had a positive instead of a negative association with employee adjustment. Findings suggested

partial support for the proposition that the negative effects of job demands would be buffered by high levels of task control. In a similar line of research, using a sample of newcomers to their jobs, Taris and Feij (2004) examined job-related learning and strain as a function of job demand and job control. The authors found that levels of strain were reduced for the high demand and high control group across time. Surprisingly, strain levels reported by employees in low demand and low control groups increased marginally across time. Findings also suggested that employees in low demand and high control jobs reported more learning across time. With respect to the main effects of job demands, Sargent and Terry (1998) found that underutilisation of employee skills was negatively related to employee adjustment. Van Vegchel et al. (2005) cite Edwards and Cooper's (1990) classification of interaction terms. The *discrepancy term* is analogous to the additive effect, wherein job demands and job resources each have a linear relationship with strain. This term holds that job resources and strain are negatively related, whilst job demands and strain are positively related. The *multiplicative interaction*, also known as the buffer effect, suggests that job resources influence the strength of the relationship between job demands and strain. Here, job resources buffer the negative impact of job demands on strain. The *ration term* (proportional form) holds that a low amount of strain will be incurred when job demands are equal to job resources. However, if job demands exceed job resources, strain will increase (Van Vegchel et al., 2005).

Sargent and Terry (1998) maintain that a job is described as 'active' when high levels of job demands coexist with high levels of work control. In this instance, job demands promote employee well-being and function as a source of challenge and rejuvenation as opposed to a source of mental and physical stress. These findings indicate that job demands do not always have a negative effect (health-impairment process). However, the authors maintain that empirical evidence for the demands-control model is inconclusive and thus findings should be approached with caution. On the other hand Van Vegchel, de Jonge and Landsbergis (2005) found that a combination of high job demands and low decision latitude resulted in 'job strain'. The rejuvenating and supportive behaviour of job demands in the aforementioned discussion is typically characteristic of the function of job resources. Hakanen, Bakker and Demerouti (2005) examined job demands, job resources and work engagement using a sample of Finnish dentists employed in the public sector. Results revealed that job resources help dentists cope with high job demands and also help them stay engaged with their work. In particular it was found that high levels of job resources (positive patient contacts, variability in professional skills and peer contacts) reduced the negative

impact of job demands (workload and the impact of law reform on dentists' work) on work engagement. In this regard further support for the JD-R model was gained. Support for the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory was found, whereby job resources in the field of dentistry became paramount under stressful conditions (high job demands). Furthermore, results revealed that dentists with adequate job control and who exhibit innovativeness are better able to cope with their job demands.

Taris and Feij (2004) found that high levels of strain have an adverse effect on learning, however, evidence for the reverse effect was not obtained. The assumption of their study was that certain combinations of demands and control promote the development of young workers. The following combinations were considered: Employees in jobs with low demand and low control are said to experience low levels of strain owing to the fact that the job demands are low. Such jobs are viewed as virtually non-contributory to employee learning and personal development. Low levels of strain are also produced by low job demand and high job control as workers are able to deal with situational demands and hence can engage in moderate levels of learning. These researchers suggest that jobs with high demand and low control are thought to predict high levels of strain and reduced learning in the worker because workers are unable to respond adequately to situational demands. However, they echo the sentiment by Sargent and Terry (1998) that workers should not incur strain in a work environment that has high job demands coupled with high job control. In this instance, employees may develop feelings of mastery associated with learning that occurs under such conditions.

Job demands for secondary public school teachers in black communities in the South African context include inter alia: i) oversized classrooms of learners (John, 2012); ii) coming into contact with difficult (misbehaving) learners, iii) disruption of classroom teaching time by teacher trade unions who may call for the staging of teacher strikes at any time (Mohlala, 2009, Nkosi, 2012) and iv) learner violence in the schools, i.e. rapes amongst learners and intimidation of teachers by learners (Mail & Guardian, 2008). These job demands are largely characteristic of schools in black communities. There are relatively few reports of violence and disruption in Model C schools in comparison to schools in black communities.

1.4.5. Job Resources

Job resources are working conditions, which refer to the extent to which a job offers resources to individual workers that may help alleviate their work-related stress, provide

them with support regarding work tasks and duties, and also motivate them, thereby making their experience at work pleasant (Schaufeli et al., 2009). The authors argue that job resources comprise the physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that empower employees to meet job demands and their associated disadvantages (physiological or psychological), as well as attain their work goals. Job resources also induce learning and personal development within the employee. The following examples of job resources are cited by the authors: autonomy, social support, performance feedback, and opportunities to learn. Bakker et al. (2008) assert that job resources can play two roles, namely, an *intrinsic motivational role* because they nurture employees' learning and development; and an *extrinsic motivational role* because they facilitate employees' goal attainment. Furthermore, human needs such as autonomy, relatedness and job competence, can be fulfilled through job resources. For example, feedback from the employer promotes learning, which would increase an employee's job competence – hence job resources can serve an intrinsic motivational function. Job resources also serve an extrinsic motivational role in work environments that offer multiple resources, as these environments promote employees' willingness to commit their energies and abilities to the work tasks. Bakker et al. (2008, p. 192) posit that “job resources become more salient and gain their motivational potential when employees are confronted with high job demands”. According to Rothmann and Rothmann (2010), job resources can be found at an organisational level (e.g. salary, job security and career opportunities), within interpersonal and social relations (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support), within the organisation of work (e.g. role clarity), and at the level of a task (e.g. performance feedback).

Research by Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) unearthed factors associated with employee engagement. Findings suggested that job resources predicted and were positively associated with employee engagement. In this regard, growth opportunities (learning opportunities, autonomy and variety) had the greatest impact on employee engagement. Employee engagement was also related to the following categories of job resources: growth opportunities, organisational support, social support and advancement. The aforementioned findings provide supportive evidence for the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory developed by Hobfoll (1988), which states that job resources are beneficial to employees. When job resources are lacking, job demands impact negatively on employees such that they cannot achieve their work goals and develop themselves. Accordingly, employees that receive insufficient job resources from their organisations will probably experience reduced motivation and commitment and are likely to withdraw from their work. This in turn may

have negative implications for the employees' work identity. Job resources are important for both work engagement and work identity of employees.

Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola and Demerouti (2010) aimed to investigate the relationship between **job resources** and work-related flow using variable- and person-oriented approaches. The moderating effect of emotional exhaustion on the relationship between job resources and flow was assessed. Emotional exhaustion was also studied as a predictor of the development of job resources and flow. Findings suggested that low levels of exhaustion predicted high levels of job resources and flow. Furthermore, exhaustion did not moderate the job resources-flow relationship. Makikangas et al. (2010) also found that job resources and flow were positively and cyclically related, i.e. changes in work-related flow and job resources occurred concurrently and in the same direction. Moreover, the COR theory was supported insofar as participants of the study who found themselves amidst organisational change emphasised the preservation of their job resources. In particular, those who initially had high levels of job resources and flow retained such levels during change, whilst those who initially had low levels of job resources and flow suffered a reduction in both factors during change (loss cycle).

The absence of job resources has been associated with a health-impairment process. In this regard, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) cited in Boyd et al. (2011) found that burnout was predicted by the absence of the following job resources: social support, feedback and supervisory coaching. Also, Janssen, Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes and Tummers (2004) cited in Boyd et al. (2011) found that whilst social support was positively related to job satisfaction, it was negatively related exhaustion in nurses and their assistants. The behaviour of job resources in this regard, is explained as follows: energy can be reduced due to excessive job demands as well as insufficient amounts of key job resources which could result in workers drawing on their personal reserves to compensate for inadequate job resources (Boyd et al., 2011).

1.5. Rationale for the study

It is possible that teachers have a problematic work identity, which may have implications for teaching effectiveness and learning effectiveness. If teachers with relevant skills are unable to engage meaningfully with their occupation (poor work identity) this could result in teaching ineffectiveness. Furthermore, their acquired skills would be obsolete. Of what use would their training be if teachers are unable to implement their teaching knowledge? Teachers' career

goals are inextricably linked to the progress of their learners. Those who have a poor work identity have little to offer learners. This is the price that is paid for a poor work identity.

Previous research has explained, on the one hand, the construct of career commitment and on the other hand, the constructs of work identity, job demands and job resources in the context of workers in organisations (Fourie et al., 2008; Goulet & Singh, 2002; Saayman & Crafford, 2011). The present study examines the utility of these constructs in a different work environment, namely, the school. The applicability of these constructs across different work environments could optimise their utility.

The present study uses career commitment and work identity as separate constructs. This study acknowledges the theoretical uniqueness of each construct and aims to employ the two constructs of career commitment and work identity in order to highlight problem areas in the work lives of teachers.

Literature indicates that job resources enhance employees' work experience (Schaufeli et al., 2009). In light of this finding, it is conceivable that employees would better identify with their job (work identity) if it is accompanied by sufficient job resources. This study examines the role of career commitment of teachers in the relationship between work identity and job demands-and-job resources of teachers. The study could highlight the significance of career commitment as a behaviour that should be encouraged and rewarded to improve teachers' work identity. In this regard career commitment would be an intervention strategy for the identified problem. This would be a further contribution to the literature.

According to Hakenen et al. (2008) job demands and job resources are largely intertwined. Hence, the proposed study includes both variables to explain the relationship between career commitment and work identity of teachers.

1.6. Value-add of the proposed research

The research question for the study will help to increase our understanding of the manner in which the variables of interest operate amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers as compared to Model C Secondary school teachers. Furthermore, our understanding of the dynamics involving teacher behaviour in terms of the selected variables could help in the formulation of intervention strategies for problem solving regarding work-related issues faced by the teachers.

1.7. Research Question

The following research question can be formulated based on the description of the research problem:

- What is the effect of career commitment on work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto secondary schools in comparison with those in Model C secondary schools?

Hypotheses:

In this study the following hypotheses are made:

1. There is a relationship between work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto secondary schools in comparison with those in Model C secondary schools.
2. Career commitment will moderate the relationship between work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto secondary schools compared to Model C secondary schools.

CHAPTER TWO

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section will provide information about the research design and procedure, the subjects of the study, the instruments and statistical analysis used in the study and ethical considerations for the study.

2.1. Research Approach

The study was of a cross-sectional nature and involved South African teachers in Soweto secondary schools and former Model C (privileged) secondary schools. A quantitative approach was used for the study. The chosen research design was suitable because the constructs of career commitment, work identity, job demands and job resources were quantifiable. Data-gathering involved the administration of three measuring instruments to the participants of the study. Quantitative data was obtained for analysis.

The ethical principles of informed consent, institutional approval and confidentiality were observed in the proposed study. Furthermore, the participants' identities were protected and the data gathered was utilised strictly for research purposes.

2.2. Research Procedure

Permission was sought from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the study in the schools. Following admission into the schools, the researcher acquired consent from the principals and teachers in the chosen schools, to participate in the research. The nature of the research was conveyed to the participants, following which the research instruments (scales) were administered. The project was introduced to the school principals, who availed teachers to participate in the research. The researcher distributed over 300 questionnaire booklets to a random sample of Soweto and Model C secondary schools. Sets of 5 to 10 booklets were distributed to each of the randomly selected schools. The questionnaires were self-administered by the teachers who volunteered to participate in the research. The process was monitored through contact with the school and the completed questionnaires were collected. There was a low return rate in the limited time period for data collection; a significant number of teachers failed to return the questionnaires. For this reason, and due to time

constraints, the researcher stopped collecting the questionnaire booklets once 100 booklets for each of the two groups had been collected. The acquired data was captured, coded and analysed using the SPSS program.

2.3. Research Method

This section includes the following aspects: sample/participants of the study, instrumentation (measuring battery) and statistical analysis of the data.

2.3.1. Sample/Participants of the study

A random sample comprising 100 male and female teachers from *Soweto* secondary schools and 100 male and female teachers from the *former Model C* (privileged) secondary schools located in the suburbs of Johannesburg, was utilised in the study. The descriptive characteristics of the teachers included age, gender, language, level of education and training as well as years of teaching experience (refer to Appendix C). It was suggested that Soweto secondary schools do not have optimal working conditions i.e. the job demands are excessive and job resources are insufficient. Hence, the impact/effect of career commitment could be best assessed by examining how this variable operated under optimal working conditions i.e. sufficient job resources and non-excessive job demands. The researcher contemplated that such optimal working conditions were likely to be found in privileged schools (former Model C secondary schools). In order to observe a moderating effect of career commitment, it was necessary to obtain data from the two groups of secondary school teachers.

2.3.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics below provide a summary of the data of the characteristics of the participants:

Table 1

Characteristics of Participants in Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools: Gender

GENDER				
	Soweto		Model C	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Male	30	30.0	16	16.0
Female	70	70.0	84	84.0

In both Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools there is a preponderance of female teachers.

In Soweto Secondary schools, female teachers were in the majority, comprising 70 % of the group and male teachers comprised the remaining 30%. Whilst in Model C Secondary schools, female teachers were also in the majority (84%) with male teachers comprising only 16%.

Table 2

Characteristics of Participants in Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools: Age

Statistics	
AGE	
Soweto	
Mean	44.970
Std. Deviation	9.0826
Model C	
Mean	43.280
Std. Deviation	11.1863

The ages of Soweto Secondary School teachers varied from 21 to 64 years, with an average age of 45 years; whilst the ages of Model C Secondary School teachers varied from 22 to 66 years, with an average age of 43.3 years. The teachers' ages in both groups were fairly homogenous.

Table 3

Characteristics of Participants in Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools: Education and training

EDUCATION and TRAINING				
	Soweto		Model C	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Grade 12	0	0.0	1	1.0
Grade 12 plus 1-year Diploma	1	1.0	0	0.0
Grade 12 plus 3-year Diploma	38	38.0	26	26.0
Bachelor's Degree plus Diploma	39	39.0	47	47.0
Bachelor of Honours	19	19.0	23	23.0
Master's Degree	3	3.0	3	3.0

Amongst Soweto Secondary School teachers 39% are at a Diploma level; another 39% possess a Bachelor's Degree; a further 19% obtained a second degree (Bachelor of Honours) and only 3% have graduated with a Master's Degree. In the Model C Secondary schools, the majority of the teachers possessed a Bachelor's Degree (47%), 23% have attained a Bachelor of Honours Degree and 3% have attained a senior degree (Masters). Only 26% have the minimum qualification (3-year Diploma) and only one teacher had a Grade 12 qualification. The teachers in both groups are professionally qualified.

Table 4

Characteristics of Participants in Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools: Teaching experience

TEACHING EXPERIENCE				
	Soweto		Model C	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1: 0-5 years	16	16.0	10	10.0
2: 5-10 years	17	17.0	17	17.0
3: 11-20 years	30	30.0	31	31.0
4: 21-30 years	21	21.0	26	26.0
5: 31-40 years	15	15.0	12	12.0
6: 41+ years	1	1.0	4	4.0

A considerable number (30%) of Soweto Secondary School teachers have acquired teaching experience of 11 to 20 years, followed by 21% with 21 to 30 years professional experience. Those with 5 to 10 years of experience comprised 17% of the group. At the extreme ends, 16% of the group had 0 to 5 years' experience and another 16% had over 30 years of teaching experience. Of the Model C group, 31% acquired teaching experience of 11 to 20 years, followed by 26% with 21 to 30 years of experience. Those with 5 to 10 years of experience comprised 17% of the group. At the lower extreme were 10% of teachers with 0 to 5 years of teaching experience and at the upper extreme 4% of teachers with over 40 years of teaching experience.

The profile in terms of teaching experience is similar for both the Soweto and Model C secondary school teachers.

Table 5

Characteristics of Participants in Soweto and Model C Secondary Schools: Language

LANGUAGE				
	Soweto		Model C	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
English	14	14.0	89	89.0
Afrikaans	0	0.0	9	9.0
IsiXhosa	4	4.0	0	0.0
IsiZulu	23	23.0	2	2.0
Sepedi	22	22.0	0	0.0
Sesotho	10	10.0	0	0.0
Setswana	13	13.0	0	0.0
SiSwati	1	1.0	0	0.0
Tshivenda	2	2.0	0	0.0
Xitsonga	11	11.0	0	0.0
IsiNdebele	0	0.0	0	0.0

The first language of the Soweto Secondary school teachers is diverse and largely reflects the language composition of the country. However, the Zulu- and Tswana-speaking teachers are in the majority, altogether comprising 45% of the group. In Model C schools, the overwhelming majority of the group were English-speaking, a few (9%) were Afrikaans speaking and only 2% were Zulu-speaking teachers. Thus, the Soweto Secondary Schools are heterogeneous in terms of language.

2.3.3. Measuring Instruments

Three measures were used, namely, the *Career Commitment Scale*; the *Work-based Identity Questionnaire* and the *Job Characteristics Scale*.

2.3.3.1. Career Commitment Scale

Blau's (1988) 7-item Career Commitment Scale (CCS) measures the extent to which individuals are committed to their career (refer to Appendix D). Typical examples of items found in this scale are: 'I would take a different job that paid the same', 'If I could do it all over, I would not choose this vocation', 'I enjoy my vocation too much to give it up' and

‘This is my ideal vocation for my life’ (Southgate, 2005). The Career Commitment Scale has a 5-point scale response format, with ‘strongly agree’ (score of 1) and ‘strongly disagree’ (score of 5) on opposite ends of the scale (Southgate, 2005). Furthermore, items 1, 3 and 7 have been reverse scored. This scale is reported to have reliability estimates of $\alpha = .87$ and $\alpha = .75$ on successive occasions. These values indicate high levels of internal consistency. A test-retest reliability value of $\alpha = .67$ has also been obtained (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1994).

2.3.3.2. Work-Based Identity Scale

The Work-Based Identity Scale (WI-28), developed in South Africa by Roodt, De Braine, Bothma and Jansen (2009), is a 28-item scale that measures the work identity of individual employees (refer to Appendix F). Items of this scale represent the following facets of work-based identity: occupational identity, professional identity, career identity, job involvement, person-organisation fit, work role centrality, and organisational identification (Bothma, 2011). Examples of items are: “How much is your own identity based on your job?”, “To what degree do your values match or fit the values of the organisation that you work for?”, and “Does it feel like a personal accomplishment when someone praises the organisation that you work for?” (Roodt et al., 2009). The items are rated on a 7-point intensity response scale that is anchored at extreme poles, e.g. “To no extent” represented by the value 1 which indicates low intensity; to “To a great extent” represented by the value 7 which indicates high intensity. Respondents indicate their answers to each item based on their subjective perception by circling the corresponding value. Rood et al. (2009) established a Cronbach alpha of .95 for this scale. No reversed score items have been used in the final Work-based Identity Scale. This scale takes seven minutes to complete (Roodt et al., 2009).

2.3.3.3. Job Characteristics Scale

The Job Characteristics Scale, developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005) is used to assess the job demands and job resources for workers (refer to Appendix E). The measure is comprised of 48 items which are rated on a 4-point scale with a score of 1 indicating ‘Never’ and a score of 4 indicating ‘Always’. Respondents indicate their answers to each item based on their subjective perception by marking a cross on the corresponding value. The following are examples of items that can be found in the scale: “Does your work put you in emotionally upsetting situations?”; “Does your job offer you opportunities for personal growth and

development?"; "Does your work make sufficient demands on all your skills and capacities?"; "Can you count on your colleagues when you come across difficulties in your work?"; and "Do you think you are paid enough for the work that you do?". Participants should complete this Scale in approximately 35 minutes. The following internal consistency reliabilities were found for certain items in the scale: $\alpha = .89$ for three items on job insecurity, $\alpha = .76$ for eight items on overload, $\alpha = .86$ for six items on advancement, $\alpha = .92$ for 18 items on organisational support (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006) cited in Rothmann, Mostert and Strydom (2006), and $\alpha = .86$ for seven items on growth opportunities. In a version of this scale developed by Rothmann, Mostert and Strydom (2006), the following alpha coefficients for the Job Demands-Resources Scale across several South Africa occupations and organisations were established: overload: $\alpha = .76$; organisational support: $\alpha = .92$; growth opportunities: $\alpha = .86$; advancement: $\alpha = .83$; and job insecurity: $\alpha = .89$. The obtained coefficients indicate an acceptable level of internal consistency for the JD-RS (Rothmann, Mostert & Strydom, 2006).

2.3.4. Statistical Analysis.

Data was analysed using a quantitative method. The SPSS statistical program was employed to assess the data. The characteristics of the sample were summarised through descriptive statistics. A *correlational approach* was the basis for this study. Fourie, Rothmann and van de Vijver (2008) have considered the role of job resources as a moderating variable. In this regard they cite a study by Hakenen, Bakker and Demerouti, which established that the relationship between job demands and work engagement is weaker for people with high as opposed to low job resources. This study dealt with a moderator effect of *career commitment* within a correlational framework. Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174) define a moderator as "a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable." Hence, a third variable (Z) is said to moderate the relationship between two other variables (X and Y) if the degree of the relationship between X and Y is affected by the level of Z (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). Baron and Kenny (1986) assert that a moderator effect within a correlational framework occurs when the direction of the correlation changes. In this regard, it was considered that with the introduction of career commitment, the relationship between the work identity and job demands-and-job resources would change, whereby work identity would be improved, despite excessive job demands and

insufficient job resources. That is, career commitment would have a moderating effect on the relationship between the work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto.

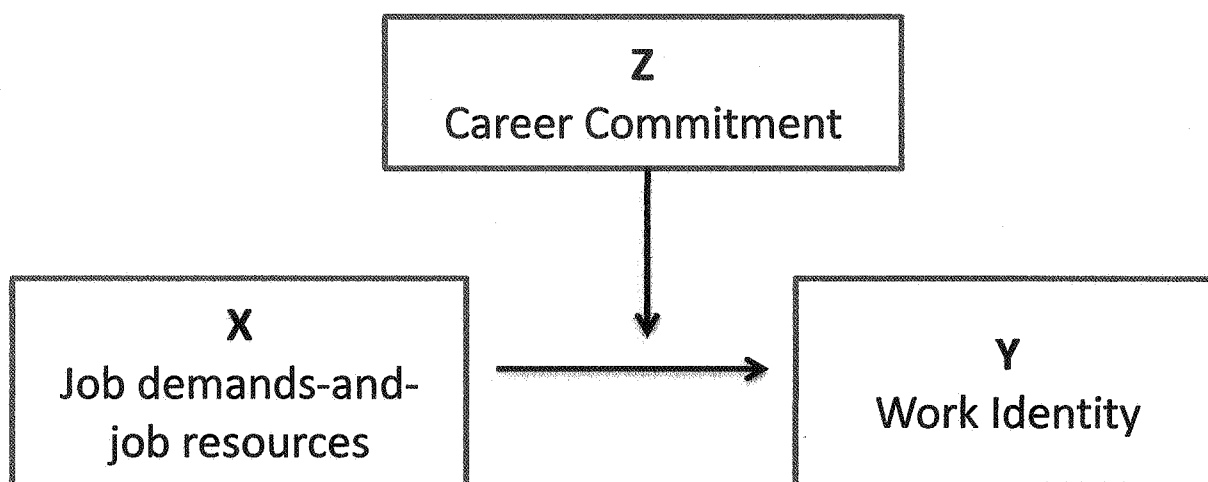


Figure 1: Moderation Diagram

Reliability: Internal consistency

According to Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003, p. 10) “Reliability is concerned with that portion of measurement that is due to permanent effects that persist from sample to sample”. In this study internal consistency for each scale used was sought. Internal consistency is a measure of item interrelatedness in a scale. According to the aforementioned authors, items in a scale should be highly related. Cronbach’s Alpha was applied to determine the internal consistency of the Career Commitment, Work-based Identity and the Job Characteristics Scales. An Alpha value above 0.70 was indicative of acceptable internal consistency.

Means and Standard Deviations

The means and standard deviations of the Career Commitment, Work-Based Identity and Job Characteristics Scales were computed. The mean can be defined as “A measure of location or central value for a continuous variable” Everitt & Wykes, 1999, P. 116). The standard deviation represents the degree to which individual scores deviate from the mean score.

Independent Samples t-test

Everitt and Wykes (1999), maintain that a t-test is a significance test aimed at the assessment of hypotheses about population means. In this regard, an independent samples t-test is applied

when there are independent samples available from the population. In this study, an independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether the two groups used in the study (i.e. Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers) were significantly different in terms of the variables of the study.

Correlations: Bivariate and Partial

“A correlation is a measure of the extent to which two variables are linearly related” (Miles & Shevlin, 2001, p. 20). A correlation is said to depict a special case regression line that has an intercept of zero and variables that have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. Illustrated on a scatterplot, a correlation would embody the degree to which the scatterplot of the link between two variables produces a straight line. The aforementioned authors opine that a perfect correlation is depicted by a value of either +1 or -1. A correlation coefficient of zero is indicative of no linear association between variables. In this study bivariate correlations were computed to determine whether there were any significant associations between the Work Identity and Job-demands-and-job resources of Soweto Secondary School teachers. Furthermore, partial correlations for these variables were computed with Career Commitment as the control variable to determine whether Career Commitment influenced (moderated) them. Partial correlations allow one to examine the impact of a third variable on the relationship between two other variables (Everitt & Wykes, 1999). This is analogous to a moderation effect. When describing the correlations, an effect size was reported. According to Miles and Shevlin (2001), an effect size represents the size of a correlation or regression coefficient that would be found if one were to measure the entire population from which a randomly selected sample was drawn. A large effect size has a greater chance of being identified and vice-versa.

2.3.5. Ethical Considerations

The following are some of the relevant ethical issues of the study that were considered and dealt with (refer to Appendix G for Ethics Clearance Certificate):

Institutional approval was sought through a Research Request Form from the Gauteng Department of Education in order to conduct the proposed research at the specific locations (refer to Appendix H). An information letter was given to the relevant teachers. In this information letter the researcher informed the teachers of the research that the study would be supervised by the Department of Psychology of the University of the Witwatersrand; that

there were no risks or benefits associated with participation; and that participants would be free to withdraw from the study at any time (refer to Appendix A). Obtaining *informed consent* from the participants of the study was important. In this regard, the researcher avoided coercing teachers to be part of the study. The participants were informed of the nature and purpose of the study and given the freedom to decide on whether or not to participate in the research. An official written letter of consent detailing the nature and purpose of the study was given to the teachers so as to obtain formal permission to involve them in the study (refer to Appendix B). Participants were notified that their personal identities would be kept anonymous (and thus *confidential*) and that any information gathered from the study would be used strictly for research purposes. Furthermore, the data would be kept in a safe place (on a computer) with access only open to the holder of the password and nobody except the research student and the supervisor would have access to the data.

Regarding the *provision of information about the outcomes of research*, it was envisaged that participants of the study would have liked to receive feedback on it. Therefore the researcher would make a copy of a summary of the results available to the Department of Education. It was also envisaged that data capturing and analysis would be challenging considering the large volumes of information that would be elicited. Therefore, the researcher aimed to *report the results* of the study honestly and without deliberate distortion. Ethical Principles and Code of Conduct as provided by the University of the Witwatersrand's Ethical Procedure were adhered to throughout the research process. It is important for the researcher to ensure trustworthiness. In this regard the researcher was open about the purpose and aims of the research, her identity as a student and granting the teachers permission to verify her status.

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESULTS

The outcomes of statistical analysis involve the means, standard deviations and reliabilities of the scales; the independent samples t-test; bivariate and partial correlations between variables and moderation analysis outputs of the data.

3.1. Reliability Analysis of the Scales used in the study

Table 6

Reliability Statistic of Career Commitment Scale, Work-Based Identity Scale and the various sub-scales of the Job Characteristics Scale

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Career Commitment Scale	
.835	7
Work-Based Identity Scale	
.934	28
Growth Opportunities	
.756	7
Organisational Support	
.881	21
Advancement	
.731	6
Overload	
.745	11
Job Insecurity	
.918	3

An acceptable level of reliability is indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha value that is above .70. Table 6 indicates that the Career Commitment Scale has good reliability ($\alpha > .70$) whilst the Work-Based Identity Scale has excellent reliability. Cronbach's Alpha indicates an

acceptable level of reliability for the Growth Opportunities subscale of the Job Characteristics Scale. Furthermore, the Organisational Support subscale has very good reliability. Both the Advancement and Overload subscales of the Job Characteristics Scale have acceptable reliability. Cronbach's Alpha indicates excellent reliability for the Job Insecurity subscale of the Job Characteristics Scale.

3.2. Means and Standard deviations of the Scales

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Career Commitment, Job Characteristics and Work-Based Identity Scales for Soweto (N = 100) and Model C Secondary Schools (N = 100)

	Soweto		Model C	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Career Commitment	3.367	.881	3.804	.709
Growth Opportunities	2.945	.601	2.908	.456
Organisational Support	2.876	.511	2.921	.391
Advancement	1.826	.560	1.810	.402
Overload	3.100	.444	3.218	.340
Job Insecurity	2.156	1.064	2.983	.997
Work Identity	5.119	.722	5.056	.946

For the **Career Commitment Scale** the maximum score that a respondent could obtain is 5 and the minimum 1. For the Soweto Secondary school teachers the mean score on the Career Commitment Scale was 3.37, indicating that their levels of Career Commitment were moderate.

For the **Job Characteristics Scale**, the minimum score for all five subscales would be 1 (Never) and the maximum score 4 (Always). Regarding the Soweto Secondary school teachers, the following mean scores were obtained for the various subscales: Growth Opportunities ($M = 2.95$); Organisational Support ($M = 2.88$); Advancement ($M = 1.83$); Overload ($M = 3.10$); and Job Insecurity ($M = 2.16$). The data indicate an above average level of Growth Opportunities and Organisational Support and high levels of Overload. The respondents had moderate levels of Job Insecurity while their Job Advancement prospects were perceived to be relatively low.

For the **Work-Based Identity Scale** the maximum score that a respondent could obtain is 7 and the minimum 1. For the Soweto Secondary school teachers the mean score on the Work-Based Identity Scale was 5.12 indicating that their levels of Work Identity were above average.

For the Model C Secondary school teachers the mean score on the Career Commitment Scale was 3.80, indicating above average levels of Career Commitment.

The following mean scores were obtained for the various subscales of the Job Characteristics Scale: Growth Opportunities ($M = 2.91$); Organisational Support ($M = 2.92$); Advancement ($M = 1.81$); Overload ($M = 3.22$); and Job Insecurity ($M = 2.98$). The data indicate similar levels of Growth Opportunities, Organisational Support and Job Insecurity, which are fairly high. The levels of Overload were high whilst Job Advancement prospects were perceived to be relatively low. The levels of Work Identity for Model C Secondary school teachers were above average, with a mean score of 5.06.

3.3. Independent Samples t-test

Table 8

Independent Samples T-Test on Soweto Schools and Model C Schools

	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Career commitment	-3.863**	.000
Growth Opportunities	.492	.623
Organisational Support	-.703	.483
Advancement	.242	.809
Overload	-2.095*	.038
Job Insecurity	-5.667**	.000
Work Identity	.523	.601

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

It must be noted that in instances where Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was found to be significant the data for the pooled variances (Unequal variances assumed row) were used to report the results. Regarding **Career Commitment**, Table 11A indicates that there is a significant difference between Soweto and Model C teachers' levels of Career Commitment $t(189.381) = -3.86; p < .000$. Model C teachers had higher levels of Career Commitment ($M = 3.80$) than Soweto teachers ($M = 3.37$). However, there was no significant difference in Soweto and Model C teachers' levels of **Work Identity**, $t(185.110) = 0.52; p > .05$.

Soweto and Model C teachers did not differ significantly in terms of their levels of Job resources, namely, **Growth Opportunities** (GO_T): $t(184.678) = 0.49; p > .05$; **Organisational Support**: $t(185.298) = -.70; p > .05$; and **Advancement**: $t(198) = .24; p > .05$.

Regarding **Overload**, there was a significant difference between Soweto and Model C teachers: $t(185.323) = -2.10; p < .05$. The Model C teachers had higher levels of Overload ($M = 3.22$) than the Soweto teachers ($M = 3.10$). Similarly, it was found that the two groups of teachers differed significantly in their levels of **Job Insecurity**: $t(198) = -5.67; p < .05$. The Model C teachers had higher levels of Job Insecurity ($M = 2.98$) than the Soweto teachers ($M = 2.16$).

3.4. Bivariate and partial correlations between variables

Table 9

Bivariate correlations between Work Identity and Growth Opportunities, Organisational Support, Advancement, Overload and Job Insecurity for teachers in Soweto Secondary Schools (N=100)

		Growth Opportunities
Work Identity	Pearson Correlation	.407**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		Organisational Support
		.304**
		.002
		Advancement
		.206*
		.040
		Overload
		.108
		.283
		Job Insecurity
		-.230*
		.021

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There was a significant positive relationship between Growth Opportunities and Work Identity amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .407$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). A significant positive relationship between Organisational Support and Work Identity was also found for this group of teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .304$, $p = .002$, $n = 100$). Furthermore, there was a significant positive relationship between Advancement and Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .206$, $p = .040$, $n = 100$). However, there was no significant relationship between Overload and Work Identity amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers ($r = .108$, $p = .283$, $n = 100$). A significant negative relationship between Job Insecurity and Work Identity was found amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*small effect*, $r = -.230$, $p = .021$, $n = 100$).

Table 10

Correlations between Career Commitment and Job Demands and Job Resources and between Career Commitment and Work Identity for teachers in Soweto Secondary Schools

Career Commitment ↔ Growth Opportunities
.409**
Career Commitment ↔ Organisational Support
.335**
Career Commitment ↔ Advancement
.276**
Career Commitment ↔ Overload
-.202*
Career Commitment ↔ Job Insecurity
-.082
Career Commitment ↔ Work Identity
.221*

* = $P < .05$

** = $P < .01$

Career Commitment was significantly and positively related to **Growth Opportunities** amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .409$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). Similarly a significant and positive relationship was found between Career Commitment and Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .221$, $p = .027$, $n = 100$). Career Commitment was significantly and positively related to **Organisational Support** amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .335$, $p = .001$, $n = 100$). Similarly a significant and positive relationship was found between Work Identity and Career Commitment (*small effect*, $r = .221$, $p = .027$, $n = 100$). A positive and significant relationship between Career Commitment and **Advancement** was found amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*small effect*, $r = .276$, $p = .005$, $n = 100$). Career Commitment was also significantly and positively related to Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .221$, $p = .027$, $n = 100$). There was a significant negative relationship between Career Commitment and **Overload** amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (*small effect*, $r = -.202$, $p = .044$, $n = 100$). However, a significant positive relationship between Career Commitment and Work Identity was found (*small effect*, $r = .221$, $p = .027$, $n = 100$). There was an insignificant negative relationship

between Career Commitment and **Job Insecurity** amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers (very small effect, $r = -.082$, $p = .415$, $n = 100$). However, a significant and positive relationship was found between Career Commitment and Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .221$, $p = .027$, $n = 100$).

Table 11

Bivariate and partial correlations between Job Demands and Job Resources, Work Identity and Career Commitment for teachers in Soweto Secondary Schools

Growth Opportunities ↔ Work Identity	Growth Opportunities ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.407**	.356**
Organisational Support ↔ Work Identity	Organisational Support ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.304**	.250*
Advancement ↔ Work Identity	Advancement ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.206*	.154
Overload ↔ Work Identity	Overload ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.108	.160
Job Insecurity ↔ Work Identity	Job Insecurity ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
-.230*	-.218*

* = $P < .05$

** = $P < .01$

The relationship between **Growth Opportunities** and Work Identity may have been confounded by Career Commitment. When controlling for Career Commitment, the strength of the relationship between Growth Opportunities and Work Identity decreased (*medium effect*, $r = .356$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). However, the relationship remained positive and significant. The relationship between **Organisational Support** and Work Identity may also have been influenced by Career Commitment. When controlling for Career Commitment, the strength of the relationship between Organisational Support and Work Identity decreased (*small effect*, $r = .250$, $p = .013$, $n = 100$). However, the relationship remained positive and significant. When controlling for Career Commitment, the relationship between **Advancement** and Work Identity became non-significant and the strength of the relationship decreased (*small effect*, $r = .154$, $p = .127$, $n = 100$). When controlling for Career Commitment, the relationship between **Overload** and Work Identity remained insignificant (r

= .160, $p = .113$, $n = 100$). There was a noticeable decrease in the strength of the relationship between **Job Insecurity** and Work Identity when controlling for Career Commitment. However, the relationship remained negative and significant (*small effect*, $r = -.218$, $p = .030$, $n = 100$).

Table 12

Bivariate correlations between Work Identity and Growth Opportunities, Organisational Support, Advancement, Overload and Job Insecurity for teachers in Model C Secondary Schools (N=100)

Work Identity	Pearson Correlation	Growth Opportunities
		.496**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		Organisational Support
		.503**
		.000
		Advancement
		.306**
		.002
		Overload
		.186
		.064
		Job Insecurity
		-.136
		.177

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There was a significant positive relationship between Growth Opportunities and Work Identity amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (*large effect*, $r = .496$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). A significant positive relationship between Organisational Support and Work Identity was also found amongst this group of teachers (*large effect*, $r = .503$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). Furthermore, Advancement and Work Identity were significantly and positively related (*medium effect*, $r = .306$, $p = .002$, $n = 100$). However, there was no significant relationship between Overload and Work Identity amongst Model C Secondary school teachers ($r = .186$, $p = .064$, $n = 100$). Similarly, no significant relationship between Job Insecurity and Work Identity was found amongst Model C Secondary school teachers ($r = -.136$, $p = .177$, $n = 100$).

Table 13

Correlations between Career Commitment and Job Demands and Job Resources and between Career Commitment and Work Identity for teachers in Model C Secondary Schools

Career Commitment ↔ Growth Opportunities
.437**
Career Commitment ↔ Organisational Support
.340**
Career Commitment ↔ Advancement
.303**
Career Commitment ↔ Overload
-.077
Career Commitment ↔ Job Insecurity
.311**
Career Commitment ↔ Work Identity
.262**

* = $P < .05$

** = $P < .01$

Career Commitment was significantly and positively related to **Growth Opportunities** amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .437$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). Similarly a significant and positive relationship was found between Career Commitment and Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .262$, $p = .008$, $n = 100$). A positive and significant relationship between Career Commitment and **Organisational Support** was found amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .340$, $p = .001$, $n = 100$). Career Commitment was also significantly and positively related to Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .262$, $p = .008$, $n = 100$). There was a significant positive relationship between Career Commitment and **Advancement** amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .303$, $p = .002$, $n = 100$). A significant and positive relationship between Career Commitment and Work Identity was also found (*small effect*, $r = .262$, $p = .008$, $n = 100$). There was an insignificant negative relationship between Career Commitment and **Overload** amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (very small effect, $r = -.077$, $p = .445$, $n = 100$). However, a significant and positive relationship was found between Career Commitment and Work Identity (*small effect*, $r = .262$, $p = .008$, $n = 100$). There was a significant positive

relationship between Career Commitment and **Job Insecurity** amongst Model C Secondary school teachers (*medium effect*, $r = .311$, $p = .002$, $n = 100$). Similarly, a significant and positive relationship between Career Commitment and Work Identity was found (*small effect*, $r = .262$, $p = .008$, $n = 100$).

Table 14

Bivariate and partial correlations between Job Demands and Job Resources, Work Identity and Career Commitment for teachers in Model C Secondary Schools

Growth Opportunities ↔ Work Identity	Growth Opportunities ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.496**	.440**
Organisational Support ↔ Work Identity	Organisational Support ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.503**	.456**
Advancement ↔ Work Identity	Advancement ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.306**	.246*
Overload ↔ Work Identity	Overload ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
.186	.215*
Job Insecurity ↔ Work Identity	Job Insecurity ↔ Work Identity with Career Commitment partialled out
-.136	-.237*

* = $P < .05$

** = $P < .01$

It appears that Career Commitment tends to overestimate the degree of the relationship between **Growth Opportunity** and Work Identity. When controlling for Career Commitment, the strength of the relationship between Growth Opportunities and Work Identity decreased (*medium effect*, $r = .440$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). However, the relationship remained positive and significant. There was a noticeable decrease in the strength of the relationship between **Organisational Support** and Work Identity when controlling for Career Commitment. However, the relationship remained positive and significant (*large effect*, $r = .456$, $p = .000$, $n = 100$). On controlling for the effects of Career Commitment on the relationship between **Advancement** and Work Identity, there was a decrease in the strength of the relationship (small effect, $r = .246$, $p = .014$, $n = 100$). However, the relationship remained significant and positive. Although the bivariate correlation results reflect a non-significant relationship between **Overload** and Work Identity, these variables

became significantly and positively related after Career Commitment was controlled for (small effect, $r = .215$, $p = .033$, $n = 100$). While the bivariate correlation results indicated a non-significant relationship between **Job Insecurity** and Work Identity; however, these variables became significantly and negatively related after Career Commitment was controlled for (small effect, $r = -.237$, $p = .018$, $n = 100$).

CHAPTER 4

4. DISCUSSION

This section discusses the key findings of the study in terms of theoretical and practical limitations. The shortcomings of the study are outlined and the directions for future research are suggested.

4.1. Discussion of the results

Motivational value of job demands

The first hypothesis of the study was that there was a relationship between work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto Secondary schools, whilst the second hypothesis was that career commitment would moderate the relationship between work identity and job demands-and-job resources among teachers in Soweto secondary schools. The first hypothesis was confirmed except for the absence of a relationship between overload and work identity. This result was unexpected given that Witt et al. (2002) found a negative relationship between individuals' work identity and levels of perceived politics in the organisation (job demand). However, amongst Model C Secondary school teachers, overload and work identity were significantly and positively related after career commitment was controlled for, indicating that career commitment moderated the relationship between overload and work identity. This confirmed hypothesis two of the study for this specific relationship. A possible reason for this outcome hinges on the motivational value of job demands. As mentioned earlier in this report, job demands such as overload are not necessarily debilitating; Fourie et al. (2008) found evidence for this amongst employees who prospered under conditions of heightened job demands. Hence, Model C teachers may thrive under conditions of heightened overload, which may even promote their work identity.

Job resources as correlates of work identity

For both Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers, all the job resources (i.e. growth opportunities, organisational support and advancement) were positively and significantly related to work identity, indicating that high levels of perceived growth opportunities,

organisational support and advancement were likely to be found alongside high levels of work identity. This result is in agreement with Sveningsson and Alvesson's (2003 as cited in Saayman & Crafford, 2011) suggestion that employees who are given decision-making power (i.e. growth opportunities) tend to develop work identity. Furthermore, the association between organisational support and work identity supports Kirpal's (2004) notion that work identities are collective in nature. This finding suggests that Soweto Secondary School teachers would tend to identify with their work environment (school setting), their work duties and the Gauteng Department of Education and its objectives, owing to the presence of job resources. Consistent with Collin et al.'s (2008) findings, Soweto Secondary school teachers seemed to have developed work identity owing to a work environment rich in social support, amongst other resources. In keeping with Eryigit and Kerpelman's (2011) ideas, this study found that growth opportunities, organisational support and prospects for advancement were ideal conditions for the work identity of the teachers to flourish. However, for the Soweto Secondary school teachers, the strength of the relationship between growth opportunities, organisational support and work identity weakened when career commitment was controlled for (partial correlations). Furthermore, the advancement-work identity relationship became non-significant and reduced in strength, indicating that career commitment moderated the relationship between advancement and work identity. This further confirmed hypothesis two. The finding would suggest that advancement may be contingent on career commitment; teachers who are committed to their careers tend to perceive advancement in their careers. This finding was unexpected given Eryigit and Kerpelman's (2011) categorisation of advancement prospects as ideal conditions for work identity development. However, these authors' views rang true for Model C Secondary school teachers for whom the relationship between advancement and work identity remained positive albeit decreasing in strength when career commitment was controlled for.

Job insecurity as a correlate of work identity and career commitment

For Model C Secondary school teachers, initially no significant relationship was found between job insecurity and work identity. However, after controlling for the effect of career commitment, the two variables were significantly and negatively related, indicating that career commitment moderated the relationship between job insecurity and work identity (confirmation of hypothesis two). Career commitment seemed to mask the negative relationship between job insecurity and work identity. This outcome may be attributed to the

idea that teachers who are committed to their careers may not perceive job insecurity as a threat to their long-term working life; they may feel that opportunities for employment will always be available. Amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers, job insecurity was also negatively related to work identity (indicating that high levels of job insecurity would be accompanied by low levels of work identity and the strength of this relationship decreased when Career Commitment was controlled for. This finding echoed the sentiments of Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003 as cited in Saayman & Crafford, 2011) that job frustration can lead to a weakened work identity despite workers' ability to perform the job tasks and work roles. It is conceivable that job insecurity could produce a measure of anxiety and frustration in employees. It could be argued that Soweto Secondary school teachers who experienced job insecurity may struggle to develop a strong work identity. This argument is consistent with the view of Kirpal (2004), which suggests that stable employment conditions promote employees' work identity as they allow workers to develop an attachment to the organisation, commitment to work and planning regarding their career development. Career commitment may have been a confounding variable, which overestimated the degree of the relationship between all the job resources, the job demand (job insecurity) and work identity.

Work identity and job resources as correlates of career commitment

For both Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers, career commitment was significantly and positively related to work identity. This means that high levels of career commitment coexist with high levels of work identity. Goulet and Singh (2002) found that job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment were positively correlated with career commitment. However, in the present study career commitment was positively and significantly related to all measures of job resources, indicating that career commitment amongst both Soweto and Model C Secondary School teachers is found in work environments that have growth opportunities and in which there is organisational support and prospects of advancement. In accordance with views of Bakker et al. (2008) and Schaufeli et al. (2009), these teachers have at their disposal numerous job resources that aid in the alleviation of their work-related stress and are used to support their work tasks and duties (intrinsic motivational role) whilst also serving to motivate them (extrinsic motivational role), thereby making their experience at work pleasant. It was no surprise that the aforementioned job resources were associated with work identity, given the authors' opinion that the presence

of multiple job resources in the school environment would help teachers commit their energy and dedication to their work tasks (work identity).

The ‘Conservation of Resources’ (COR) theory supported

Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) found associations between several job resources (viz., growth opportunities, organisational support, social support and advancement) and employee engagement. However, the present study found relationships between career commitment and growth opportunities, organisational support and advancement. These findings provided supportive evidence for Hobfoll’s (1988) ‘Conservation of Resources’ (COR) theory, which highlights the importance of job resources. Accordingly, Soweto Secondary school teachers had above average levels of job resources with the exception of advancement, which was relatively low; their levels of job insecurity were moderate whilst their levels of overload were fairly high. On the other hand, Model C Secondary school teachers had fairly high levels of growth opportunities, organisational support and job insecurity. Their levels of overload were high, although their prospects of advancement were perceived as relatively low. It is not surprising that teachers would perceive low advancement prospects because opportunities for promotion of teachers within the profession are limited; for instance, only a few would reach the level of a school principal during their work life. Despite these results, the teachers’ levels of career commitment were moderate and their work identity was above average. Hence, in accordance with the COR theory, the sufficient job resources may have helped to prevent teachers’ demotivation and dissociation from their work.

The classical work identity

Both Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers’ above average work identity could indicate that these teachers generally devote more time to their work than teachers with weak work identities (Greenhaus et al., 2012). Although the levels of work identity among the two groups are not very high, in Kirpal’s (2004) view, the results suggest that both groups of teachers lean towards a *classical work identity*. Workers with this type of work identity identify strongly with their occupation, organisation and routine work activities. The author opines that such employees tend to resist change and lack the personal resources required for adaptation to new demands; they may have a reduced inclination towards learning, developing themselves professionally or even changing their work context. For the purpose

of this study, it is considered that teaching is a bureaucratic profession with strict rules and regulations. This may inhibit teachers' creativity or it could cause them to find comfort in routine; hence it could be expected that teachers might display this pattern of behaviour, which contrast with the conduct of a "strategic careerist" who embraces change and has a flexible work identity.

Career commitment and motivation

In accordance with Blau's (1988) assertion that career commitment reflects an individual's strength of motivation to work, the finding of moderate levels of career commitment among Soweto Secondary school teachers would indicate moderate career motivation of the teachers. According to Fresko et al. (1997) such teachers are likely to exit the teaching profession in favour of more lucrative occupations. This is a far cry from highly committed individuals who would leave their position as teachers only if such a decision would enhance their careers in the profession. In accordance with Evan's (1998, p.103, cited in Day, Elliot & Kington, 2005) view, the career commitment of Soweto Secondary school teachers may indicate that for them teaching may just be a job but "not their centre of gravity". However, Bedian et al. (1991) suggested that subjects with low career commitment would be prompted to stay in an organisation that offered them career growth opportunities. Soweto Secondary school teachers had moderate levels of career commitment and above average levels of growth opportunities and would thus be prompted to remain in the teaching profession. On the other hand, Model C Secondary school teachers had above average levels of career commitment, which were higher than those of the Soweto Secondary school teachers. This indicated that Model C teachers had a stronger motivation to perform the career role of a teacher. It is likely that these teachers would choose to exit their job only if such an action would improve their career prospects within the teaching profession e.g. becoming an education director or school inspector. It seemed that a career in teaching holds greater value for Model C Secondary school teachers than it does for Soweto Secondary school teachers.

Job demands as correlates of career commitment

Amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers overload was negatively associated with career commitment, indicating that high levels of this job demand would be linked to low levels of career commitment. The same relationship was found, albeit non-significant, amongst Model

C Secondary school teachers. This finding lent support to the JD-R model's postulation that job demands induce strain and tend to impact negatively on employees health – strain process – (Schaufeli et al., 2009). In the present study overload could be viewed as a potential job stressor that had far-reaching negative implications for Soweto Secondary schools teachers' long-term career prospects (e.g. career change, burnout, deviant organisational behaviour such as strikes and late-coming to work). Findings also suggested that Model C Secondary school teachers had higher levels of overload and job insecurity than their Soweto counterparts. It is interesting that the former still maintained higher levels of career commitment than the latter, even in the face of their higher levels of perceived job demands (i.e. overload and job insecurity). A possible explanation for this outcome can be drawn from the work of Fourie et al. (2008) who indicated that employees could still experience job satisfaction despite enduring the burden of work overload and working overtime. This is due to the fact that some workers prosper under stressful work conditions. In the same vein it is argued that the heightened levels of job demands perceived by the Model C teachers did not seem to impact negatively on their levels of career commitment. For them overload may be a source of motivation to work harder and possibly promote their identification with their work. The fact that Model C teachers also perceived fairly high levels of growth opportunities and organisational support may have contributed to the strength of their career commitment.

The job/career distinction

In keeping with Goulet and Singh's (2002) findings, the present study revealed a negative and non-significant relationship between career commitment and job insecurity amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers. This non-significant relationship could suggest that for these teachers a job is not equivalent to a career. From time to time teachers are laid off. However, such teachers would be reabsorbed into the system once vacancies become available. The temporary unemployment of teachers would not necessarily decrease their career commitment. Thus, even with the moderate levels of job insecurity found amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers, their career commitment remained intact; hence the negative and non-significant relationship between the two variables. This brings us to the observation that a job does not equate to a career. One could still remain committed as a teacher even in the temporary absence of a job. On the other hand, for Model C Secondary school teachers a positive relationship between career commitment and job insecurity was found; meaning that as career commitment increases, job insecurity increases as well. This is

an unexpected result. This relationship may be attributable to a paucity of jobs in Model C schools, which provide a more desirable work environment than Soweto schools. It is conceivable that vacancies in model C schools would be difficult to come by and thus teachers in such schools would perceive job insecurity.

4.2. Practical implications of the study

This study indicated three moderating effects, which have practical implications for teachers in the workplace.

The finding that career commitment moderated the relationship between advancement and work identity among **Soweto Secondary school teachers** might mean that teachers who are less committed to their careers may not perceive prospects of advancement in their jobs. Alternatively, they may ignore or place little value on advancement because they may not intend to remain in the teaching profession. Hence they may not perceive any significant prospect of advancement. Information regarding the relationship between advancement and work identity would be required in making decisions about promotion of teachers. The practical implications are clear: when appraising teachers, it would be appropriate to acknowledge and incentivise those who show career commitment by availing them of advancement opportunities.

The finding that career commitment moderated the relationship between overload and work identity amongst **Model C Secondary school teachers**, could be attributed to the motivational value of overload. In practical terms this suggests that even when faced with heightened job demands, teachers would still identify with their work environment, work duties and their organisation (work identity). The presence of overload and the absence of career commitment among teachers did not preclude the existence of work identity. For Model C Secondary school teachers overload coexisted with above average levels of work identity. In practice, therefore, teachers can still be expected to perform at least adequately despite their demanding work role.

The finding that career commitment moderated the relationship between job insecurity and work identity amongst **Model C Secondary school teachers** i.e. high levels of job insecurity were accompanied by low levels of work identity. This has practical significance: the work identity of teachers who have high levels of career commitment may not necessarily be threatened by their job insecurity. Those with lower levels of career commitment might struggle to identify with their work environment, duties and employing

organisation when faced with job insecurity. Teachers who have high levels of career commitment will be more resilient when faced with job insecurity than those who are less committed to their careers. This highlights issues of employee wellness and the possible need to bolster the confidence and security of teachers who enjoy teaching and may want to keep their jobs without necessarily committing to teaching as a career.

It was considered that career commitment could enhance teachers' work identity, despite insufficient job resources or excessive job demands, and provided that teachers view their job as a vocation and not merely a means of earning a living. This idea was confirmed by the study; work identity correlated positively and significantly with career commitment for both groups of teachers. However, Model C teachers were more committed than their Soweto Secondary school counterparts. The intervention strategy would be to find innovative ways of encouraging the Soweto Secondary school teachers to improve and maintain their career commitment. It is considered that career commitment develops over time. This study was cross-sectional in nature, therefore only a single measure of teachers' career commitment was taken at a point in time. The explanation for the aforementioned result can only be tentative; there may be other explanations that could account for the outcomes. The construct of career commitment has implications for the management of human resources in the teaching profession. A high value should be placed on teachers who show evidence of career commitment. Career development for such teachers could be one way of recognising them as the employees of choice for the education department. Such individuals are likely to place a premium on the teaching profession and could bring with them passion and stability to the classroom, which in turn could promote learning effectiveness. Organisational effectiveness, in terms of teachers' performance and learners' achievement, would be the outcome. Furthermore, future studies should focus on the relationship between teacher commitment and student academic performance.

The finding that Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers did not differ significantly in terms of their levels of job resources was expected given that both groups of teachers are affiliated to the same employer, the Gauteng Department of Education, which avails the same growth opportunities, organisational support and prospects for advancement to its employees. This means that the discrepancies in the effectiveness of Soweto and Model C Secondary schools cannot be attributed to discrepancies in job resources, as one might think.

The fact that Soweto Secondary school teachers' work identity did not differ significantly from that of their Model C counterparts was surprising. This finding begs the

question: how can occurrences such as lack of commitment to work, low motivation, poor time-keeping, absenteeism, strikes and go-slows, reduced work hours and poor pass rates among learners be explained if poor work identity is not the reason? It may be that Soweto Secondary School teachers have come to accept teaching and learning ineffectiveness. This analysis stems from Saayman and Crafford's (2011) suggestion that employees' work identity becomes bolstered when their expectations of their job are met. As such, Soweto Secondary school teachers have become accustomed to the crisis in their profession and their response to this dire educational situation in which they find themselves may indicate a maladaptive coping mechanism that manifests in the form of low motivation, poor time-keeping, absenteeism, strikes and go-slows, amongst others.

4.3. Limitations of the study

The shortcomings of this study are briefly discussed below:

Whilst the size of the sample of the study was statistically appropriate, a larger *sample size* would have been better. A large sample would enable the researcher to detect associations between variables that are likely to be found in the population of teachers, but which may not be discerned in a relatively small sample size such as in this study. However, the time within which the study was conducted was limited, precluding a large-scale survey. This study confined itself to Soweto and Model C Secondary school teachers in Johannesburg. Therefore the findings can only be generalised to these sub-populations and not the general population of teachers in the country.

Although the study has been able to identify meaningful relationships between the variables, it did not establish any causal relationships between the variables. Suggestions could only be made regarding the findings. However, no conclusive statements could be made in terms of the causal effect that possibly existed between the variables investigated. Correlational research may not be sufficient for explanatory purposes. The study could have been taken a step further by employing a *multiple regression analysis*, which would have helped the researcher to attribute findings to specific factors.

The researcher had no control over the possible phenomenon of 'social desirability' and 'response set'. It cannot be determined as to what extent teachers might have uncharacteristically responded in a positive light to some items (social desirability response) or if they might have responded in extreme ways (response set). These *extraneous variables* could have had a negative impact on the findings of the study.

4.4. Directions for future research

In order to ensure the generalizability of the research findings to the wider South African population, future studies on the constructs of career commitment, work identity and job demands and job resources should be based on a South African sample that includes participants from all nine provinces. To further define the constructs used in this study and develop scientific knowledge regarding the nature (structure, function, type and endurance) of these constructs, it is recommended that longitudinal studies on these constructs be executed. In particular, longitudinal studies that would assess whether the moderation effects identified in this study would still prevail in the long-term would be invaluable. A follow-up study could investigate the causal relationships between the variables of the study using multiple regression analysis. Furthermore, interviews with teachers could help in probing for pertinent explanations of the relationships between the variables. In all such instances, work experience should be controlled for to minimise its possible influence on these variables.

The Gauteng Department of Education would do well to recognize teachers who show evidence of career commitment. It is recommended that the organization should have employee wellness centres that would help teachers to develop, strengthen and maintain their career commitment. In this regard the organization could explore the idea of drafting specific career development trajectories and advancement opportunities for teachers. This would be a tangible way of acknowledging and incentivising them as valued employees.

Future research should examine other related variables in conjunction with the ones used in this study as this might help to account for the education crisis that South Africa currently faces. Special attention should be paid to the psychological wellness of teachers employed in public schools. In this regard, research should explore whether the undesirable behaviour of Public Secondary School teachers, which is often reported in the media, is an indication of collective maladaptive coping mechanisms used by teachers to deal with the occupational stress they endure. The questionnaires employed in the study should be reviewed before use as some of the items depend on memory recall which can be problematic and could influence the validity of the study. Accordingly, researchers should control for weak items.

4.5. Conclusion

This study found that career commitment did in fact moderate the relationship between advancement and work identity amongst Soweto Secondary school teachers. Furthermore, the relationship between overload and work identity and of job insecurity and work identity amongst Model C Secondary school teachers was established. Both groups of teachers tended to lean towards a classical work identity (identifying strongly with their occupation, organisation and their routine work activities) despite facing significant levels of job demands (overload and job insecurity). This finding refutes media allegations that teachers in Soweto schools frequently conduct themselves in an inappropriate way due to a psychologically- and emotionally-overwhelming work environment. Work identity and career commitment were found to be positively related for both groups of teachers; furthermore, correlations were also found between job characteristics and work identity. This study further considered that teachers who have high levels of career commitment would be more resilient when faced with job insecurity than those who are less committed to their careers.

The outcomes of this study lead to the consideration that the Gauteng Department of Education should acknowledge and incentivise teachers who show career commitment. In this regard, career development and advancement opportunities should be availed to committed teachers as a tangible way of recognising their value to the organisation.

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Appendix A

Participant information letter



Psychology

School of Human & Community Development

Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

MA Research Project 2012

June 2012

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Lehlohonolo Tabane and I am pursuing a research project in schools as part of the requirements of fulfillment of a Master's Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. The Department of Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand is currently supervising work-related research projects in the field of Industrial Psychology. You are requested to participate in this study which is based on work identity and career commitment of teachers.

Your responses/information will be kept anonymous and confidential, and will be used strictly for research purposes. The information will help the researcher understand the teacher's work situation and contribute to the current body of knowledge about the teachers' world of work.

Please be aware that there are no risks or benefits associated with participation; and that you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. All participants' personal identities will be kept anonymous, i.e. pseudo names will be used, and all information gathered from the study will be used strictly for research purposes. All data will be kept confidential and safe from unauthorised access once it has been collected. The researcher and the institution (Wits) will protect the data; the institution will ensure the preservation of the data. In this regard, the data will be kept in a safe place (in a cupboard or on a computer) with access only open to the holder of the password and nobody except me (the researcher) and my research supervisor will have access to the data. The researcher will make a copy of a summary of the results of the study available to the Department of Education, should participants wish to view it.

Participation in this research will involve completing the following measures: the Career Commitment Scale; the Job Demands-Resources Scale; and the Work-based Identity Scale.

You are welcome to contact me or my supervisor should you need further information. Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated.

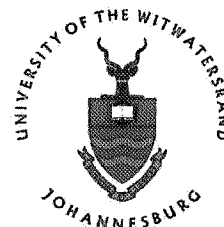
Sincerely,

Lehlohonolo M Tabane
Student Psychologist
Tel: 011 462 6609
Cell: 0799777696

Prof. Andrew Thatcher
Supervisor/Lecturer
Tel: 011 717 4500/2/3/4

Appendix B

Participation consent form



Psychology
School of Human & Community Development

Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

MA Research Project 2012

June 2012

Consent Form

I, Mr/Ms/Mrs.....hereby agree to participate in the research project on career commitment and work identity of teachers. I understand that my information will be kept anonymous and used strictly for research purposes.

Please be aware that there are no risks or benefits associated with participation; and that you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. All participants' personal identities will be kept anonymous, i.e. pseudo names will be used, and all information gathered from the study will be used strictly for research purposes. All data will be kept confidential and safe from unauthorised access once it has been collected. The researcher and the institution (Wits) will protect the data; the institution will ensure the preservation of the data. In this regard, the data will be kept in a safe place (in a cupboard or on a computer) with access only open to the holder of the password and nobody except me (the researcher) and my research supervisor will have access to the data. The researcher will make a copy of a summary of the results of the study available to the Department of Education, should participants wish to view it.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix C

Biographical Questionnaire

Please answer **all** the questions: Details regarding the following will be used strictly for research purposes and will be kept confidential.

Please indicate your answer to the following questions by marking a cross (X) in the box where relevant:

Age: _____

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Language:

English ☐ Afrikaans ☐ IsiNdebele ☐ IsiXhosa ☐ IsiZulu ☐
 Sepedi ☐ Sesotho ☐ Setswana ☐ SiSwati ☐ Tshivenda ☐
 Xitsoga ☐

Level of education and training:

Grade 12 ☐

Grade 12 plus 1-year Diploma ☐

Grade 12 plus 3-year Diploma ☐

Bachelor's Degree plus Diploma ☐

Bachelor of Honours ☐

Master's Degree ☐

Doctoral Degree ☐

REQV: _____

Years of teaching experience:

0– 5 ☐ 5 – 10 ☐ 11 – 20 ☐ 21 – 30 ☐ 31 – 40 ☐
 41+ ☐

Appendix D

Career Commitment Scale

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY MARKING AN X WHERE APPLICABLE

1. I would take a different job that paid the same.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

2. I want a career in this vocation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

3. If I could do it all over, I would not choose this vocation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

4. If I had all the money I needed, I would still want to be in this vocation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

5. I enjoy my vocation too much to give it up.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

6. This is my ideal vocation for my life work.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

7. I've been disappointed ever since I entered this vocation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
-----------------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	--------------------------

Appendix E

JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain an accurate picture of how you personally evaluate specific aspects of your work and work environment. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you feel this way. Please do not skip any questions.

SCALE:

1 = Never	2 = Sometimes	3 = Often	4 = Always
--------------	------------------	--------------	---------------

	STATEMENTS	SCALE			
1	Do you have too much work to do?	1	2	3	4
2	Do you work under time pressure?	1	2	3	4
3	Do you find that you do not have enough work?	1	2	3	4
4	Do you have to be attentive to many things at the same time?	1	2	3	4
5	Do you have to give continuous attention to your work?	1	2	3	4
6	Do you have to remember many things in your work?	1	2	3	4
7	Are you confronted in your work with things that affect you personally?	1	2	3	4
8	Do you have contact with difficult children in your work?	1	2	3	4
9	Does your work put you in emotionally upsetting situations?	1	2	3	4
10	In your work, do you repeatedly have to do the same things?	1	2	3	4
11	Does your work make sufficient demands on all your skills and capacities?	1	2	3	4
12	Do you have enough variety in your work?	1	2	3	4
13	Does your job offer you opportunities for personal growth and development?	1	2	3	4

SCALE:

1 = Never	2 = Sometimes	3 = Often	4 = Always
----------------------	--------------------------	----------------------	-----------------------

	STATEMENTS	SCALE			
14	Does your work give you the feeling that you can achieve something?	1	2	3	4
15	Does your job offer you the possibility of independent thought and action?	1	2	3	4
16	Do you have freedom in carrying out your work activities?	1	2	3	4
17	Do you have influence in the planning of your work activities?	1	2	3	4
18	Can you participate in the decision about when a piece of work must be completed?	1	2	3	4
19	Can you count on your colleagues when you come across difficulties in your work?	1	2	3	4
20	If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?	1	2	3	4
21	Do you get on well with your colleagues?	1	2	3	4
22	Can you count on your supervisor when you come across difficulties in your work?	1	2	3	4
23	Do you get on well with your supervisor?	1	2	3	4
24	In your work, do you feel appreciated by your supervisor?	1	2	3	4
25	Do you know exactly what other people expect of you in your work?	1	2	3	4
26	Do you know exactly for what you are responsible and which areas are not your responsibility?	1	2	3	4
27	Do you know exactly what your direct supervisor thinks of your performance?	1	2	3	4
28	Do you receive sufficient information on the purpose of your work?	1	2	3	4
29	Do you receive sufficient information on the results of your work?	1	2	3	4
30	Does your direct supervisor inform you about how well you are doing your work?	1	2	3	4
31	Are you kept adequately up-to-date about important issues within the education department?	1	2	3	4

SCALE:

1 = Never	2 = Sometimes	3 = Often	4 = Always
----------------------	--------------------------	----------------------	-----------------------

	STATEMENTS	SCALE			
32	Is the education department's decision-making process clear to you?	1	2	3	4
33	Is it clear to you whom you should address within the education department for specific problems?	1	2	3	4
34	Can you discuss work problems with your direct supervisor?	1	2	3	4
35	Can you participate in decisions about the nature of your work?	1	2	3	4
36	Do you have a direct influence on your school's decisions?	1	2	3	4
37	Do you have contact with colleagues as part of your work?	1	2	3	4
38	Can you have a chat with colleagues during working hours?	1	2	3	4
39	Do you find that you have enough contact with colleagues during working hours?	1	2	3	4
40	Do you need to be more secure that you will still be working in one year's time?	1	2	3	4
41	Do you need to be more secure that you will keep your current job in the next year?	1	2	3	4
42	Do you need to be more secure that next year you will keep the same function level as currently?	1	2	3	4
43	Do you think that the education department pays good salaries?	1	2	3	4
44	Can you live comfortably on your pay?	1	2	3	4
45	Do you think you are paid enough for the work that you do?	1	2	3	4
46	Does your job offer you the possibility to progress financially?	1	2	3	4
47	Does your organisation give you opportunities to follow training courses?	1	2	3	4
48	Does your job give you the opportunity to be promoted?	1	2	3	4

Appendix F

ANNEXURE B.2: Work-Based Identity Scale (WI-28)

Please use the scale to indicate the degree to which your answers accurately describe your own situation and feelings by clicking on the radio buttons.

DQ1	How much meaning does work add to your life?	Little meaning	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Much meaning
DQ2	To what extent do you regard work as the most important aspect in your life?	To no extent	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	to a very large extent
DQ3	How much does your work determine your value as a person?	Not at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	All of it
DQ4	How valued are people, based on their contribution to work?	Not valued at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Highly valued
DQ5	How much is your own identity based on your job?	Nothing at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very much
DQ7	To what extent is your occupation the most important activity in your life?	To no extent	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large extent
DQ8	To what degree do you base the best description of 'who you are' on your career?	To no degree	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large degree
DQ9	To what extent would your life be valueless without your job?	To no extent	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large extent
DQ10	How central does the organisation that you work for stand in your life?	Not central at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very central
DQ11	To what degree do you see yourself as part of the organisation that you work for?	To no degree	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large degree
DQ12	How much is the best description of "who you are" related to your involvement in the organisation that you work for?	Not related at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Highly related
DQ13	It is assumed that the standards of your job are high. How easily can you identify with these high standards of your job?	Not at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very easily
DQ14	How much does your job prevent you from being yourself or becoming who you want to be?	Very much	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Not at all

DQ15	To what extent does your job allow for the achievement of personal goals?	To no extent	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To high extent
DQ16	How rewarding is work in itself as an activity?	Not rewarding at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Highly rewarding
DQ17	How much do you see your job as your whole life?	Very little	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very much
DQ18	How much of your identity is based on your occupation?	Very little	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very much
DQ19	How directly related are all your achievements to your job?	Not related at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Fully related
DQ20	How much do you give to your job?	I do not give anything	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	I give everything
EQ1	How likely are you to regard your work as only a small part of who you are?	Very likely	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very unlikely
EQ7	To what degree do your values match or fit the values of the organisation that you work for?	To no degree	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large degree
EQ8	To what degree are you able to maintain your values at the organisation that you work for?	To no degree	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	To a very large degree
GQ15	Does it feel like a personal accomplishment when someone praises the organisation that you work for?	Never	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Always
GQ16	How often do you say 'we' rather than 'they' when you talk about the organisation that you work for?	Never	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Always
GQ17	How interested are you in what others think about the organisation that you work for?	Not interested	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very interested
GQ18	How much do you consider the organisation's successes as your own?	No consideration	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very high considerations
GQ19	How personally insulted do you feel when someone criticizes the organisation that you work for?	Not insulted at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very insulted
GQ20	How embarrassed do you feel when the media criticizes the organisation that you work for?	Not at all	1-2-3-4-5-6-7	Very embarrassed

Appendix G

Ethics Clearance Certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (SCHOOL OF HUMAN & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT)

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

PROTOCOL NUMBER: MORG/12/013 IH

PROJECT TITLE:

Career commitment, work identity, job demands and job resources among secondary school teachers in Soweto.

INVESTIGATORS

Tabane Lehlohonolo

DEPARTMENT

Psychology

DATE CONSIDERED

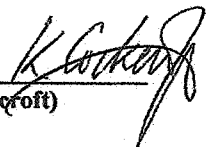
10/07/12

DECISION OF COMMITTEE*

Approved

This ethical clearance is valid for 2 years and may be renewed upon application

DATE: 06 September 2012

CHAIRPERSON 
(Professor K. Cockcroft)

cc Supervisor:

Dr C. Gwandure
Psychology

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR (S)

To be completed in duplicate and one copy returned to the Secretary, Room 100015, 10th floor, Senate House, University.

I/we fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure, as approved, I/we undertake to submit a revised protocol to the Committee.

This ethical clearance will expire on 31 December 2014

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix H

Gauteng Department of Education Research Approval Letter



GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	12 September 2012
Validity of Research Approval:	12 September 2012 to 30 September 2012
Name of Researcher:	Tabane L.M.
Address of Researcher:	P.O. Box 2106
	Fourways
	2055
Telephone Number:	011 462 6609 / 079 977 7696
Fax Number:	011 462 5345
Email address:	lehlohonolotabane@hotmail.com
Research Topic:	Career commitment, work identity, job demands and job resources among secondary school teachers in Soweto
Number and type of schools:	FORTY-SEVEN Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Johannesburg East; Johannesburg North and Johannesburg West

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

Makhado

2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

David Makhado

Dr David Makhado

Director: Knowledge Management and Research

DATE: 2012/09/12

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za