JOB SATISFACTION: CORRESPONDENCE OF OCCUPATIONAL REINFORCERS TO THE INDIVIDUAL NEEDS OF URBAN SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE FREE STATE

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<u>DEDICATION</u>

I dedicate this work to my family, who have given me unwavering support throughout this course.

<u>DECLARATION</u>

I, Amos Maitse Mosikidi hereby declare that this thesis submitted for the PhD Degree at the University of the Free State is the result of my independent investigation. Where assistance has been sought, it was acknowledged. I further declare that this work has never been submitted for a degree at any other faculty or university.

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A.M. MOSIKIDI

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1.   BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Pii (2003:7) explains that humans and their needs constantly change, as do external factors in the environment. These ever changing factors which may be educational, economical, social or political, have the potential to impact positively or adversely on the level of job satisfaction of employees in a given work situation. Principals, as leaders and managers of schools, are tasked with creating a collegial school climate which provides educators opportunities to participate in leadership roles and which enhances the educator's sense of job satisfaction, morale and the level of motivation to perform optimally (Singh & Manser, 2008: 112). However, research conducted by George, Louw and Badenhorst (2008:140) has indicated that educators experience significant levels of dissatisfaction in relation to aspects pertinent to their work environment. They report that job dissatisfaction in educators results in undesirable conduct on the part of educators such as, frequent absenteeism, aggression towards colleagues and learners, burnout, psychological withdrawal from work and quitting the teaching profession. Therefore, it seems logical to conclude that such behaviours by educators also affect the level of job satisfaction of the principal.

Job satisfaction is regarded as the most important and frequently studied social construct in the field of organisational behaviour. The interest in the construct is brought about by the fact that understanding job satisfaction significantly contributes towards gaining insight in what makes people happy or unhappy with their jobs (Luthans, 1998:144; Evans, 1998:3). According to Johns (1996:139), job satisfaction is a complex, multidimensional work related attitude that is a product of associated beliefs and values. While Weinberg and Cooper (2007: 16) consider job satisfaction to be an umbrella term that describes workers' feelings towards many aspects of their work. Johns (1996:139) and Gibson, Ivancevich and Donelly (1994:121) consider job satisfaction in general as referring to an attitude that employees have about their work and which is associated with particular behaviour patterns. This attitude derives from the way individuals perceive their jobs, based on factors of the work situation such as: working conditions, policies and procedures, the supervisor's style, relationship with

colleagues and fringe benefits. However, Luthans (1998:144), Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:163) and Saari and Judge (2004:396) are in agreement that the most comprehensive definition of job satisfaction is the one given by Locke (1976), which interprets job satisfaction as a pleasant, positive emotional state resulting from the assessment of one's job or job experience.

Job satisfaction can also be viewed as an expression of the congruence between an employee's expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides (Kristof, 1996:6). For Schaffer (as cited in Mosikidi, 2003: 10), job satisfaction refers to the fulfilment of an individual's needs. He thus describes job satisfaction as the degree to which the needs of individuals are actually satisfied by factors in their job situation. However, Van Dyk (1996:320) contends that human motivation results from the needs which the involved individual wishes to satisfy. From the above, it seems there are many definitions of the concept of job satisfaction. This implies that there are also different ways in which job satisfaction can be explained.

The concept of job satisfaction can be explained in terms of the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA), a trait-factor theory founded in a class of theories called person-environment theories. Briefly, the theory posits that job satisfaction is a function of the fit between the employee's vocational needs or values and reinforcer systems of the work environment (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989:32; Dawis, 2002:5). This implies that employees will derive satisfaction from work if their needs are fulfilled by the environment (Kristof, 1996:6). Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:211) report that research consistently supports the prediction that the fulfilment of important employees' needs and values increases job satisfaction. The TWA proposes that job satisfaction represents employees' subjective assessment of the extent to which their needs or requirements are met by the work environment. Furthermore, it is believed that employees and their work environments impose requirements on one another. This means that a successful work relationship results only when job reinforcers satisfy the needs of the individual employee, and the employee's abilities in turn render him/her satisfactory (competent) to perform job requirements (Lubinski & Benbow, 2000:140; Dawis, 2002:6). The degree to which employees' skills and competences correspond with the work environment reinforcers, determines employees' tenure in the job, that is, the length of employees' stay in their jobs (Dawis, 2002:6).

Content and process theories of work motivation can help managers and researchers to gain a deeper understanding of job satisfaction and motivation. In this regard Maslow's hierarchy of

needs theory and Herzberg's dual structure or two-factor theory may be used to understand employees' needs and factors contributing to the satisfaction of these needs (Bush & Middlewood, 2005:76).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs contributes towards a deeper understanding of employee needs. Importantly, the theory has shown that employee needs are not only gratified by higher pay and its attendant benefits. Fulfilment of higher-level psychological needs such as esteem needs can be very satisfying (Moorhead & Griffin, 2004:122; Jones, 2005:45). Van Dyk (1998:263) and Bowditch and Buono (1997:106) support this view in contending that people engage in work activities not only to earn salaries, but because they perceive work as contributing significantly towards the development of self-respect and a sense of identity. Furthermore, the results of the research conducted by Judge and Bono (2001:86) indicate that self-esteem is one of significant predictors of both job satisfaction and job performance.

Another motivational theory that helps to explain job satisfaction is Herzberg's two-factor theory. This theory posits that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are affected by two different sets of factors. Consequently, satisfaction and dissatisfaction cannot be measured on the same continuum. Factors that influence job satisfaction are called motivators and include achievement, recognition, responsibility and opportunity for personal growth. In contrast, factors that influence job dissatisfaction are called hygiene or maintenance factors and are distinct and separate from motivators. They include pay, working conditions, company supervision policies and interpersonal relationships (Daft & Marcie, 1998:456; Robbins, 2001:159; Moorhead & Griffin, 2004:126-127). According to Bittel and Newstrom (1992:251), the two factor theory seems to suggest that a general salary increase may prevent employees from quitting their jobs, but it will rarely motivate employees to work harder. This implies that employees such as school principals are likely to perform optimally if their worthiness is recognised and appreciated. However, Adair (2006: 86) cautions that pay is not merely a maintenance factor because money can straddle the divide as it is oftentimes a concrete measure of achievement and symbol of recognition.

A considerable body of literature in support of the validity of Herzberg two factor theory of job satisfaction is in existence. For example, Sergiovanni's study (1967:66-82) found that three motivators, namely, achievement, recognition and responsibility, contribute significantly towards job satisfaction of educators in the United States of America. The results of his research also indicated that interpersonal relations with learners, teachers and

peers, technical supervision, school policy and administration and personal life contributed significantly toward educator job dissatisfaction (Sergiovanni & Elliot, 1975:145). In South Africa a study by Klein (1986) confirmed the findings of Sergiovanni and Elliot for educators in South Africa. Later studies in South Africa and Lesotho have yielded similar results (cf. Nkonka, 1999; Tuffour, 2000; Pii, 2003; Rantekoa, 2004).

Job satisfaction can also be explained in terms of Locke's (1976) value discrepancy theory. According to this theory (Smither, 1997:247), values are far more important than needs in determining job satisfaction. It is assumed that values, in contrast with needs, are attained over time and that employees judge their jobs in terms of how much they value the different job aspects. Employees then make a comparison between how much they have of that aspect with how much they want. Job satisfaction will thus be influenced by the difference between what the employees have and what they want (Smither, 1997:247; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:211; Johns, 1996:140).

Another theory that can be used to explain job satisfaction is the genetic theory, which considers personality or dispositional factors to be the main determinant of job satisfaction (Smither, 1997:248). Underlying the genetic view of job satisfaction is the idea that some people seem to be more or less satisfied with their jobs regardless of their situations (Smither, 1997:249). This theory implies that individual differences, just like aspects of the work environment, are also important in explaining employee job satisfaction. Furthermore, Holland's theory of job satisfaction (Arthur *et al.*, 1989:33) holds that satisfaction is a function of the agreement between an employee's personality and that of his/her work environment.

There are several other theories that can be used to explain the construct of job satisfaction. However, for the purpose of this study, only research instruments derived from TWA will be utilized as the study sets out to determine what employees are seeking from their work and what they are receiving in turn.

Principals, being managers and leaders of schools, are responsible for the introduction of educational changes in their schools. They are also charged with the daunting task of transforming their schools into centres of excellence. According to Moorhead and Griffin (in Hall, Altman, Nkomo, Peltzer and Zuma (2005:2), stressful working conditions occasioned by factors in the workplace such as one's task, role, and interpersonal relationships may affect one's job satisfaction. Similar findings in South Africa are reported by Hall *et al.*

(2005:25) in discovering that remuneration, stress caused by transformation in education - outcomes based education (OBE) and its implementation - poor relationships with the education department, lack of respect for the teaching profession and challenging work conditions are the main causes of job dissatisfaction among educators. Furthermore, Friedman (2002:229) maintains that the principal's professional world involves overwhelming responsibilities, information uncertainties and emotional anxieties that may, if not properly checked, lead to burnout.

Media reports indicate that the former South African Minister of Education, Mrs Pandor, was not happy about the levels of performance in our education system (*City Press*, 3 June 2007). In this regard, Kgosana (2007:21) reports that the minister was disturbed by the tendency of the education system to tolerate and respect the rights of learners who were abusive, violent and disruptive. She was aware of the tendency to allow a culture of non-performance in the teaching force such as late-coming, the lack of teaching and poor academic success. She also mentioned parents who were not supportive to their children and schools, and public officials who consistently failed in providing professional support to schools (Kgosana, 2007:21). It can, therefore, be deduced that the minister was not impressed by the way some principals were managing and leading their schools. Media headlines such as the following do not help to alleviate the situation in South African schools:

- "Young schoolgirls fall prey to sex-pest teachers" (*City Press*, 5 February 2006)
- "Schools of shame: Dagga, brandy " tip of iceberg" (*Sowetan*, 13 March 2007)
- "Slain teacher knew she was going to be killed" (*City Press*, 1 April 2007)

The scenarios depicted above clearly suggest that all is not well in South African schools. They seem to suggest that some South African schools are characterized by high levels of violence, ill-discipline, disagreements, child abuse, tension, insecurity, intimidation, drug and alcohol abuse and strained relationships among the school communities. Given this background and what research has revealed about job satisfaction of educators, it seems proper and reasonable to investigate the level of job satisfaction among school principals in the Free State.

1.2   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Schulze and Steyn (2007:692,705) maintain that teaching and learning in post-apartheid South Africa is continuously undergoing changes. The introduction of the OBE approach serves as an example in this regard. However, this unstable character of the education system in the country continually presents challenges to principals and results in stress. Excessive stress resulting from job factors such as, new curriculum methods, violence, substance abuse, lack of discipline, redeployment and retrenchment of educators, unmotivated learners, lack of involvement in decision-making processes, the impact of HIV/AIDS, corruption and unprofessional behaviours are likely to result in lowered self- esteem, low job satisfaction, poor teaching and enhanced job quitting behaviour patterns (Saptoe, 2000:6; Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002:440; Louw, Shisana, Peltzer & Zungu, 2009:3,7; Jackson & Rothman, 2001:11-12).

According to Jansen (1999:52), one of the major criticisms of OBE lies in education authorities' failure to involve and adequately train and retrain education managers or principals for it to be correctly and effectively implemented. Chikoko (2007:175) supports this contention in saying that people yearn for involvement in decision-making processes on matters that affect their lives, even when they sometimes lack the competency to make such decisions. This desire for involvement also applies to principals. Furthermore, Hayward (2002:64) reports that sixty percent of the respondents in his study of the impact of OBE on educator morale maintain that the continuous change in educational methodology is a source of teacher low morale. Swanepoel (2009:461) also adds that it is rather difficult for educators who are not properly qualified and probably overworked to embrace educational transformation.

 Fullan (1992:19) argues that to expect principals to lead in the implementation of changes in which they do not participate in developing and which they possibly do not even understand could prove to be particularly problematic.   In supporting this view, Bottery (2004:13) maintains that a study by Williams (2001) reveals the following factors as some of the primary causes of principal's job dissatisfaction:

- Lack of sufficient time to plan for provincially mandated changes, and the number of curriculum changes the province demands.
- Shortage of time to work with learners, and work overload resulting in lack of time to engage in in-school staff support programmes.

Evans (1998:3) conducted research aimed at addressing the conceptual problems relating to the study of teacher job satisfaction. In noting that there is no agreed definition of the construct, she argues that a problem of construct validity arises when researchers and respondents have different interpretation and understanding of key concepts. According to Evans (1998:6-7), there is a clear difference between things which are satisfactory and those which are satisfying. On the basis of this assumption she concludes that the hygiene factors of Herzberg's two-factor motivational theory pertain to things which are satisfactory while motivators relate to the degree to which work is satisfying. Importantly, her findings revealed that the key determinant of teacher's job satisfaction was whether or not a sense of personal achievement was associated with the factors. Therefore, while good staff relations may be satisfactory to some educators, they may only be satisfying to those who felt they had contributed towards achieving them. Furthermore, she argues that Herzberg's motivation factors can be reduced to only one single factor: achievement (Evans, 1998:11). Importantly, Evans (1998:3,153) maintains that the degree of correspondence between educators' goals and their work environment is the most important factor that contributes towards their experience of a sense of achievement and job satisfaction.

Evans' (1998) findings suggest that school principals do not experience job fulfilment if they are not participating in policy and the decision making process of matters affecting their schools. Therefore, the exclusion of principals from matters pertaining to the transformation of the education system may impact on their level of job satisfaction as they would not experience any sense of personal achievement. This view is supported by Pii (2003:7) when he asserts that transformation usually results in anxiety, uncertainty and feelings of insecurity among teachers.

Anxiety, uncertainty and feeling of insecurity may, in turn, negatively affect educators' level of job satisfaction. Accordingly, the imposition of the OBE approach may seem unreasonable and unachievable to some people because it has the potential to lead to the dissatisfaction of both educators and principals, which could further create feelings of job insecurity, uncertainty and anxiety.

From the above it seems that OBE creates problems for principals who, as managers and change agents in their schools, are expected not only to motivate educators but also to create an organisational culture conducive to the implementation of the new education system.

Furthermore, it may be reasonably argued that with the high levels of violence, and other forms of crime regularly reported by the media to be prevalent in South African schools, the level of principals' job satisfaction may have to be investigated.

Given the discussion above, the following problem questions arise with regard to this study:

- What is the nature of job satisfaction and what does job satisfaction of principals entail?

- What is the current level of job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State?

- How important does the target population rate each indicator of job satisfaction?

- What is the current level of job satisfaction according to the sub-groups of the target population?

- How does each of the sub-groups of the respondents rate the importance of each indicator of job satisfaction?

- What are the factors that impact adversely on the job satisfaction of the respondents?

- What can be done to improve the current level of job satisfaction among principals of the selected schools?

1.3   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The broad aim of the study is to investigate the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State region. From this general aim the following specific objectives may be derived:

- To provide a theoretical background of the nature of job satisfaction and what job satisfaction of principals entails.

- To investigate the current level of job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State.

- To establish the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by the respondents.

- To determine the current level of job satisfaction of the sub-groups of the respondents.

- To establish the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by each of the sub-groups of the respondents.

- To identify the factors that impact negatively on the job satisfaction of the respondents.

- To provide general recommendations pertaining to the enhancement of the current level of job satisfaction among principals.

1.4   VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

It is assumed that the study will help to enlighten education officials at district and provincial levels about principals' current attitudes towards their work and the challenges they face. It is also hoped that the findings of the study will trigger off other research investigations on job satisfaction of principals that may eventually enable the country as a whole to come up with informed and innovative educational strategies that will assist principals to overcome excessive work-related stress and thus be able to function optimally in their schools.

1.5   METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

In order to realize the aims and objectives stated in 1.3 above, an exhaustive and comprehensive study of existing literature on job satisfaction was undertaken. Furthermore, in striving to investigate and assess the level of job satisfaction among Free State urban school principals, two methods of enquiry that complement each other were used, namely, the positivist and interpretive approaches (Neuman, 2000:122). The value of the positivist approach lies in that reality is objectively given and described by measurable properties. However, the interpretive approach is essential in helping us understand reality through the meanings people assign to it. Therefore, the interpretive approach seeks to uncover and unravel people's subjective understanding of their given reality (Roth & Mehta, 2002:132).

In an attempt to satisfy the positivist and interpretive approaches, a quantitative investigation with a questionnaire as the main data gathering instrument was used, followed by a qualitative investigation.

1.5.1 Literature study

This study necessitated a review of the current literature on job satisfaction among principals and educators. In particular, it covered both primary and secondary sources that attempt to sufficiently describe what job satisfaction of employees in general and job satisfaction of principals in particular entails.

1.5.2 Empirical investigation

Plano-Clark and Creswell (2010:299), Neuman (2000:122) and Thomas (2003:7) contend that good research is likely to mix both quantitative and qualitative research approaches because although these methods differ in many respects, they also complement each other in many ways. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, it was necessary to include both quantitative and qualitative data collection with a view to maximally benefit from the strengths that each approach offers in investigating the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State.

1.5.2.1 Quantitative investigation

The quantitative investigation is associated with a positivistic paradigm and questionnaires are widely used as the main data collecting instruments. In this study, a questionnaire, consisting of two sections was used:

Section A of the questionnaire provided biographical information such as age, gender, school category, qualifications, experience as principal, experience as educator and learner enrolment of the respondents.

The Work Importance Locator (WIL) in section B investigated the level of fit between the respondents' needs in their ideal jobs and the availability of reinforcers in their present jobs to fulfil these needs. The WIL is an existing questionnaire which has its basis on a previously developed measure of work values, namely, the standardised Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ), (Rounds, Henly, Dawis, Lofquist & Weiss, 1981 – cf. 2.3.3).

The questionnaires were sent to 500 (52, 5%) urban* school principals in the Free State who were randomly selected from the target population of 952.

Of the 500 (52, 5%) questionnaires distributed, 350 (70, 0%) were received back and 322 (64, 4%) could be used in the study. The use of the questionnaire was considered appropriate as the investigation was testing the values and opinions of individual principals (for more detail, see section 4.3.2.1).

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    *The term "urban" schools is used in this investigation to indicate all schools except farm schools.

1.5.2.2 Qualitative investigation

A qualitative investigation is synonymous with the interpretive paradigm in which interviews and observations are mainly used to gather information. McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 13) state that in qualitative designs, emphasis is laid on collecting data in natural settings of respondents, and data is represented in the form of words rather than numbers. In interview sessions, respondents have the opportunity to respond more elaborately and in detail, which is not the case in strictly regimented quantitative methods.

In this study, the responses provided by the respondents were used in the qualitative phase as the basis for seeking deeper understanding of the reasons behind some aspects of the work environment that were identified as sources of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, interviews were mainly used to complement, confirm and validate data gathered through questionnaires. In addition, the semi-structured interviews provided a better opportunity to gain insightful knowledge about the attitudes of the respondents towards their work (for a comprehensive detail see section 4.4).

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Job satisfaction and motivation of employees are a critical part of education management. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:213) point out that even though job satisfaction differs from motivation, the level of job satisfaction may affect an employee's motivation. Similarly, Hoy and Miskel in (Brazelle, 2000:1) consider job satisfaction to be a prerequisite in motivating employees to actively participate in the attainment of organisational goals. Accordingly, it can reasonably be concluded that the scientific study of this research can be found in a sub-discipline of education called Education Management because the research sets out to investigate the level of job satisfaction among school principals, who are, by virtue of their appointment, expected to be effective in managing and leading their schools.

1.7 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

In this study:

Job satisfaction means a positive or pleasant emotional state that principals and educators experience when their work is in harmony with their needs and values.

Motivation refers to the ability of educational leaders to inspire, stimulate and encourage principals and other educators to willingly and persistently choose to engage in actions that

are beneficial to them as teachers and that are also consistent with the educational goals of the school.

Morale refers to the degree to which an individual's needs are gratified and the extent to which the individual perceives his/her satisfaction as deriving from his total job situation. It may also describe a prevailing mood or spirit either among principals or educators constituting a group.

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review on the nature of job satisfaction and motivation and what job satisfaction of principals entails according to existing literature and research.

Chapter 3 addresses the implications and effects of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction on urban school principals in the Free State.

Chapter 4 presents a description of the research strategy used to investigate the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State.

Chapter 5 focuses on the responses to the research questionnaire about the level of satisfaction of principals in the Free State urban schools. It will include the identification of sources of dissatisfaction.

Chapter 6 deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the qualitative findings acquired through interviews held with selected respondents, as well as responses to the open-ended question of the questionnaire.

Chapter 7 summarizes the research in the form of findings, conclusions and general recommendations aimed at improving the current level of job satisfaction among school principals in the Free State.

1.9 CONCLUSION

In Chapter 1, the following aspects of the research study were dealt with: General orientation, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, methods of investigation, delimitation of the study, operational definition and an overview of the succeeding chapters of the study.

Consequently, in Chapter 2, the research will focus on reviewing the literature on the nature of job satisfaction and motivation of employees.   .

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION

A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the nature and meaning of job satisfaction. It explores the views of various researchers on the nature of job satisfaction and what it entails. Attention is then directed to approaches to job satisfaction with the aim of identifying those factors which influence job satisfaction. Furthermore, the chapter also examines the implication of job satisfaction indicators for educational management.

2.2   THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Judge, Hanisch and Drankoski (1995:576-577) and Barnard and Byrne (1997:499) explain that it is the distinct features of the job and the interaction of personal factors and the environment which are considered when satisfactions are assessed. Therefore, it can be concluded that the concept of job satisfaction involves a careful assessment of the interplay between aspects of the job itself, the work situation and personal factors of the employee. Assessment of employees and their jobs is done with a view to identify those areas in the job that require improvement in order to enhance the quality of work life of employees in an organisation.

Mumford (1991:12) contends that a realistic approach to job satisfaction may be to examine the employee's needs in the work place and the degree to which these needs are being provided for by the work situation. With a similar view, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:226) explain that job satisfaction includes the matching of the person's needs, values and expectations to what the job provides. It is also important to investigate the pressures and constraints - internal and external to the organisation - which contribute to the demands it makes on the workers and undermines its potential to provide maximum job satisfaction. Mumford's approach (1991:12) considers job satisfaction in two ways:

- In terms of the fit between what an organisation requires of its employees and what employees are seeking from it.

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- In terms of the fit between what employees are seeking and what they are receiving.

Mumford (1991:13) asserts that a good fit on the above leads to what she calls "a mutually beneficial" relationship and job satisfaction, respectively. The concept of fit involves the following:

- Organisational job requirements versus personal job requirements;

- Organisational interests versus self-interest

- Uniformity versus individuality

- Performance versus personal quality

- Work specificity versus work flexibility

For Dawis (2002:4), the concept of fit refers to the extent to which employees' characteristics correspond to those of their work environment when assessed or measured across matching dimensions. Dawis (2002:4) further explains that fit implies that some employees possess the set of skills or competencies that a job requires while others do not, or some jobs need the set of skills or competencies that an employee has while other jobs do not. Therefore, in work, the employee and the work environment are pulled towards each other because each has some requirements or needs that can be met by the other. Importantly, the fulfillment of their requirements or needs end up in satisfaction for both the employee and the work organisation (Dawis, 2002:5).

Kristof (1996:4) argues that the most comprehensive definition of fit is the one which describes fit as the compatibility or congruence between people and organisations which occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other seeks, or (b) they share basic characteristics, or (c) both. Kristof (1996:5) further suggests that when the similarity between basic characteristics of people and organisations is investigated, this is mainly attained by measuring the congruence between individual and organisational values. Kristof (1996:5) further adds that value correspondence or compatibility is an important form of fit because values are basic and relatively enduring. Moreover, value congruence has received strong support as a determinant of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kristof, 1996:26). Research has also shown that low levels of value congruence between employees and their organisations often result in employees reporting their intention to quit their organisations (Kristof, 1996:28).

For the purpose of this study, attention will be directed to what the employees are seeking from their work and what they are receiving in turn. This demands adequate knowledge of what job satisfaction is and what it entails.

2.2.1 Defining job satisfaction

In explaining why studying employee job satisfaction remains as important as ever, Mullins (1996:249) suggests that recent research on the topic is in keeping with a shift from a manipulative human relation perspective of management and organisation theory to a modern consideration for individual rights and the quality of work and personal lives. This view is also held by Argyris (in Nel, 1998:230), who states that job satisfaction serves as the basis for improving the quality of work life in organisations. Consequently, it seems proper to gain an understanding of what job satisfaction means.

Quick and Nelson (2009:123), McCormick and Ilgen (1995:309) and Robbins (2000:381) define job satisfaction as an attitude that employees have towards their job. It can also be described as employees' affective or emotional responses toward various aspects of their job (Mercer, 1997:37; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:202). Mercer (1997:121) also adds that what is true of employees in general is also true of school principals. In full agreement with the above definitions of job satisfaction, Rue and Byars (1994:121) state that employees' attitudes about their work is an outcome of their perceptions of their job, based on their work environmental factors such as monetary benefit, supervision style, policies and procedures, work group affiliation and working conditions. For Mullins (1996:249) and Riches (1994:226), job satisfaction is an attitude or an internal state that could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative.

Similarly, Hoy and Miskel (2001:304) suggest that the general consensus that seems to have emerged among researchers regarding the definition of job satisfaction is that job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response to a job that results from the workers comparing actual outcomes to anticipated or deserved outcomes. Spector (2000:197) regards job satisfaction as pertaining to the feelings - good or bad - that individuals have about their work and their work environment. According to this view, employees who are content have positive feelings about their tasks and job

situation while those who are dissatisfied generally possess negative attitudes (Robbins, 2000:381).

Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1998:204), Luthans (1998:144), Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:163) and Hukpati (2009:14) concur with Locke (1976) that job satisfaction refers to "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience". In this view, job satisfaction is seen as an outcome of employees' perception about how well their jobs afford them those things that they regard as important. Put differently, job satisfaction seems to result when work is in harmony with the employees' needs and values (Luthans, 1998:144). Similarly, Theron (in Bergh & Theron 2001:191) and Daft and Noe (2001:112) define job satisfaction as a predominantly positive attitude towards one's job. Job satisfaction also includes the general components of attitudes such as the cognitive, emotional and behavioural components. However, Theron (in Bergh & Theron 2001:191) warns that the behavioural part is not essentially strong as employees may have feelings about a work issue without necessarily revealing it in their behaviour.

Lawler in Mercer (1997:64) maintains that overall job satisfaction is determined by the difference between the totality of what employees feel they should receive from their job and what they actually receive. Larson (2011:6) says that job satisfaction involves the matching of the employees', values, needs and expectations to what their work provides. For Hukpati (2009:14) job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being adequately rewarded for one's efforts.

From the above definitions it is clear that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted concept. However, for the purpose of this study, job satisfaction will be regarded as a positive or pleasant emotional state that principals and educators experience when their work is in harmony with their needs and values.

2.3   APPROACHES TO JOB SATISFACTION

McCormick and Ilgen (1995:311-312) and Rue and Byars (2001:288) suggest that motivation and job satisfaction are two distinct phenomena. They say that whereas work motivation refers to a drive to perform at work, job satisfaction is largely concerned with the affective emotions that

individuals have towards their work. This view is also shared by Robbins and Judge (2009:146) when they maintain that motivation refers to the urge and effort to satisfy either a need or a goal. But satisfaction is about the contentment experienced when a need is satisfied. Nevertheless, the two topics are frequently associated because motivation is a process that may yield job satisfaction. Furthermore, Mullins (1996:249) argues that the content theories of motivation such as Herzberg's two-factor theory are either related to, or essentially theories of job satisfaction. Noting that the central focus of many motivational theories is needs and how they can be fulfilled in the work place, it seems reasonable to argue that understanding job satisfaction first requires an understanding of what motivation entails. However, it is important to first briefly discuss the relationship between job satisfaction and morale as researchers such as Evans (1998: 26) regard morale as an extension of job satisfaction.

2.3.1   Job satisfaction and morale

Coughlan (in Evans 1998:26) defines morale as the degree to which individuals' needs are gratified and the extent to which individuals perceive that satisfaction as deriving from their total job situation. This definition of morale is adopted and supported by Evans (1998:30) who opines that morale is chiefly an attribute of the individual, which is determined with respect to personal goals. She therefore rejects the notion of interpreting morale as a group phenomenon that is related to the individual being assimilated with the group through acceptance of its goals (Evans, 1998:23). Coughlan (in Evans1998:26) further suggests that in schools morale is connected to the educators' specific needs and individual perception of their working environment for the satisfaction of their needs.

For Bush and Middlewood (2005: 78), morale can be defined as a temper or mood prevalent in individuals constituting a group. Similarly, Rue and Byars (2001:288) and McLaine (in Evans 1998:23) explain morale as ownership of a feeling of being accepted and belonging to a group of employees through adhering to common group aims and believing in the importance of these aims. These researchers contend that morale is the by-product of a group, while job satisfaction is more of a person's mental state.

Notwithstanding the differences of opinion regarding the interpretation of morale, researchers generally agree that morale and job satisfaction are interrelated concepts in that job satisfaction

can influence morale and morale can contribute towards job satisfaction (Rue & Byars, 1994:332 and Evans, 1998:26). Evans (1998:26) specifically maintains that morale is an extension of job satisfaction, arguing that morale involves anticipation of sustained job satisfaction in the form of job comfort or / and of job fulfillment.

The above definition of morale and its apparent relationship with job satisfaction, suggests that in an institution like a school, high individual and team morale can be attained through increasing other colleagues' satisfaction, and, therefore ensuring their commitment to school goals. Since needs satisfaction is part of the motivation cycle, it becomes clear from the above definition of morale, that high morale of educators prevails in a school where both principals and educators alike, are highly motivated. Evans (1999:4) however, cautions that high morale may prevail alongside dissatisfaction.

2.3.2   Motivation and job satisfaction

Motivation stimulates people to act in a goal-directed way. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012: 80) refer to motivation as an internal condition or state that activates human beings to behave in a particular manner. This striving condition originates from human needs. Owens (1995:25) contends that because motivation cannot be observed, it should be inferred from people's behaviour. Berg and Theron (2001:166) agree with Owens (1995:25) that purposeful and organized behaviour in human beings results from motivation. Therefore, motivation leads to goal-directed human conduct. This means that human behaviour is an attempt to gratify the needs that motivate the individual.

Mwamwenda (1996:259) and Daft and Noe (2001:162) regard motivation as an energizer or inner urge that directs human behaviour in a way that attempt to satisfy a person's needs. Furthermore, Mwamwenda sees motivation as serving the purpose of establishing and maintaining a state of balance or equilibrium in the individual. However, Mwamwenda (1996:259) asserts that motivation does not refer to inner drives only, but could also refer to external stimuli that can influence an individual in a beneficial or aversive way. Therefore, motivation can lead to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. Like Owens and Mwamwenda, Luthans (1998:161) defines motivation as a process that begins with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that stimulates behaviour or a drive aimed at a goal or incentive. Luthans suggests that for the

motivation process to be well understood, the meaning and relationship among incentives, drives and needs should first be adequately understood. That is, in the motivation process, needs give rise to drives or motives aimed at incentives. Furthermore, Luthans (1998:161) argues that an incentive is at the end of a motivational cycle and can be explained as anything that will satisfy a need and lessen a drive. Similarly, Mathis and Jackson (2008:72) claim that motivation is about what activates or stimulates human behaviour, what directs a person's behaviour towards a certain goal, and how this behaviour is sustained. This view is supported by McCormick and Ilgen (1995:268) when they define work motivation as conditions which induce the arousal, course and maintenance of behaviours pertinent to work settings.

For Van Dyk (1998:257), Mullins (1996:246), Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1998:246) motivation refers to the course and persistence of a person's behaviour or action. It is concerned with the people's choice of a certain course of action over the others and why the chosen action is pursued over a long time, in the face of obstacles and problems. In addition, Van Dyk (1998:9) states that employees' motivation and job satisfaction are determined by the comparative strength of their needs and expectations, and the degree to which these needs are satisfied.

Bagraim (2007:69) maintains that motivation is a process that explains the choice made by people among different voluntary responses. This means that most behaviour manifested by individuals on the job and in the work environment is voluntary. Robbins (2000:407) and Greenberg (2011:80) share the same view in defining motivation as the willful desire (a person's choice) to direct one's conduct towards goals. Goals can be regarded as incentives aimed at satisfying an individual's important needs. Human behaviour is, therefore, directed towards whatever will satisfy a need.

Cascio (1991:415) defines motivation operationally as, "goal-directed behaviour in which financial and non financial incentives are viewed as inducements to keep employees behaviour directed towards important organisational goals such as increasing productive output". For Slocum and Hellriegel (2011:158), motivation concerns the forces acting on or within individual that cause individuals to conduct themselves in specific, goal-directed manners. Therefore, one task of management is to effectively channel employee motivation towards achieving organisational objectives. People must be attracted not only to join the organisation but also to

remain in it. This can be possible if employees experience job satisfaction through the gratification of their needs. Van der Westhuizen (1999:194) fully supports this view in saying that motivation refers to all efforts educational leaders use to encourage their staff and colleagues to willingly and intentionally achieve to the best of their abilities. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994:145) say that motivated workers are interested in yielding high-quality products or services, that they are eager to come to work and be part of a team, and they are also keen to assist, give support and encouragement to other co-workers. Therefore, one is inclined to reasonably argue that motivating employees can lead to their being satisfied with their jobs. For Hoy and Miskel (2001:126) organisations exist to satisfy human needs, as well as to attain organisational goals. For this reason, it is short-sighted and incomplete to ignore either the structural or individual elements of the school as a social system. Still, Hoy and Miskel (2001:126) maintain that an effective way to acquire insights about learners, educators and principals as individuals in schools is to investigate their needs, goals and motivation. Educators in schools are always thinking of satisfying their needs while doing their jobs, and as far as possible they behave in a manner that is consistent with their needs. Consequently, motivation of educators is important because the ultimate goal of directed behaviour is needs satisfaction or reduction of internal tension (Hoy & Miskel, 2001:127). Therefore, motivation can indeed lead to job satisfaction through satisfaction of employees needs.

Significantly, Hoy and Miskel (2001:305) contend that work motivation is also consistently correlated with job satisfaction. They suggest that the expectancy motivation theory is linked to educator job satisfaction. Educators who regard themselves as capable of doing their job and who envision positive outcomes for their efforts, generally experience high levels of job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 2001:305).

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:148) argue that people can be said to be motivated only if they derive pleasure and / or total involvement out of performing a task. They maintain that people who carry out a task for the sake of being rewarded are being moved rather than motivated. However, workers have to be moved with good pay and fringe benefits as well as motivated through gratification of human needs.

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:153-154) point out that there are two types of motivation, namely, positive and negative motivation. Positive motivation by educational leaders involves using merit awards, promotions, commendation, recognition and staff empowerment through the delegation of increased responsibility and authority. Conversely, negative motivation involves a regular reprimanding of the staff when an educator commits a mistake, making threats, insisting on issuing out written warnings and other related disciplinary measures. Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:154) maintain that motivation usually inspires educators to yearn for greater achievement because they experience greater job satisfaction. However, continuous negative motivation by an educational leader may create feelings of unpleasantness and hostility in the school with the resultant declining job satisfaction that impacts on educator morale. Applied to school principals, this means that principals experience more job satisfaction when they receive positive motivation. In contrast, they invariably experience little job satisfaction when receiving incessant negative motivation from their superiors.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the motivation continuum:

Figure 2.1: Motivation continuum
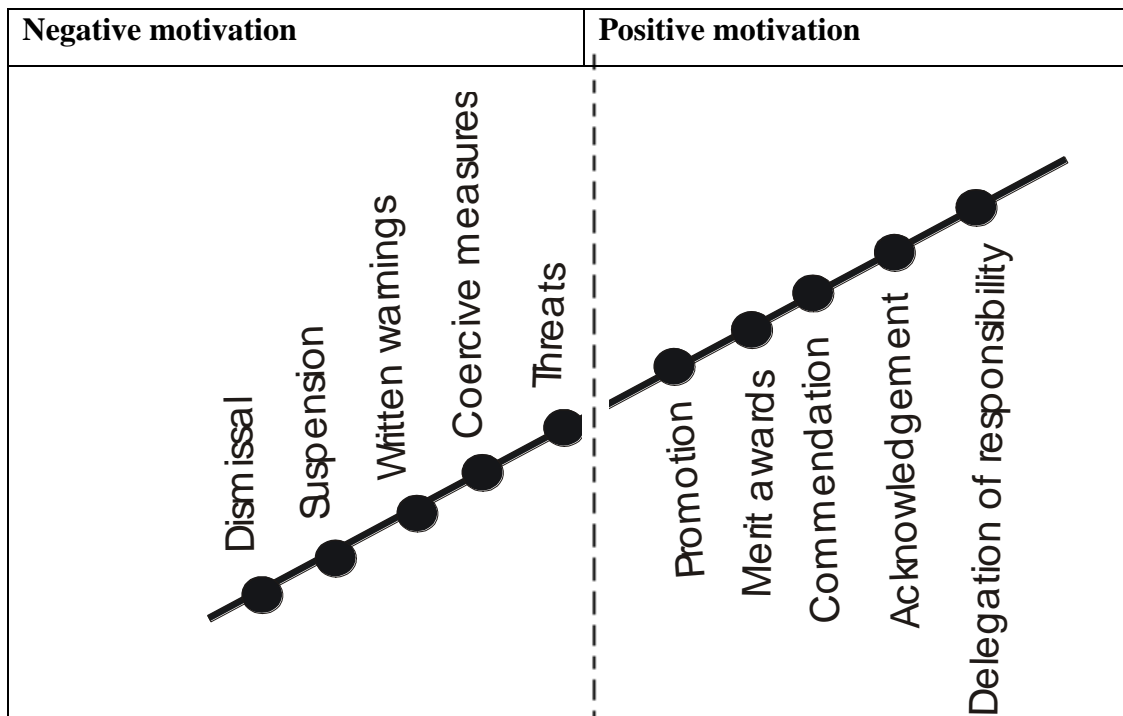
Source: Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:154)

From the above explanations, descriptions or definitions of the concept of motivation, it does emerge that there are seemingly as many definitions and descriptions of motivation as there are commentators. Nevertheless, it can be safely concluded that there exists a common thread running through all the views on motivation, namely:

- Motivation is a human phenomenon and all human behaviours are motivated. However, no two individuals may be equally motivated by the same set of motivating factors.
- Motivation results from the needs which the individual concerned wishes to satisfy. This means that people do something because of a particular reason for doing so.
- Motivation is produced or made possible by internal motives present in the individual or by external factors present in the environment.
- Motivation is intentional, purposive, directional and persistent.
- Motivation can lead to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.

The relationship between motivation and job satisfaction can be clearly discerned from the above definitions of motivation. Apparently, employees derive satisfaction from their work if their needs are satisfied. In other words, employees derive more job satisfaction if their expectations about their job are confirmed. Work motivation, therefore, involves assisting employees to develop a positive attitude towards their work.

Because of the apparent relationship between motivation and job satisfaction, it becomes essential in this study to give an overview of the concept of job satisfaction by using a few examples of motivation theories. The various theories of motivation are important to educational managers because they help to understand educators' needs and to determine how best these needs can be gratified in a manner that ensures the realization of educational goals while enhancing educators' job satisfaction.

2.3.2.1   Theories of Motivation

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:324), Daft and Marcie (1998:453) and Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1995:323) point out that a contemporary classification of theories of motivation divides the various theories into three broad categories, namely, content, process and reinforcement theories.

Content theories place more emphasis on what incites or encourages human behaviour. Consequently, they provide valuable insights into employee needs in organisations and how these needs may be satisfied in a manner that contributes to performance and the realization of organisational goals (Swanepoel *et al*., 2003:324; Daft & Marcie, 1998:453; Johns, 1996:162 & Luthans & Doh, 2012:424).

Process theories focus on the manner in which employees get motivated. They look at how employees seek rewards in their work environments (Daft & Marcie, 1998:453; Swanepoel *et al*., 2003:324-325). However, Johns (1996:162) suggests that content and process theories complement each other; that they are not contradictory. For example, a need theory may propose that money is a motivator (what), and the mechanics by which money motivates (how) may be explained through the process theory.

Reinforcement theories focus on investigating how people can be conditioned to display desired behaviour. Therefore, the emphasis is on how employees learn the desired and accepted workplace behaviour (Swanepoel *et al*., 2003:325, Daft & Marcie, 1998:453).

2.3.2.2   Content theories of motivation

These theories are important to managers because they attempt to investigate what it is that motivates people at work. They are therefore based on the fact that individuals will act and behave in ways that will result in the gratification of their needs (Daft & Marcie, 1998:453). Similarly Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994:148) and Naylor (1999:542) suggest that content theories focus on individual needs in explaining job satisfaction, employee behaviours, and reward systems. This means that these theories are concerned with identifying the inner needs that inspire people to act and how these needs are prioritized. Furthermore, they look into the types of incentives or goals that people seek to achieve in order to be satisfied and perform optimally (Luthans; 1998:170). The theories of Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland, McGregor and Aldefer will

be discussed in this study as they provide valuable insights on job satisfaction in an organization. Furthermore, Andrews (1997:257) maintains that Maslow's hierarchy of needs is acceptable from a practical point of view as it tends to explain why employees continue to work even after financial needs have long been satisfied.

(i)   Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

Maslow viewed human motivation as a hierarchy of five needs that exist within every human being. This hierarchy of needs is arranged as follows (Robbins 2000:408):

- Physiological needs: include hunger, thirst, shelter, sex, oxygen and other survival needs.
- Safety needs: include security, stability, order and protection from physical and emotional harm.
- Affiliation or acceptance needs: include need for love, social interacting, attention, companionship and friendship.
- Esteem needs: include internal esteem factors such as self-respect, self-esteem, autonomy and external factors such as status, recognition and attention.
- Self-actualization needs: include the need to grow, to feel fulfilled, and to maximize one's potential.

The first three sets of needs were described as deficiency needs, for Maslow argued that they are to be gratified if the individual is to be healthy and secure. Maslow then called the last two sets of needs growth needs because he maintained that they provided the basis for individual development and achievement of one's potential (Robbins 2000:409). Deficiency needs and growth needs are often referred to as lower-order needs and higher-order needs, respectively. Robbins (1996:409) states that Maslow based his distinction between the two orders on the assumption that higher-order needs are satisfied within the person while lower-order needs are mainly satisfied externally by factors such as pay, union contracts and leave.

Maslow proposed that the lowest of human needs consisted of the basic physiological needs such as water, oxygen, food, sex and others. These needs are essential for human survival (Rue & Byars, 2001:280). In fact, these needs are predominant until they are gratified. As soon as physiological needs are satisfied, then a second set of needs higher up the hierarchy is activated and assumes predominance until it is satisfied. According to Slocum and Hellriegell (2011:162),

an unsatisfied need can be so powerful that it can dominate the individuals' thoughts and determine their behaviour. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is represented in a form of a diagram in figure 2.2 below.

Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Available off the job

Available on the job

Education, causes, hobbies, personal development

Challenge, use of creativity, advancement, personal development

Self-actualis

Esteem needs

Recognition among family, friends and the wide community

Recognition, status, job title and responsibilities.

Social needs

Being with family, and other groups.

Acceptance by work groups, clients, wider associations

Safety-security needs

Freedom from threat, violence, war

Job Security, pension, safe working conditions

Physiological needs

Nourishment, sex

Pay, pleasant work environment, welfare

Source: Naylor (1999:544)

From the discussion above, it can be deduced that Maslow's theory is grounded upon the following assumptions:

- People are need-creating and need satisfying beings, for as soon as one need is satisfied, another takes its place and this process never stops from birth to death. A satisfied need has no motivational value (Andrews, 1997:257-265; Du Toit, 2002:351-352; Van Dyk, 1998:260-261; Keuning, 1998:381).
- Human needs are arranged in order of importance for human survival. Deficiency needs must be satisfied before growth needs (Van Dyk 1998:261).

However, Owens (1995:108; Eyre & Pettinger, 1999:128) warn that the idea of a needs hierarchy does not necessary mean that there will never be conflicting emotions as to what a person wants to do.

- Higher-order needs are often less essential for sheer human survival and are classified as secondary. Their satisfaction can, therefore, be postponed (Moorhead & Griffin, 2004:18).

Figure 2.3 illustrates how Maslow's needs theory may be applied in practice in an organization like a school.

Figure 2.3: Practical application of Maslow's needs hierarchy

NEEDS LEVEL	GENERAL REWARDS	ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS
1. Physiological	Food	**Motivators**
	Water	Pay
	Shelter	Pleasant working conditions
	Rest	Cafeteria
2. Safety	Safety	**Motivators**
	Security	Safe working conditions
	Stability	Company benefits
	Protection	Job security
3. Social	Love	**Motivators**
	Affection	Cohesive work group
	Belonging needs	Friendly supervision
		Professional associations
4. Esteem	Self-esteem	**Motivators**
	Self-respect	Social recognition
	Prestige	Job title
	Status	High status job
		Feedback from the job itself
5. Self-Actualization	Growth	**Motivators**
	Advancement	Challenging job opportunities for creativity
	Creativity	Achievement in work
		Advancement in the organization

Source: Steers and Porter (1991:35)

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:327) argue that perhaps the greatest practical merit of Maslow's theory lies in the fact that it highlights the reality that people have different needs and are, therefore, motivated by different factors. Consequently, what motivates one person may totally fail to motivate others. Furthermore, what serves as an effective motivator for an individual at one time may not be effective in other occasions. Van Dyk (1998:300) agrees with Swanepoel *et al.* that people have different needs. This is proved by the fact that people may show the same behaviour, but usually not for the same reason. For example, in a school situation, two school principals may support each other that the OBE approach is bound to fail. However, one of them may perceive OBE as being too difficult to implement, while another may consider it to be irrelevant to societal needs.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:264) contend that even though research does not clearly support Maslow's theory, there is one important managerial implication that needs serious consideration, that is, a gratified need may lose its motivational strength. The theory also draws attention to the reality that people's motivation and work performance are determined by the strength of their needs and the degree to which these needs are fulfilled (Van Dyk, 1998:285). Therefore, the fact that a lower satisfied need no longer acts as a strong motivator implies that if managers want to motivate workers, they need to understand at what level of the hierarchy the workers are and thus focus on satisfying the needs at or above that level (Robbins, 2000:409). Van der Westhuizen (1999:196) comments that it serves little purpose as a motivating factor to appoint someone to a post with promotion possibilities if the salary structure fails to satisfy the person's most fundamental needs.

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:145-146) maintain that principals can contribute towards satisfying educators' needs at the physiological level by ensuring that educators receive their pay timely and making special arrangements if there are any delays. Educators' security needs also include working in an environment that is free of violence, humiliation, harassment and intimidation. It also implies ensuring that educators are familiar with all school policies, conditions of employment and opening up communication channels. Furthermore, educators' belonging needs can be satisfied by serving in the various school committees. Finally, educational managers can meet educators' self-esteem and self-actualization needs by acknowledging and recognizing educators' achievements. Staff should also receive feedback on their performance timely to ensure

that their self-worth is enhanced. By providing job enrichment programmers, empowering the staff to effectively participate in decision making, principals can ensure that educators realize their potential and experience a sense of fulfillment and job satisfaction. Satisfaction of higher order needs is important as these needs have the potential to boost and enhance the performance of the staff.

Smit and Cronje (1997:311) explain that Maslow's theory is important in that it emphasizes the importance of personal growth and self-actualization in the workplace. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:82) indicate that Maslow's theory implies that managers should foster conditions that provide for the satisfaction of employees' lower-order needs so that these employees will be encouraged to strive for the realization of their potential and hence satisfy their needs for self-actualization. However, in most organisations, employees who are self-actualized are those who are in management positions. These are the people that most benefit the organisation as they tend to be creative and productive (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2011:163). Therefore, in an organisation like a school one would expect principals to be highly motivated and to experience a deep sense of job satisfaction.

Armstrong (1999:112) contends that Maslow's theory also implies that the higher-order needs for esteem and self-actualization provide boundless stimuli to motivation. This means that they grow in strength when they are gratified, while the lower-order needs motivational potential lowers on satisfaction. It is, therefore, reasonable to expect that in a school milieu, principals are likely to be more motivated if they attain self-fulfillment and enjoy more job satisfaction. Slocum and Hellriegell (2011:163) support this argument in saying that research has found that top managers in organisations are in a position to satisfy their esteem and self-fulfillment needs better than managers who are at lower levels. This is occasioned by the fact that top managers have more challenging work and opportunities for self-actualization.

In giving a critical evaluation of Maslow's theory Robbins (2001:157), Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:236), as well as Bowditch, Bouno and Stewart (2008:73) argue that although Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory enjoys wide support and recognition, it is, however, too simplistic and lacks empirical validation. For example, Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:236) argue that satisfying self-actualising needs do not necessarily lead to a reduction of motivation at that level. On the

contrary, people who are able to self actualize are likely to become more inspired to engage in self-actualising activities. Therefore, it cannot be the case that highly satisfied needs really cease to be motivators (Bowditch *et al.,* 2008:73). Robbins (2001:157) also maintains that research has shown that there is no support for the proposition by Maslow that only unsatisfied needs motivate.

Another criticism leveled at Maslow's needs theory is the extent to which the need-hierarchy framework is empirically verified. Robbins (2001:157) and Jones and George (2003:411) contend that some people may regard it as important to first satisfy self-actualising needs before gratifying lower-order needs. Furthermore, some people may be motivated by more than one need simultaneously (Bernstein, Penner, Clarke-Steward & Roy, 2006:427). Bernstein *et al.* (2006:427) also aver that the ordering of needs within Maslow's hierarchy differs from one culture to another. For example, Japanese regard job security and lifelong employment as stronger motivators than self-actualisation (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 1998:142). Therefore, this implies that a single, universal hierarchy of needs does not exist. Consequently, Moorhead and Griffin (2004:125) argue that Maslow's needs theory has primarily contributed in providing a general framework for classifying human needs.

The above discussion leaves one with no option but to conclude that: notwithstanding the criticisms leveled against Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, it can serve as a powerful tool for looking at the various needs and goals that principals and educators have, where to locate these needs in the hierarchy and what motivators to use in order to enhance performance and job satisfaction of educators at the different levels of their needs.

(ii) Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth theory

A variation of Maslow's theory is Alderfer's existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory. Robbins (2000:409) asserts that this theory is actually a modification of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Alderfer proposed a condensed version in an attempt to deal with the limitations evidenced in Maslow's theory. He argued that there are only three groups of core needs, namely, existence, relatedness and growth needs. According to Alderfer (Swanepoel, *et al.,* 2003:328; Robbins, 2000:409-410), existence needs refer to those needs that are concerned with providing individuals' basic or fundamental material existence requirements. These basic existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs form the second group of

needs. They pertain to people's desire for interpersonal relationships and interactions. In fact relatedness needs can be equated to Maslow's affiliation or social needs and also include the external component of his esteem needs. The third and last group of needs is the growth needs. This group of needs relates to the human's intrinsic or inherent desire for personal development and increased competence (Daft & Marcie, 1998:455). They therefore typically include the internal components of Maslow's esteem needs and his self-fulfillment needs classification.

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:328) and Robbins (2000:410) explain that Alderfer's ERG theory is similar to Maslow's hierarchy of needs in many respects, but they differ in some very important respects. Firstly, the ERG theory is not based on the assumption that there exists a rigid hierarchy of needs where a lower need must be substantially satisfied before a higher-order need becomes functional. This distinction is very important as it means that in terms of the ERG theory, two or even all three categories of needs can operate at the same time. Secondly, Alderfer's ERG theory suggests that if one level of needs remains unsatisfied for a significant period or if people do not have the potential to satisfy it, then they will concentrate on lower-order needs and, therefore, regress in the hierarchy. This implies that any frustration of higher-order needs urges the person to demand more satisfaction of lower needs. For example if a people's growth needs are not satisfied, they may develop an increased desire to earn a lot of money (existence needs).

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:328) further argues that the ERG theory is useful in that it comes very close to people's everyday observation of human behaviour. Therefore, it can be inferred that an inordinate need for something by an employee at work (such as salary increase) may suggest that the employee is unable to satisfy a higher-order need. It is, therefore, important for employers and managers – in a bid to enhance the level of motivation and job satisfaction among employees – to give attention to all levels of needs at the same time. Rue and Byars (2001:282) also argue that the theory supports the view that a specific type of need may be satisfied in many ways. Additionally, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:265) suggest that the ERG theory is in agreement with the finding that individual and cultural differences influence people's need states. Therefore, it is important for managers to customize their reward and recognition programmes in a manner that suits workers' different needs. As such, the theory suggests that human needs should not necessarily be arranged in a rigid, linear, chronological order from lower to higher levels.

Robbins (2001:161 -162) says that Alderfer modified Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with empirical research. However, while several studies have supported the theory, evidence exists that it does not work in some organizations. Therefore, critics have raised questions about the theory's universality as they argue that it does not help them understand what motivates members of particular groups or organizations (Bowditch & Buono, 1997:89). Nevertheless, Robbins (2001:162) opines that the ERG theory represents a more acceptable and valid version of the needs hierarchy.

(iii)   Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's theory has its basis on a research study in which he and his associates interviewed 203 accountants and engineers with the aim of investigating factors responsible for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Andrews (1997:206) suggests that the theory is based on the assumption that motivation consists of two dimensions. The one dimension concerns work satisfaction while the other concerns work dissatisfaction. Therefore, work satisfaction and work dissatisfaction should not be regarded as being the two opposite extremes of a continuum.

Herzberg found that there was a set of factors or working conditions which, if embodied in the work situation serve to motivate workers to perform optimally. These factors, which he named motivators or growth factors, included the following: achievement, recognition for what has been achieved, the job itself (the degree to which it is interesting, meaningful and challenging), progress or growth (learning and developing), increasing responsibility and feedback (Werner, 2001:331). Herzberg argues that these motivators, which are intrinsic in nature, mainly deal with the basic nature and content of the work (Van der Westhuizen, 1999:200; Werner 2001:331).

According to Herzberg, job dissatisfaction is brought about by the absence of hygiene or maintenance factors. Hygiene factors refer to extrinsic factors such as status, work security, company policy and administration, remuneration, supervision, interpersonal relations with subordinates, peers and supervisors and working conditions (Swanepoel *et al.,* 2003:329; Van Dyk 1998:264). The presence of hygiene factors does not, however, necessarily bring about job satisfaction in workers; rather, it serves to remove job dissatisfaction. Because these hygiene factors are extrinsic in nature and relate to working conditions, they are often referred to as the job context factors.

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Figure 2.4 illustrates the satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors of Herzberg's hypothesis.

Figure 2.4: The satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors

HYGIENE FACTORS	MOTIVATORS
Business policy and administration	Performance
Supervision	Recognition
Relationship with colleagues and supervisor	Delegation of task, responsibility and authority
Job conditions	
Salary	
Relationship with Co-workers	Career progress
Personal life	Opportunities for personal growth
Relationship with subordinates	
Status	
Security	

Source: Gerber *et al.* (1998:262)

It is, therefore, evident that only growth factors (motivators) are capable of motivating employees and enhancing their job satisfaction. Motivators also correspond with Maslow's higher-order needs such as ego needs and self-actualization needs. Hygiene factors, in contrast, correspond to Maslow's lower-needs such as social, safety and physiological needs (Van Dyk. 1998:264). These hygiene factors have little or no motivational value. Figure 2.5 illustrates the similarity between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg.

Figure 2.5: Similarity between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg

Maslow`s Need theory		Herzberg`s job motivation model	motivators
Higher order needs	Self - actualization	• Achievement • Task • Growth • Responsibility	
	Ego	• Achievement • Recognition	
Lower Order Needs	Social	• Supervision • Interpersonal relations with peers and supervision • Status	Hygiene factors
	Safety	• Job security • Working conditions	
	Physiology	• Salary	
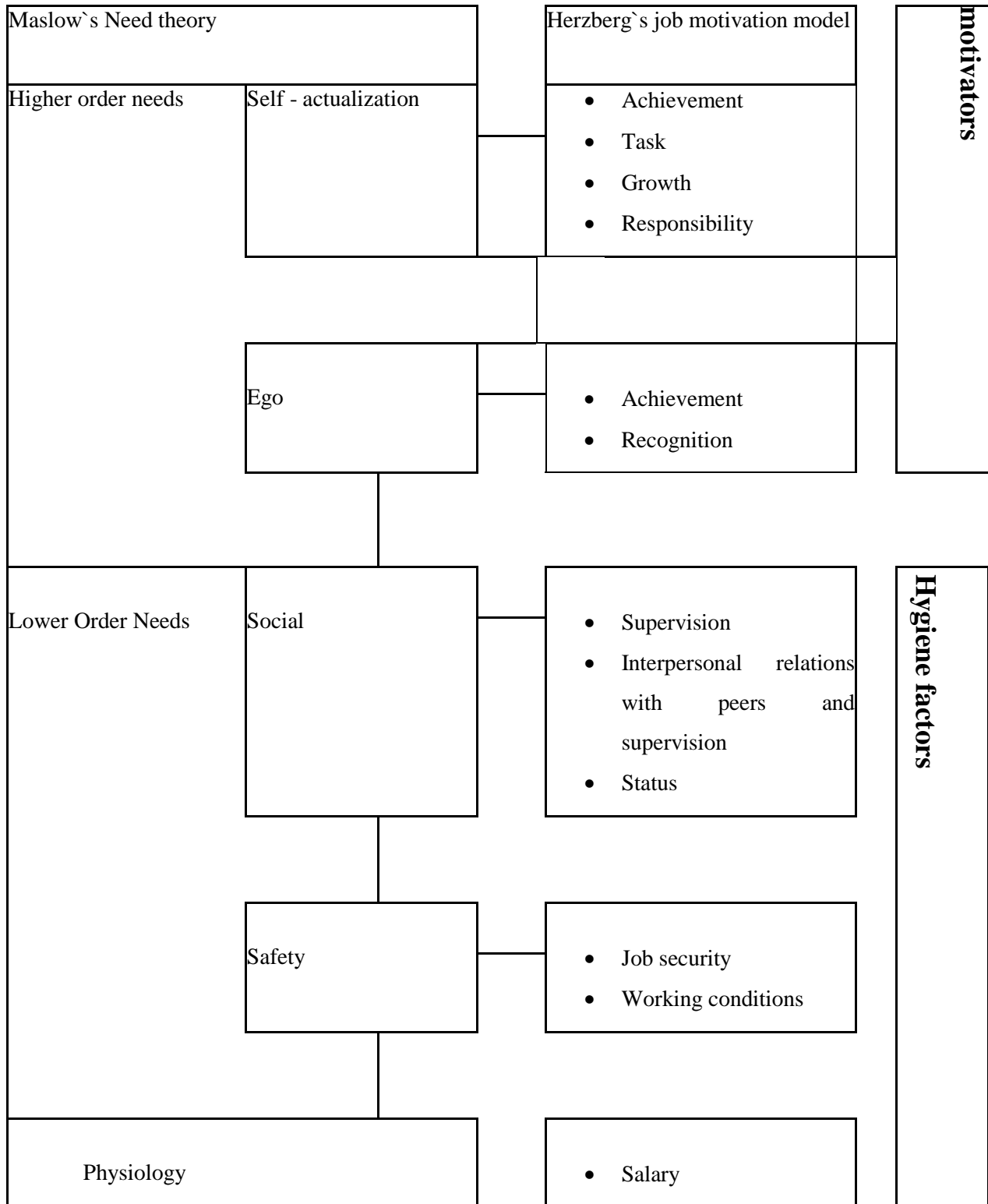
Source: Van Dyk (1998:267)

Owens (1995:55-56) maintains that reducing class size in school, creating a more agreeable atmosphere and improving the fringe benefits may well reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of educators and create conditions in which they may be motivated. However, these factors in themselves are not motivating because they are preventive in nature. They only serve as prerequisites to motivation and job satisfaction. Owens is also convinced that Herzberg's two-factor theory illustrates the tendency by people to attribute motivational characteristics to them and attributes dissatisfaction to external factors such as organisational characteristics.

Herzberg's theory is supported by a study conducted by Sergiovanni and Starratt (in Mosikidi, 2003:22) on factors affecting the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of educators. In this study Sergiovanni concludes that workers will derive satisfaction from work-centred activities if their energies are not depleted or exhausted by unsatisfactory working conditions. Therefore, the crucial point seems to be the dependence of motivators on the elimination of demotivators.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (in Mosikidi, 2003:22) explain that hygiene factors in school refer to those work conditions that teachers traditionally expect to enjoy. The adequate availability of these conditions at school only encourages teachers to perform adequately. Once these traditional legal work conditions are not met, teachers become dissatisfied and their work performance declines. Therefore, the presence of hygiene factors does not motivate teachers but prevents them from being dissatisfied. Sergiovanni and Starratt (in Mosikidi, 2003:22) further argue that motivation to work results from factors known as motivators, and not from increasing hygiene factors. However, neglecting hygiene factors can create serious problems for a school. In fact, educators are prone not to be interested in the pursuit of higher-order needs without consistent and appreciable satisfaction of the lower-order needs or hygiene factors. Riches (in Bush & West-Burnham,1994:234) reports that researchers such as Vroom (1964), Locke (1965) and Herzberg (1966) found that principals derive job satisfaction if they experience a sense of achievement in completing a task or if they regard themselves as having reached specific standards of competence. Conversely, principals experience job dissatisfaction if they lose their autonomy or experience a sense of powerlessness. For example, the moving goalposts of government legislation and policy may lead to job dissatisfaction. Riches' observations are supported in a study conducted by Bohloko (1999) on job satisfaction of college lectures (cf. 1.2).

In conclusion, it is apparent that Herzberg's theory of motivation proposes that educators - including principals - in schools have two separate sets of needs. One set of needs is best satisfied by hygienic or maintenance factors. Educators respond to these factors by giving what may be referred to as a fair day's work. Any inadequate provision of these factors results in dissatisfaction, which invariably leads to performance that is below acceptable levels. Another set of needs is best met by motivators or satisfiers that are not automatically part of the job, but that can be built into most work situations. In exchange for these growth or motivational factors, educators are prepared to perform optimally and to exceed the limit of the usual fair day's work. It is also clear that principals derive job satisfaction for as long as they feel that they are in control of the situation. Therefore, it seems that principals' job satisfaction may be significantly enhanced if they provide opportunities for educators to experience a sense of professional competence and personal growth. It is only when educators are adequately motivated that they will perform in a manner that is likely to lead to their leaders experiencing a sense of being in full control.

Notwithstanding its popularity, Herzberg's two-factor theory has elicited considerable criticism and little empirical support (Swanepoel *et al*; 2003:329). Bowditch *et al.* (2008:76) explain that some studies have shown that needs for salary, recognition and responsibility actually function both as motivators and as maintenance factors. Only studies that employ methodologies similar to that of Herzberg tend to support his theory (Moorhead & Griffin; 2004:128). This has led to the conclusion that Hertzberg's research results are either dubious or that his research design was flawed (Swanepoel *et al*.; 2003:329). Critics also argue that Herzberg's methodology was flawed in that people have a cultural tendency to attribute their satisfaction and achievement to themselves and their failure or dissatisfaction to the extrinsic environment. Consequently, it is hardly amazing that his research results showed that those factors which were related to the job itself were linked to satisfaction while those aspects that were related to the job context were linked with job dissatisfaction (Robbins, 2001:160; Bowditch *et al.* 2008:76). Other criticisms of the theory include the following: it fails to account for individual differences; it does not define the relationship between satisfaction and motivation; it ignores situational variables; it does not utilize an overall measure of satisfaction; it varies across cultures; and the theory presupposed a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. However, it used a procedure that concentrated only at satisfaction and not at productivity (Robbins, 2001:160; Moorhead & Griffin, 2004:128).

(iv)   McGregor's X and Y theory

Robbins (1996:214) opines that McGregor's X and Y theory is grounded on two distinct assumptions about human beings: one being fundamentally negative and labeled Theory X and the other being fundamentally positive and labeled Theory Y. Following a close look at how managers dealt with their employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view about human nature is based on a self-fulfilling prophecy. This derives from the notion that managers' assumptions about human nature influence and determine their behaviour towards workers. The manager's attitude and conduct then affects and influences the employee's behaviour, which in turn serves to reconfirm the manager's perspective (Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2001:352). Figure 2.5 illustrates leaders' assumptions about human nature, according to McGregor.

Figure 2.6: Leader's assumption about people

Theory X	Theory Y
• People are inherently lazy and avoid work whenever they can • Most people are only interested in money. • People do not want responsibility. • The average person does not have much ambition. • Most people are not capable of solving problems.	• People perceive work as a source of satisfaction and natural as play. • People want to make a worthwhile contribution. • Most people are keen to demonstrate their ability. • People are creative and strive for self-actualization. • People are problem-solvers by nature.

 Source: Nel *et al.* (2001:354)

It is clear from Figure 2.6 above that the motivational implications of McGregor's analysis can best be expressed in the framework of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. In this context, it is evident that theory X assumes that most individuals are dominated by lower-order needs. Employees, therefore, have to be moved by pay and punishment in order to improve their productivity. In this view, most workers regard security as the most important need to be satisfied

in the workplace. Whatever personal ambitions they may have should be satisfied outside the workplace (Robbins, 1996:215).

In contrast, theory Y assumes that workers derive job satisfaction when their higher-order needs are gratified. The theory posits that employees' motivation and job satisfaction can be enhanced if employees are involved in decision-making processes, if they experience their work as meaningful, challenging and making room for creativity. Furthermore, workers can generally learn to accept or even seek responsibility and can control their performance. Notably, the Y theory maintains that the ability to make innovative decisions is not essentially the sole domain of managers. Given the opportunity, many workers can contribute positively towards organisational goals (Robbins 1996:215; Nel *et al.*, 2001:353).

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that educational managers with an X theory orientation, are likely to perceive educators as lazy and with no work ethics, irresponsible and needing close supervision and control. Educators who are treated in this manner are also prone to respond in a way that tends to do exactly as the manager requires, without voluntarily committing themselves towards organisational goals. Unfortunately, their responses only serve to reconfirm the manager's basic assumptions. Thus, a vicious circle of negativity is created. It can be argued, therefore, that referring to schools with low performance problems as dysfunctional only serves to reconfirm the educational leaders' apparent beliefs about the school. Obviously, a theory X management style is likely to lead to the dissatisfaction of educators and poor performance (Nel *et al.*, 2001:353).

On the contrary, theory Y educational managers regard educators as willing to work, to accept responsibility, are capable both of self-direction, and self-control and are also capable of imagination, ingenuity and creativity (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2011:301-302). Accordingly, educators working under such managers feel respected, recognized, acknowledged and valued. Therefore, they become increasingly motivated, responsible and satisfied with their work environment. Their attitude and commitment reconfirms the original beliefs of the educational leader (Nel *et al.*, 2001:353).

In conclusion, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:151) caution that there are situations in which the educational manager may initially have to adopt theory X practices. For, example it may be necessary to provide assistance and close supervision and control to principals or educators who are not performing well. When these principals show signs of development and growth, the educational manager then adopts a theory Y stance and gives them more opportunities for both self-direction and control. The X and Y theory has, however, been criticized widely for the generalization of work and human behaviour (Shah & Shah, 2000:1).

(v)   McClelland's acquired – needs theory

Quick and Nelson (2009:158) assert that McClelland's approach to motivation lays emphasis on the importance of three types of acquired needs, namely, need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation. Van Dyk (1998:267) avers that the theory is based on the assumption that human motives remain latent until they are aroused. And as soon as a motive is actuated by some factor in the situation, it releases energy that is aimed at satisfying the need. McClelland believes that his acquired-needs theory is rooted in culture. Furthermore, he believes that these three basic needs are operative in the job situation (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:330).

According to Robbins (1996:220) and Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:330):-

- the need for achievement (nAch) refers to the wish to exceed some standard of behaviour, the need or drive to excel, the need to succeed;
- the need for power (nPow) refers to the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise, the desire to be influential;
- the need for affiliation (nAff) refers to the need for friendliness and close interpersonal relationship, to be liked and accepted by others.

Based on the definitions given above, Moorhead and Griffin (2004:132) argue that McClelland's acquired needs are similar to Maslow's higher-order needs. For example, the need for achievement is closely related to the self-realization need in that it is about the desire to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. The need for affiliation is a need for love, a sense of belongingness, and relatedness. Finally, the need for power is a desire for control over one's own work or over the work of colleagues. The need for power can therefore be associated with the need for autonomy.

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McClelland describes high achievers as people who always desire to do things better (Robbins, 2000:411-412; Quick & Nelson, 2009:159). Sergiovanni and Starratt (in Mosikidi, 2003:24) concur with this view in saying that teachers with a strong need for achievement are also characterized by moderate risk taking tendencies that are in most cases a function of skill rather than chance; energetic or novel activity; personal responsibility and accountability for their actions and behaviour; the need for immediate feedback on their performance and anticipation of future possibilities.

McClelland argues that effective managers have a high need for power (Quick & Nelson, 2009:159). However, this power is aimed at ensuring the realization of organisational goals through guiding and working with others. It is different from personalized power which is directed at satisfying the need to dominate other people. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:88) explain that McClelland further argues that effective managers may well be expected to be high in nAch. However, success in top management essentially requires managers to be high in the need for power so that they are able to use this power to motivate and influence other people to behave in a manner that ensures the achievement of organisational goals. Therefore, people like school principals could be expected to derive job satisfaction when their autonomy needs are adequately satisfied.

Robbins (1996:221) as well as Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:267) claim that people with a high need for affiliation are generally regarded as not best suited for top managerial positions. This is attributed to the fact that there are times when managers are obliged to take unpopular decisions that other people may resent. Therefore, individuals with a high need for affiliation may find it extremely hard to make difficult decisions without worrying about being disliked. Typically, effective managers possess a high need for power and a low one for affiliation.

McClelland's theory is also criticized by some researchers such as Hellriegel, *et al*. (1998:149). According to these researchers, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) used by McClelland to measure the strength of a person's achievement, affiliation or power motivation is low in reliability because the interpretation of pictures is more of an art than a science. They further argue that its validity is also questionable as researchers have often questioned the permanency of his model's three needs. There is no compelling evidence suggesting the existence of behavioural

clusters as advocated by McClelland. There is, logically, no motivational similarity between people who are characteristically friendly and those who prefer to be in others' company because they want to be admired or accepted.

From the above, it is clear that need theories provide valuable information regarding specific variables that tend to motivate workers and enhance their job satisfaction at the workplace. Needs theories also indicate that workers' needs vary according to job levels. Individuals holding high positions in an organization such as a principal in a school derive job satisfaction if their esteem and self-actualisation needs are adequately met.

2.3.2.3 Process theories of motivation

Process theories of motivation attempt to explain and analyze how internal personal factors interact with and influence each other to arouse particular types of human behaviour. They are also aimed at determining the relationship between variables forming the motivation process Van Dyk (1998:269).

Furthermore, process theories provide an additional contribution to our understanding of employee behaviour and performance at work (Mullins, 1996:258). The four major process theories of motivation that deal with work motivation are expectancy, equity, goal-setting and reinforcement theories.

(i)   Vroom's expectancy theory

Robbins (2000:419), Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis (2005:252), Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:335) and Hellriegel *et al.* (1992:220) explain that the basic premise of Vroom's expectancy theory is that the tendency to behave in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectation that the behaviour will yield a certain outcome, and on the extent to which the individual values or desires that outcome. In practical terms, the expectancy theory holds that employees are rational beings who will be motivated to put more effort in their work when they believe that their effort will lead to a good performance appraisal; that a good appraisal will enable them to reap organisational rewards like bonuses, promotions or salary increase, and that these rewards will actually gratify their personal goals. Slocum and Hellriegel (2011:176) maintain that, in general terms, the expectancy theory highlights the fact that individuals have their own varying needs and ideas

about what they value or desire from their work. People are, therefore, influenced by these needs and ideas when taking decisions about which organisation to join and how much effort to exert in their work. The theory holds that human motivation at work is largely determined by the situation facing those involved and how it fits their needs. Robbins (1996:231) also suggests that the expectancy theory provides managers with explanations of why most employees are not motivated in their jobs and only perform just above the acceptable level.

Vroom's expectancy theory consists of five related variables, which are important for understanding the theory. The five variables are; first level and second level outcomes, expectancy, valence and instrumentality (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2011:176).

- First level outcomes refer to the direct consequences of behaviours associated with doing the job itself. Examples of such outcomes could include the quality of work, productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2011:176).
- Second level outcomes refer to rewards (either positive or negative) that are likely to be yielded by first level outcomes. These outcomes include promotion, salary increase, security, a sense of belonging and promotion (Slocum & Hellriegel, 2011:176).
- Expectancy refers to the belief that a certain level of effort will be followed by a certain level of performance. Therefore, expectancy can be seen as an effort-performance relationship (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012:91; Robbins, 2000:420). Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:247) point out that the following factors influence an employee's expectancy perceptions: self-esteem; self-efficacy; previous success at the task or a similar task; support from others; including supervisor, subordinates and colleagues; access to relevant information; and good material and equipment to work with.
- Instrumentality refers to the extent to which the person believes that performing at a particular level will result in the desired outcome. For example, passing examinations is instrumental to graduating from college. Therefore, instrumentality can also be seen as a performance – rewards relationship (Robbins, 2000:420).
- Valence refers to the extent of preference that an individual has for a potential second level outcome (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012:92). Robbins (2000:420) says that valence can be regarded as a rewards-personal goals relationship.

This means that the motivational value of the reward is dependent on the personal goals of the individual. For example, the likelihood of being promoted to a higher paying position may have a high valence for people who place a high value on money. Thus valence reflects an individual's personal preferences (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:248). Smither (1997:293) explains that valences are different from values because they are only projections of what something may be worth.

The key concepts of Vroom's expectancy theory may be represented diagrammatically. Figure 2.6 illustrates the key concepts of Vroom's expectancy model.

Figure 2.7: Vroom's expectancy theory
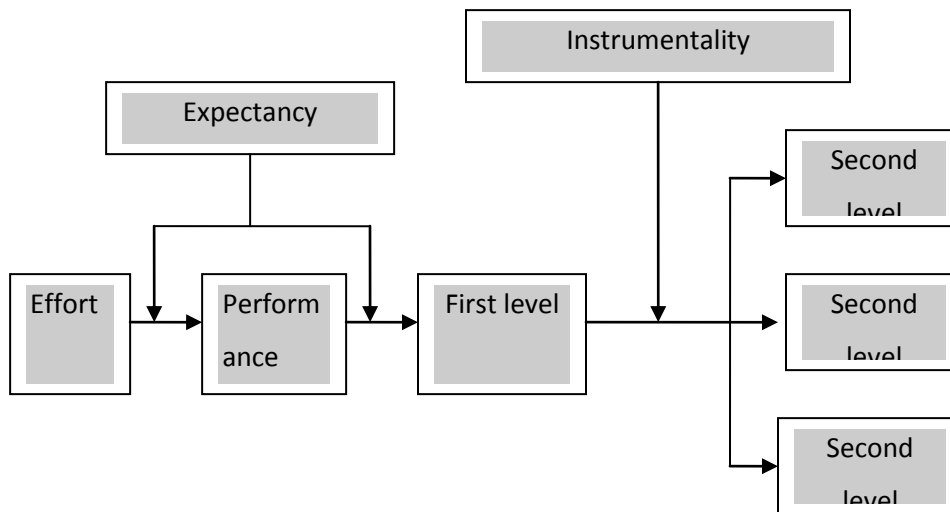
Source: Martin (2001:413)

(ii)   The expectancy theory of Porter and Lawler

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:249) and Werner (2001:336) argue that Porter and Lawler III refined an expectancy model of motivation that expanded Vroom's expectancy theory. Their study, which was chiefly applied to managers, attempted to:

        a. Identify the source of people's valences and expectancies.

        b. Tie effort with performance and job satisfaction; identify other factors, besides effort, that influence performance.

        c. Stress the significance of equitable rewards.

Porter and Lawler's theory may best be understood if represented diagrammatically.

Figure 2.8 illustrates Porter and Lawler's model:

Figure 2.8: The Porter and Lawler model
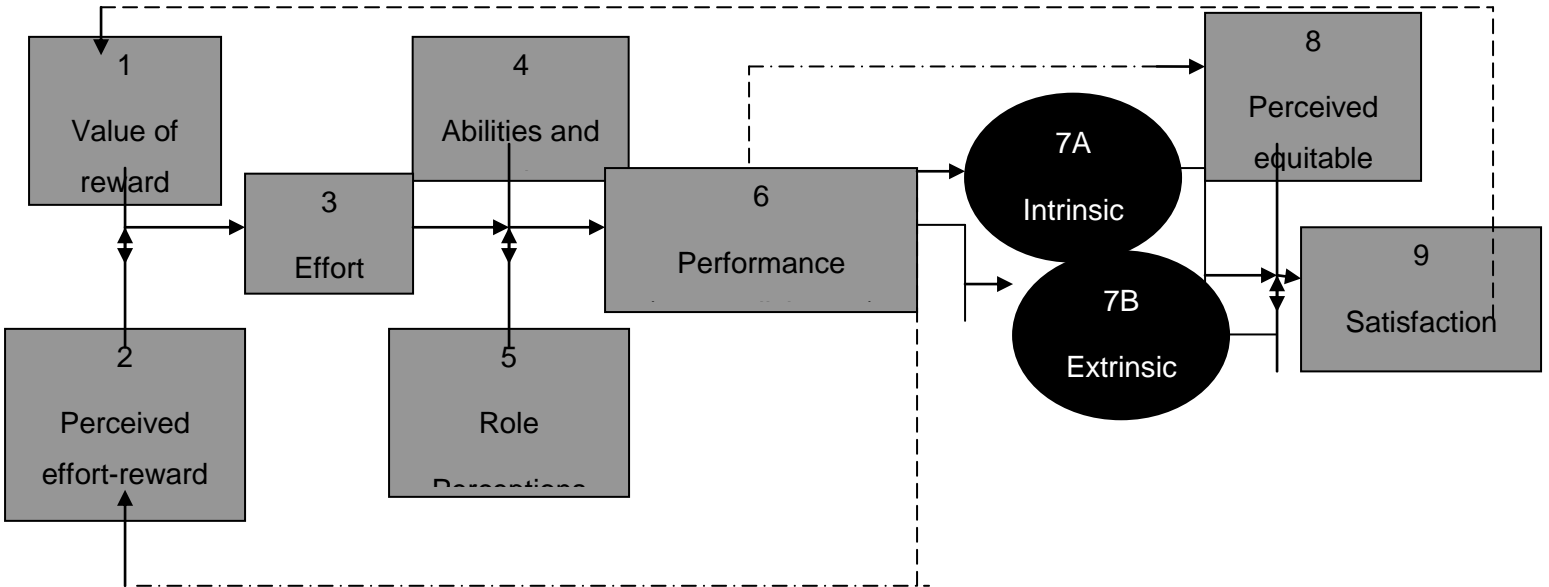
Source: Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:249)

Werner (in Nel *et al*., 2001:337) explains that value of reward corresponds with valence in Vroom's theory, while the perceived effort-reward probability corresponds with his expectancy concept. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:249) assert that effort is dependent on the perceived value of the reward and the perceived effort- reward probability. This implies that employees will exert more effort in their job when they believe that they are likely to reap valued rewards for accomplishing a given task. Therefore, the perceived value of reward and the perceived effort-reward probability can be regarded as predictors of effort.

Performance is not directly influenced by effort alone. It is dependent on employees' abilities and traits, as well as their role perception. This means that employees with higher abilities are likely to perform better than employees with lesser abilities for a given level of effort. Additionally, employees are likely to perform optimally if they clearly understand and are happy with their roles. Therefore, abilities and traits, and role perception can also be seen as predictors of performance (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:350).

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Porter and Lawler (in Nel *et al*., 2004:336) suggest that satisfaction is determined by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are self-granted and consist of intangibles such as a feeling of fulfillment and achievement. Extrinsic rewards refer to tangible results such as pay, public recognition, awards and acceptance. In turn, job satisfaction is determined by the employees' comparison of what they consider an equitable reward with the amount of the actual reward. If the perceived equitable reward exceeds the actual reward, the employee experiences dissatisfaction, and conversely, if the actual reward is more than the perceived equitable reward, then the employee experiences satisfaction (Van Wyk, 2011:48). It is therefore clear that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards can be seen as predictors of employee satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (in Nel *et al.*, 2001:336) also aver that employees experience more job satisfaction when they perceive the rewards received to be in harmony with their own inputs. Furthermore, employee job satisfaction is enhanced if the received rewards are seen as equitable to the rewards received by other colleagues with similar inputs. Luthans (1998:178) says that the most significant aspect of the theory is that it proposes that performance leads to satisfaction.

Although experts in motivation generally accept the expectancy theory, Mullins (1996:262) contends that there are many factors that affect employee conduct at work. Therefore, it may be problematic to identify those variables that are most important in certain situations. Pertinently, the expectancy theory is applicable to behaviour which is under the voluntary control of the individual. However, at the workplace employees may have only restricted freedom to make choices due to the limitations imposed by, for example, company policies and procedures, the nature of technology, and the organization structure or role prescriptions. Furthermore, Mullins (1996:262) is also of the opinion that the different versions of the expectancy theory are not always easy to understand or apply.

Similarly, Johns (1996:172) and Moorhead and Griffin (2004:146-147) argue that the expectancy theory is so complex that researchers have found it difficult to test. Moorhead and Griffin (2004:146-147) suggest that the measures of the different parts of the model may lack validity, and often less scientific procedures for investigating relationships among the variables have been used.

Most researchers (Bowditch & Buono, 1997:97; Moorhead & Griffin 2004:147; Johns, 1996:172) agree that the problem with the expectancy theory lies in the assumption that people will act in a rational and objective manner and weigh all the alternatives open to them regardless of information availability. However, in reality, employees do not make conscious choices about which outcomes they seek from the work place (Spector, 2012:195).

(iii)   Gergen's exchange theory

Martin (2001:415) states that the social exchange theory posits that people manage social interactions as a form of trading in which they invest in relationships to the extent that they expect a balanced return. In conjunction with Martin's viewpoint, Gergen's exchange theory mainly focuses on the interaction of individuals at work in terms of the individual's contribution and rewards in relation to other individuals.

Tice (in Bohloko,1999:30) argues that the theory suggests that people remain satisfied in their relationship with others for as long as they perceive the relationship as having more or equal rewards or returns to their contributions. Under these circumstances this relationship with others is likely to remain in place until people begin to perceive their contribution as exceeding the returns (awards) that they receive. If the contributions are seen as being greater than the rewards, then dissatisfaction is likely to result. Therefore, employees at the workplace experience satisfaction if their contributions are perceived as less or equal to the rewards that they receive. Dissatisfaction could result from not having enough balance in exchange with peers on the job. This low satisfaction could, in turn, lead to frustration and low performance through minimal efforts (Bohloko, 1999:30).

From the above, it seems that Gergen's exchange theory proposes that employees' job satisfaction may be significantly enhanced if these employees perceive equity in relation to their peers, management and monetary rewards. Conversely, job satisfaction is likely to decline when individuals view their job at the work situation as promoting inequity. Furthermore, a feeling among employees of being exploited is likely to impact adversely on cooperation with the leadership and other workers, resulting in a negative attitude towards the job itself (Bohloko, 1999:30). Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:31) explain that an example of inequitable treatment can be found in a situation where one educator is allowed, for example, leave to visit a doctor

during school time, but for another, this is said to be against school regulations. Such imbalances have the potential to lead to bitter conflicts and declining job satisfaction.

(iv) Wolf's need gratification theory

Tice (in Bohloko,1999:31) states that Wolf's need gratification theory posits that a salary can act as a motivator. This is especially the case when employees have a high expectancy that their specific behaviour at work could lead to an increase in their salary. Most motivation researchers, however, opt for performance related incentives over material related rewards.

Seiber (in Johnson 1986:56) suggests that some sources of gratification are self-contained (intrinsic motivators), while others (extrinsic motivators such as money) are resources that can be utilized to acquire gratification elsewhere. Concurring with Seiber, Johnson (1986:57) documented that some educators argue that introducing money as an additional or alternative incentive can actually compromise the intrinsic rewards of the teaching profession.

Spuck (in Pii 2003:36) asserts that material rewards encourage teachers to join the teaching profession and remain in it, while intrinsic rewards are associated with job performance, reduced absenteeism, improved personal relations and notably, effective teacher's classroom behaviour. Bohloko (1999:31) maintains that the need gratification theory is in agreement with Vroom's hypothesis and in contrast to Herzberg, who suggests that salary is a maintenance factor. The theory proposes that educators are chiefly motivated by intrinsic motivators. It further states that money does matter to them, particularly when it falls short of personal needs and personal satisfaction.

From the above it is clear that expectancy theories call upon managers to focus on linking workers' performance to valued rewards regardless of the type of incentive used to enhance motivation and, therefore, ensure high levels of job satisfaction among workers.

(v) Adam's equity theory of motivation

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:333) argue that individuals do not work in a vacuum. People work with others and are inclined to make comparisons between their perceived efforts and accompanying compensation and the efforts of others and their rewards. The equity theory states that employees

compares their input-outcome ratio with the input-outcome ratio of comparable others. When these ratios are perceived as equal to that of others, a state of equity exists and the employee is satisfied. A state of equity has no motivational value as the person perceives the situation to be fair. However, Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:93) explain that if workers view their inputs and outcomes as not being equal to that of another worker, feelings of inequity and disaffection set in. The imbalance of the situation creates tension in the individual. Because individuals perceive the situation as unfair, they are motivated to behave in a manner that will restore the desired equity.

Robbins (2000:418) mentions four referent comparisons used by employees in the equity theory:

- Self-inside: This refers to workers' experience in a position different from the one that they are presently holding inside their current organisation.
- Self-outside: A comparison is made between workers' experiences in a situation or position outside their present organisation.
- Other-inside: A comparison is made between one group of employees and another or a group of individuals inside their current organisation.
- Other-outside: A comparison between one group of employees and another or a group of individuals outside their present organisation.

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:333), and Daft and Noe (2001:193) explain inputs as referring to anything that the person invests in a given task such as experience, effort, skills, education, seniority, loyalty and commitment, time and money and job performance. Outcomes are anything that the employee regards as yield from work. Outcomes may be positive or negative. Positive outcomes include a salary increase, praise, recognition, intrinsic job satisfaction, satisfactory supervision, promotion and status. Negative outcomes include absence or lack of security, monotony, unsatisfactory working conditions and other hygiene factors. The equity model can be expressed by the equation illustrated below:

Figure 2.9: The equity model

Perception of own inputs	**=**	**Perception of others' inputs**
Perception of own outcomes		Perception of others' outcomes

Source: Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:333)

If the portrayed equality is not evident, either because the left-hand ratio is bigger or smaller than the right-hand ratio, a situation of inequity develops and the individual perceives the whole situation as being unfair. Consequently, employees will be motivated to restore the imbalance by either one or more of the following (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:333; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:243):

- Withdrawing from the situation (for example, by resigning from the organisation).

- Changing their actual inputs by reducing or increasing them as the situation demands.

- Changing their own outcomes if the outcomes – input ratio is perceived as lower than that of a comparable employee.

- Distorting the perception of their or others' inputs and/or outcomes subjectively by allocating changed weights to both inputs and outcomes.

- Behaving in a particular manner that tends to influence others to change their inputs and/or outcomes.

- Changing the object of their comparison by selecting a different employee for a comparison purpose.

(vi) Bersheid and Walter's equity theory

Tice (in Bohloko,1999:31) states that the equity theory of Bersheid and Walter posits that human beings are self-interested and purposely abide by societal rules to get what they want. According to this theory, individuals perceive themselves and others in terms of a balance or equity-type relationship. Individuals will seek ways and means to restore equity as soon as they perceive an imbalance. In the workplace, employees' feelings about their jobs are affected by existing relationships and job situations.

Tarrant (1991:32) argues that rewards may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Educators are largely motivated by intrinsic rewards of having successfully imparted knowledge and skills to their learners. They nevertheless, complain about work conditions that interfere and hinder them from achieving these intrinsic rewards. Tarrant's (1991:32) study with resource educators in Quebec included other intrinsic motivators such as working with interesting colleagues in a supportive environment within the school and a strong sense of ownership in the improvement of special education. The results of Tarrant's study also indicate that extrinsic motivators such as a good pay have a motivational force that is not ever lasting.

Equity theories have important educational implications as they attempt to explain employee attitudes and behaviours (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:243). The principle of organisational justice reflects the degree to which employees perceive that they are treated fairly at work. One of the components of this principle is known as distributive justice, which reflects the perceived fairness of how resources and rewards are distributed or allocated (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:243; Daft & Noe, 2001:195). Daft and Noe (2001:195) point out that, distributive justice influences the level of satisfaction that individuals have with the outcomes that they receive. Therefore, school principals are likely to compare how the education department distributes resources and rewards among comparable schools. Any perceived unfairness in the allocation of these resources invariably impact on their level of satisfaction. Similarly, educators are inclined to compare themselves with their colleagues in terms of their skills, experience, qualifications, workload, salaries and the quality of performance. Any form of inequity perceived by educators to be prevalent in the school situation invariably leads to discontent.

Nevertheless, critics of the equity theory (Smither, 1997:214) maintain that sometimes it is not easy to assess the usefulness of the theory in determining employee motivation as most of the research on the theory took place in laboratories and not in real-life work settings. They also argue that as a cognitive approach, the theory considers behaviour to be the result of individual perceptions. Therefore, in a work setting it could be difficult for managers and supervisors to accurately diagnose or predict employees' perceptions of events. This implies that managers cannot be relied upon to know whether an employee perceives a situation to be equitable or inequitable. Consequently, under such circumstances managers may not be able to use the equity theory to improve employee performance (Smither, 1997:216).

(vii)   Locke's goal-setting theory

Swanepoel *et al*. (2003:331), Haslam (2004:65) and Robbins (2000:416) argue that the goal setting theory postulates that all factors being constant, people will be motivated to perform better if they are aiming at a specific goal than when they are expected to perform without a clear and definite objective in mind. Therefore, the basic premise of the theory is that clear and definite goals act as powerful motivators for they inform the person about what needs to be done and what amount of effort will be required to achieve the goal. Sorge (2002:373) and Bowditch and Buono (1997:97) explain that goal–setting influences task behaviour through directing attention and

action, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence and facilitating the development of strategies to achieve the goal.

Slocum and Hellriegel (2011:195) suggest that there are two key characteristics of goals which are notably important for individual goal-setting:

- Goal difficulty: Goals should be reasonably challenging. Goals that are easily attainable do not have any motivational potential. On the other hand individuals will not be motivated to attain a goal that they perceive to be unrealistically difficult.

- Goal clarity: As already indicated, clear and definite goals operate as powerful motivators as they inform individuals clearly about what they are expected to accomplish so that they do not have to engage in guesswork. Slocum and Hellriegel (2011:195) argue that clear and challenging goals enable employees to focus their efforts on job related tasks and to aim at performing optimally in order to achieve the desired goal. Another additional factor that influences the creation of a challenging goal is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to individuals' belief that they can perform at a certain level in a given situation. Typically, individuals who set high goals for themselves have more confidence in themselves than those who set lower goals for themselves.

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:331) are of the opinion that people will perform significantly better if they are provided with ongoing feedback on how well they are progressing. This view is supported by Law and Glover (2000:63) in stating that in goal-theory, feedback is perceived as essential if motivation is to be maintained. Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:331) are of the opinion that feedback is important because it enlightens employees about gaps between what they have achieved thus far and what they wish to achieve. Goal commitment can be substantially increased if goals are not imposed on an individual but rather self-set and if the person involved has an internal locus of control. Educationally, the theory implies that educational leaders should set realistic, challenging and clear goals for their schools. Law and Glover (2000:63-64) maintain that the goal-setting theory is potentially valuable in educational environments where collegiality and teamwork are effectively practiced and where focus is on active participation rather than on coercion. Therefore, it seems important for educational departments to encourage principals to participate and contribute in the formulation of goals affecting their schools. The clarity of departmental goals is always crucial to serving principals.

2.3.2.4 Reinforcement theories of motivation

(i)   Hull's positive reinforcement theory

There is a very strong similarity between the basis of Hull's positive reinforcement theory and that of Adam's equity theory. Hull proposes that successes in attaining goals act as positive rewards and reinforce the successful behaviour which is repeated the next time a similar need emerges (Armstrong, 1999:107). Therefore, the underlying assumption of the reinforcement theory is that consequences shape subsequent behaviour (Bowditch & Buono, 1997:100). In other words, human behaviour can be explained in terms of consequences. For example, if an employee receives a reward for displaying a particular behaviour, the likelihood exists that the behaviour will be repeated. However, when the behaviour is not rewarded or if it is punished, the probability that the behaviour will be repeated is lessened. In this case, the behaviour is extinguished (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003: 336; Robbins, 2000:417).

Hull's theory posits that there are three basic principles of application obtained from the reinforcement theory:

- Rewards should be closely linked to behaviour.
- Rewards administration should be regular and consistent, and
- People are motivated by outcomes.

Armstrong (1999:107) and Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:155) maintain that the fundamental principle of motivation is that people behave in the way they do because they hope for something known as "positive reinforcement" – that is praise or recognition that signifies that they are not only doing the right thing, but doing it perfectly well. Therefore, the reinforcement theory relies heavily on the law of effect, which states that a person tends to repeat behaviour that is followed by favorable outcomes (reinforcement) and tends not to repeat behaviour that is accompanied by unfavourable consequences (Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002:155).

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:155), caution that effective praise calls for specific comments and not merely general remarks. Additionally, praise should follow the event sooner than later and it should be done purposefully. Therefore, directors of education can motivate and enhance

principals' job satisfaction by rewarding their schools for good performance and frequently giving praise and recognition when the school does a good job.

Quick and Nelson (2009:187) state that any event consequent to a behaviour that reduces the likelihood that behaviour will be repeated (for example, a verbal reprimand) is called a punisher. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:156) and Jones and George (2003:422) argue that negative reinforcement may also be used to encourage acceptable behaviour. They maintain that punishment is actually aimed at decreasing or eliminating undesirable conduct. Swanepoel *et al.* (1998:336) highlights the importance of distinguishing between withholding rewards for behaviour displayed and actually punishing the behaviour. Although the two relate to negative types of reinforcement, they however, have different behavioural implications. For example, suspension of bonuses can be seen as related to withholding the reinforcement, whereas reprimanding and warning an employee for improper behaviour could also be regarded as an example of punishment.

Robbins (2001:168) points out that the reinforcement theory posits that work behaviours are learned. It ignores the inner state of the person and solely concentrates on the consequences of a person's actions. Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2004:276) support this contention in stating that the reinforcement model tends to oversimplify behaviour by not recognizing individual characteristics, like needs and values. Spector (2012:193) also maintains that the reinforcement of performance may also be regarded as bribery that is employed to manipulate employees to adapt to the manager's perspective of the ideal employee. Furthermore, Robbins (2000:417) is of the opinion that, strictly speaking, the reinforcement theory is not a theory of motivation for it fails to account for what initiates behaviour. He contends, however, that since the theory provides a powerful means of analysis of what controls human conduct, it will always feature in motivation-related discussions. Additionally Robbins (2001:177) suggests that the main weakness in the reinforcement theory lies in the fact that it does not inform employers much about employees' job satisfaction or their decision to quit the organisation. It is, however, good in predicting factors such as quantity and quality of work, absenteeism, tardiness, persistence of effort and accident rates (Robbins, 2001:177).

2.3.3   Synthesizing motivational theory and job satisfaction indicators

Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967:v) explain that the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed as part of the Work Adjustment Project, by the University of Minnesota. It is a standardized instrument used worldwide in surveying job satisfaction among various occupational groups, including educators (Sashkin, 1996:8). The questionnaire is highly respected for its validity, reliability, content, language level and norm availability (Feldman & Arnold, 1983:213-214). Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis and Lofqquist (1971) developed a 20-need Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) to parallel the MSQ. The MIQ uses the same 20 work aspects used by MSQ to predict the job satisfaction of individuals. In this study, an adapted form of the MIQ has been used to measure the job satisfaction of respondents (see section 4.3.2.1 for further details). Like the MSQ, the MIQ is also highly regarded for its reliability and validity.

The long form of the MSQ uses 100 questions to identify 20 job satisfaction indicators in clusters of five questions per indicator. Weiss *et al.* (1967:1-2) indicate that the 20 indicators of job satisfaction used by the questionnaire are the following:

1.   **Ability utilization:** The chance to do something that makes use of one's abilities.
2.   **Achievement:** The feeling of accomplishment one gets from the job.
3.   **Activity:** Being able to keep busy all the time.
4.   **Advancement:** The chance for advancement in this job
5.   **Authority:** The chance to tell other people what to do.
6.   **Colleagues:** The way one's co-workers get along with each other.
7.   **Compensation:** A person's pay and the amount of work he/she does.
8.   **Creativity:** The chance to try one's own methods of doing the job.
9.   **Departmental policies and practices:** The way departmental policies are put into practice.
10. **Independence:** The chance to work alone on the job.
11. **Moral values:** Being able to do things that don't go against one's conscience.
12. **Recognition:** The praise one gets for doing a good job.
13. **Responsibility:** The freedom to use one's own judgment.
14. **Security:** The way one's job provides for steady employment.
15. **Social status:** The chance to do things for other people.
16. **Social status:** The chance to be "somebody" in the community.

17.   **Supervision-human relations.** The way one's supervisor handles his/her staff.

18.   **Supervision – technical:** The competence of one's supervisor in making decisions.

19.   **Variety:** The chance to do different things from time to time.

20.   **Working conditions:** The physical working conditions.

These indicators of job satisfaction are discussed in Chapter 4, and are used to determine job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State. If the indicators above are related to the factors that influence job satisfaction or dissatisfaction as discussed in each of the foregoing motivational theories, the results can be summarized as indicated in Figure 2.10.

Figure 2.10: Job Satisfaction indicators and the theories of motivation

Job Satisfaction Indicators	Maslow	Herzberg	McGregor	McClelland	Gergen	Vroom	Porter	Worlf	Adams	Bershied & Walster	Locke	Hull
Utilization	X					X	X	X	X			
Achievement	X	X		X	X			X			X	
Activity	X	X			X	X	X	X				
Advancement	X	X		X				X		X		
Authority			X	X								
Colleagues	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X		
Compensation	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Creativity	X							X				
Institutional Policies and Practices												X
Independence	X											
Moral values				X								
Recognition	X	X			X			X			X	
Responsibility	X	X	X					X				
Security	X	X							X			
Social Status		X			X				X			
Supervision: Interpersonal Relationships		X	X									
Supervision: Technical		X	X						X		X	
Variety												
Working Conditions	X	X							X			

From Figure 2.10, it is evident that Maslow and Herzberg's theories form the basis of the questionnaire. The factors of the other theories, however, also correlate with the indicators of job satisfaction in the questionnaire. Therefore, these indicators can be used as predictors of job satisfaction in an organization such as a school.

2.4   MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

2.4.1   Managerial implications of the theories of motivation

Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:340) asserts that all managerial approaches based on one set of assumptions about the nature of man are not appropriate for all employees at all times under all circumstances. This assertion is very important as it highlights the fact that there is no single theory of motivation that can adequately account for all human behaviour at all times and in all situations. Stewart and Brown (2009:416) suggest that it is advisable for managers to borrow only the best from each theory of motivation. Additionally, leaders should only borrow aspects of motivational theory that can be applied in practical life.

For example, Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:327) argue that possibly the most important practical worth of Maslow's theory lies in the fact that it stresses the reality that individuals have different needs and are, therefore, motivated by different factors. It also highlights the fact that a powerful motivator for a person at one time may not be effective at another time. It is, therefore, important for educational leaders such as school management developers to ensure that school principals are motivated. Everard, Morris and Wilson (2004:35) caution that there is a tendency for some educational leaders to mistakenly assume that other employees' needs are the same as their own. This tendency contributes towards the misjudgment of others' needs. It is, therefore, crucial for school management developers and other educational leaders to identify the needs of individual principals in their schools, reconcile these needs with departmental goals, and motivate the relevant principals accordingly. Everard, Morris and Wilson (2004:25) propose that in a hierarchical organisation like a school, it is normal to assume that motivation should mainly be directed to educators (subordinates). However, it is very crucial to be able to motivate equals and superiors such as principals.

Lawler and Porter, and Gunn and Holdaway (in Mercer 1993:158) highlight the importance of motivating principals when they suggest that there exists a positive relationship between job satisfaction and both school effectiveness and leadership effectiveness. Specifically, Lawler, like Maslow and Alderfer, suggest a hierarchy of needs, which includes existence needs, security needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, a need for autonomy and a need for competence. Mercer's research findings (1993:158) in investigating the satisfaction of the head-teacher in Northern

England, reveals that principals derive job satisfaction when their needs for esteem, autonomy and self-actualization are satisfied. Conversely, they experience job dissatisfaction when they, inter alia, are confronted with problems over which they have no control or when they have to keep pace with the moving goalposts of government legislation.

Stewart and Brown (2009:120), and Owens (1995:61) maintain that performance is intimately related to meaningful satisfaction of higher-order needs such as esteem, autonomy and self-fulfillment. Therefore, it is important for educational leaders to enhance principals' job satisfaction by ensuring that they provide opportunities for gratification of the latter's higher-order needs. By giving principals more responsibility such as granting their schools Section 21 statuses – and thus allowing them to have more control over financial aspects in their work situation, educational leaders will be providing an opportunity for principals to attain more autonomy. Daft and Noe (2001:170) explain that Herzberg's two-factor theory clearly implies that managers should provide hygiene or maintenance factors in order to remove or lessen employee dissatisfaction. However, they should keep in mind that the provision of these maintenance factors does not inspire employees to high achievement. Promotion of high employee satisfaction and performance can only be realized when managers employ effective motivators such as recognition and praise for work well done, challenging tasks, increasing responsibility and opportunities for personal growth. Accordingly, a manager's task is to meet employees' basic needs by providing adequate hygiene factors and then using motivators to gratify workers' higher order needs. In such an organizational environment, employees' job satisfaction is likely to be enhanced.

Mercer (1993:159) found that principals in Northern England derived job satisfaction from achieving a task or attaining specific standards of competence. These findings are in full support of Herzberg's two-factor theory. Mercer (1993:160) suggests that the ever-moving goalposts of government legislation, implies that there is a serious need for the development of teams within the school. Furthermore, principals should also ease their burden by effectively working in partnership with their school governing bodies.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:85) assert that the top five satisfiers of work performance involve doing the job and moving upward as a sign of professional growth. Similarly, Armstrong (in Law & Glover 2000:64) maintains that motivating employees through the work itself has, as its basis,

the notion that giving employees fulfilling work will increase their level of job satisfaction, and, ultimately improving their performance.

Owens (1995:56) explains that a significant idea in Herzberg's two-factor theory is that employees are inclined to perceive job satisfaction as involving intrinsic factors such as success, challenging work, achievement and recognition, while they tend to regard dissatisfaction as deriving from extrinsic factors such as salary, supervision, and working conditions. Herzberg, therefore, suggests that managers may increase the employees' job satisfaction by enriching their jobs through making the job more interesting, more challenging and more rewarding. Managers should increase autonomy on the job by ensuring more employee participation in decision-making processes relating to how the work should be done. Additionally, managers should expand personnel administration by ensuring that personnel administration mainly focuses on increasing motivational factors present in the job, instead of only concentrating on hygiene factors. Owens (1995:58) concludes that while Herzberg's two-factor theory has attracted severe critism from some researchers, it remains a powerful explanation of motivation in the workplace.

Haslam (2004:62) and Robbins (2000:414) maintain that McGregor's X theory assumes that individuals are mainly dominated by lower-order needs, whereas his Y theory assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. McGregor noted that many managers in the business sector were prone to base their treatment of employees in a manner that seemed to agree with theory Y. However, because McGregor believed that theory Y assumptions were more valid, he recommended such principles as participative decision-making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good interpersonal relations as approaches that would enhance the employees' job motivation. Applied to school principals, McGregor's theory implies that their level of job satisfaction can be immensely enhanced if they are provided with opportunities to participate in decision-making processes that affect their schools. Impositions by the Department of Basic Education on issues such as language use and preference in schools, only serve to create tensions between the school and the department.

Robbins (2000:416) maintains that McClelland's needs for affiliation and power seem to be closely connected to managerial success. Effective managers have a high need for power and a low need for affiliation. However, the need for power is aimed at ensuring the realization of

organisational goals through guiding and working with others. It differs from personalized power, which is directed at satisfying the need to dominate others. Similarly, Davies and Ellison (1997:47) suggest that competencies of educational leaders with a strong need for power are influenced by their natural tendencies to look for chances to lead, to influence others to obtain leader roles, to willingly assist others towards realization of organisational goals, to get involved in organisational activities and to seek and use information to influence events. This implies that school principals experience job satisfaction when they experience a sense of being in full control in their work place. Farkas (1984:4) found that principals in the United States of America were frustrated by "situational powerlessness such as decision-making latitude and ambiguous role authority".

For Daft and Noe (2001:198), Vroom's theory implies that managers should clearly explain to employees the expected outcomes from their new assigned tasks. Employees should be able to see a relationship between their efforts and the rewards these efforts yield. Furthermore, rewards should be aimed at satisfying employees' needs. Du Toit (in Kroon, 1996:337) claims that expectancy theories imply that managers should determine incentives that are important for each subordinate. They should also determine the performance desired and link rewards to performance. This can be achieved by tying outcomes more directly to performance through the use of incentive plans, merit awards or merit-based promotions. Factors that may work against the effectiveness of the rewards should be identified and eliminated as far as possible. Furthermore, managers should ensure that the rewards meet the needs of employees.

Van Dyk (1998:270-271) argues that an employees' expectancy of reaching a first-level outcome such as high productivity is influenced by variables such as the employee's self-esteem and self-image, and communication. Managers can improve these variables by introducing training or by redesigning tasks in order to modify the employee's expectancy. Mercer (1993:160) argues that school principals experience frustration and dissatisfaction if they perceive themselves as being unable to complete tasks assigned to them. They experience a feeling of inefficacy in the sense that they feel that they have no control over important aspects of their working life. A sense of inefficacy may negatively affect a person's self-concept. Consequently, Brazelle (2001:3) urges educators (principals included) to come to the realization that the most critical and decisive perceptions that are instrumental in their success or failure are the perception that they have of

themselves. It seems reasonable to argue that principals can significantly reduce their workloads by increasing teamwork in their schools and effectively empowering their subordinates.

Robbins (2000:415) asserts that the importance of Adam's equity theory lies in that it enlightens managers of the fact that workers prefer salary systems and promotion policies that they regard as being just, unambiguous, and in agreement with their expectations. Pay or rewards that are perceived as fair are likely to lead to more job satisfaction and motivation. In concurring with Robbins, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:244) caution that even though management may think that the organization policies, procedures and reward system are fair, each employee's perception of the equity of those factors is what really matters. It is, therefore, important for managers to explain to employees the rationale behind all decisions taken by management. Furthermore, employees should be allowed to actively participate in decision-making processes. They should be given the opportunity to appeal decisions that affect their well-being as this will enhance their belief that they are being fairly treated. In turn, employees' perception of fair treatment will foster job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:245) opine that organisational changes that are perceived to be fairly implemented and yielding equitable outcomes are likely to be accepted and supported by employees. Furthermore, managers can enhance cooperation and teamwork among group members by treating them equitably and, therefore, ensuring incremental performance and job satisfaction. Finally, managers should pay more attention to the organisation's climate for justice because research has shown that this factor significantly contributes towards an employee's job satisfaction. Furthermore, researchers believe that a climate for justice can significantly affect the type of customer service provided by the employees. From the above, it is clear that the equity theory contains some important implications for educational management. For example, the criteria used to accord schools with Section 21 status should and are in most cases clearly explained and communicated to all schools. Principals are likely to experience dissatisfaction if they perceive the Education Department's policies, procedures and reward systems to be unfair and inequitable. In addition, the importance of involving principals in decision-making processes affecting their schools cannot be overemphasized.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:95-96) indicate the importance of Locke's goal-setting theory in practical terms. According to them the evaluation of educators by principals and their school management teams should focus on setting clearly defined goals, and on explaining and describing specific procedures to be followed in ensuring successful attainment of those goals. They argue that clearly defined goals inspire educators to appreciate the importance of educator evaluation. Educational managers should give regular feedback to staff on how well they are progressing towards school goals. The current evaluation instrument tool of the Department of Basic Education, that is, the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) for school-based educators largely supports Locke's goal-setting theory. In the IQMS document (2003:1) goals are clearly defined, procedures to be followed are thoroughly explained and feedback is essential. Educators (including principals) are evaluated on all performance standards that are applicable to their post levels.

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:95) suggest that success is more often than not the outcome of carefully planned goals. This supports the contention that goal-setting motivates or encourages principals and educators to put more effort in their work, to persist against difficulties and to follow a direction that will lead to the realization of school goals. Goal-setting encourages educators to strive to attain unique goals that are specific to their classroom situations. These researchers also observe that one of Herzberg's high motivator (achievement) is related to goal-setting. In this respect, they contend that goal-setting and the pursuit of goals indicate an achievement orientation in that successful achievement of a person's goals is rewarded by a strong feeling of achievement. Both educators and principals are always pleased by the knowledge that they have achieved or significantly progressed towards their educational goals at the end of the year. Therefore, achievement and goal-setting act as motivators of high performance. Educational managers should, therefore, set clear, realistic and attainable goals if they wish to effectively motivate educators towards performing optimally in their work. Swanepoel *et al.* (2003:338) advise that leaders should attempt to ascertain the personal goals of subordinates and to link them to organisational rewards.

Robbins (2000:147) avers that there could be no doubt that reinforcement is an important factor in behaviour. For example, continuous praise and recognition of an employee for good performance is likely to lead to incremental performance by the employee. Van Deventer and Kruger

(2003:153) warn that, in education, repeated use of negative reinforcement by educational leaders to motivate staff is unacceptable. Therefore, an exclusive use of an autocratic style of management in which huge demands are made on staff to perform optimally without due consideration of the employee's work satisfaction, personal worth, recognition and appreciation, should be strongly discouraged. From the above, it is clear that principals are likely to experience job dissatisfaction and distress if they are continually bombarded by threats written warnings and public verbal abuse for wrong-doing by their superordinates.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (in Mosikidi 2003:39) express the concern that need-oriented theories should not be interpreted literally. Furthermore, these theories should not be used excessively. The problem inherent in the overuse of these theories is that they could be turned into a bartering system where one goal is exchanged for another. For example, principals will manage effectively only if their efforts are rewarded by being given recognition. Principals should take cognizance of the fact that when they do their utmost to ensure that their schools become centres of excellence, they are merely doing what is expected of them as leaders.

In conclusion, it is possible to concur with Swanepoel *et al.* (2003: 340) that it is important for managers to have adequate knowledge of the various theoretical viewpoints involving employee motivation. It is advisable for managers to use the eclectic approach, and select the theories according to their utility in specified work situations. Educational leaders should not, therefore, consider a single motivation theory to be the most or least effective.

2.4.2   Managerial implications of reward systems and administration

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:283) suggest that organisational rewards include, but go far beyond monetary compensation. Besides monetary compensation, there exist other types of rewards such as social rewards that include praise and recognition from others and psychic rewards deriving from personal feelings of self-esteem, self-satisfaction and accomplishment. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:169) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:284) add that a distinction can be made between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. They explain that intrinsic rewards refer to psychic rewards that are related of a feeling of competence, achievement and prestige. Extrinsic rewards refer to any financial, material and social rewards such as merit awards, extra payment and public recognition. Accordingly, an intrinsically motivated employee typically enjoys satisfaction from

the task itself or experiences a sense of competence or self-realization, while an extrinsically motivated one works for the attainment of some specific outcomes such as money or praise. This means that intrinsic rewards are self-granted while extrinsic rewards come from the environment.

Johns (1996:144), Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:287) and Jones and George (2003:428) maintain that a good rewards system attract employees to the business and satisfy them once they have joined the organisation. A good rewards system also encourages personal growth and development and motivates employees to remain with an organization. Furthermore, the organisational rewards system should motivate employees towards increased productivity and the attainment of the organization's goals.

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:169) contend that the measure and strength of a reward is determined by the degree to which it results in personal joy, satisfaction or fulfillment. For this reason, McKenna and Beech (1995:147) argue that there exists a relationship between motivation and rewards since rewards are awarded to motivate employees to commit themselves to perform optimally in the workplace. Therefore, a thorough understanding of theories of motivation by those who design reward systems is crucial as these theories tend to delve into psychological explanations of what really stimulates people in formal organisations. Thiery (in McKenna & Beech, 1995:147) suggests that pay has both psychological and social importance because it conveys a lot of messages to the workers apart from its status as the most desired material reward. He proposes that pay performs the following roles:

- It satisfies personal needs by providing an escape from insecurity, creating a feeling of competence, and opening up opportunities for self-fulfillment.
- It provides feedback on how well one is doing and acts as an indicator of that person's relative position in the organisation.
- It is a reward for success in controlling others where the individual has a supervisory or managerial position.
- It conveys a capital to spend in that pay reflects one's purchasing power in the customer market.

Jones and George (2003:428) assert that most of the theories of motivation indicate the importance of pay and propose that pay should be contingent to performance. For example:

1.   Need theories: employees should be able to gratify their needs by ensuring that they perform at a high level. Pay can be used to satisfy several different types of needs.

2.   Equity theory: outcomes such as pay should be distributed in proportion to inputs (including performance levels).

3.   Goal – setting theory: outcomes such as pay should be tied to the achievement of goals.

4.   Learning theories: the allocation of outcomes such as pay should be based on the performance of organisationally operational behaviours.

5.   Expectancy theory: instrumentality, the connection between performance and outcomes such as pay must be high for motivation to increase. Furthermore, pay is an outcome that has a high valence for people.

Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson (2001:51) emphasize the symbolic nature of money in saying that it is what money can buy, not money itself that gives it value. Therefore, as a symbol, money can mean whatever an employee wants it to mean. This means that money can simultaneously satisfy many needs. It also implies that while people may say that they do not value monetary rewards *per se*, they still need things that can be bought with money.

Luthans (1998:231) states that the challenge for management is to understand that in any organization, problems that are related to quality, cost and productivity actually mean that the behaviours that lead to those unwanted outcomes are being reinforced. It is, therefore, the responsibility of management to see to it that undesirable conduct is eliminated while desirable behaviour is adequately rewarded. Luthans (1998:233) believes that money can be used effectively in the organisational reward system if the reward is as objective and fair as possible.

Greenberg and Baron (1995:132) and Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:170) highlight the reality that, in addition to monetary rewards in the form of pay and awards, some organisations offer financial assistance to employees by sending their children to colleges or universities. Therefore, a provision is made for the employees' need for financial security, which is a key aspect of job security. In other organisations, employees' social needs are satisfied by celebrating a day at work with their families or including social activities in their cultures.

Engelking and Kibe (in Steyn & Van Niekerk 2002:169-170) suggest that the following rewards can be provided in the education system:

Types of reward

Compensation plans: Compensation plans (extrinsic). They include merit awards, bonuses and various adjustments to the salary structure.

Career opportunities: Career opportunities (extrinsic). They include professional ladders and promotion possibilities in the teaching profession.

Increased professional responsibility: (extrinsic and intrinsic). They include mentoring and other strategies of making the tasks interesting for employees by extending their responsibility.

Non monetary recognition: Non monetary recognition (extrinsic). Awards (educators – of – the – month) vouchers, tours and other ways of recognizing good work).

Improvement of working condition: Improvement of working conditions (extrinsic). The improvement of social and physical working conditions for employees can be inviting and can lead to their perceiving and experiencing the work situation as more professional and more attractive.

From the above, it is clear that managers should pay due attention to what their employees perceive as a meaningful reward. Organisational rewards should then be linked to performance and be tailored to satisfy the needs of employees. Rue and Byars (1994:319) argue that if performance guarantees a reward, employees will be motivated to perform to the best of their abilities and will derive satisfaction from performing the rewarding duties. Additionally, Rue and Byars (1994:321) state that besides the direct impact of extrinsic rewards, they can also influence intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction. For instance, an increase of 10% across the board does not generate any feeling of fulfillment. But a pay raise linked to performance tends to generate a feeling of fulfillment and satisfaction.

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the current integrated quality management system instrument used by the Department of Basic Education to evaluate educator performance also assesses individual educators for "salary progression, grade progression, affirmation of appointments and rewards and incentives"(Department of Education, 2003:1). Thus the Department's rewards system clearly links rewards to performance.

2.5   OTHER FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE JOB SATISFACTION

There are many other factors which influence job satisfaction. Organisational and individual needs vary and, therefore, to avoid generalization and concentration on any one factor that influences job satisfaction, as Mumford (1991:12) cautions, other factors will be discussed under the following sub-headings:

- Leadership
- Role tensions
- Locus of control

2.5.1   Leadership

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:100), Kroon (1996:355) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:551) define leadership as the process of influencing, motivating and supporting others to voluntarily and enthusiastically work towards organizational goals. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:551) argue that leadership means more than wielding power and exercising authority and is functional at different levels. At the individual level, leadership includes monitoring, coaching, inspiring and motivating others. At the group level, it involves building effective teams, creating cohesion, and resolving conflicts arising from group members' interactions. Lastly, leaders develop culture and create change and innovation at the organisational level. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012:100) insist that the most significant elements in the definition of leadership are influence or support, voluntary effort and goal achievement.

Owens (1995:122) contends that leadership is neither something that an individual does to other people, nor is it a way of conducting oneself towards others. He understands and regards leadership as working with and through other people to achieve goals. His view (1995:134) is that true educational leaders are able to create and communicate a vision that inspires and motivates followers. This vision can be attained through the empowerment of followers which involves furnishing information about the organisation, giving authority to participate freely in decision-making processes, recognizing the right of employees as stakeholders in the organisation, and creating a milieu that encourages the development of trust and open communication channels that are fundamental to collaborative group effort.

Owens (1995:135) explains that the problem with bureaucratic organizations is that people in authority are prone to direct others and make decisions for others to implement. This state of affairs has the potential to lead to workers' dissatisfaction. Therefore, Owens (1995:135) advocates for a pragmatic view of leadership that entails recognition of and acceptance of the perception that, in an organisation like a school, subordinates form essentially valuable resources that are rich in ideas, knowledge creativity and high levels of untapped human energy. These resources are useful and available to the organisation in the pursuit of educational goals and objectives that educators and principals accept as their own. The pragmatic view of leadership also recognizes the relative ineffectiveness of autocratic forms of leadership that are basically coercive. In contrast, it advocates for organisational environments that are motivating, caring, exclusionary and effectively empowering employees. It is believed that employee empowerment can enhance performance and increase employee job satisfaction. In full agreement with the pragmatic view of leadership, Greenleaf, (in McEwan, 2003:60) expresses the opinion that the secret of organisational building is to be able to weld a team of differently able people by "lifting them up to grow taller than they would otherwise be".

Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis (2005:247) suggest that when leadership skills and responsibilities are shared throughout an organisation through empowerment, an emphasis is laid upon the processes of leadership and not upon the attributes or style of a unique individual or set of individuals. Therefore dispersed, or shared leadership theories basically take leadership away from an individual person. The implication is that leadership is something that many people can do, and actually do, and is, therefore, not a reliable foundation upon which to differentiate people at work. This view of leadership is based on a post-modern notion of leadership, which regards leaders as servants who serve people. Therefore, emphasis is placed on the individual's contribution to the organisation and not on a position that one holds within the organisation. Using Boje and Dennehey's (1999) approach, Clegg *et al.* (2005:247) explain how each letter in the word, **servant**, is attached a special importance to highlight the post-modern approach of leadership.

- S is for servant: The leader is viewed as the organisational servant who serves people and the people in turn serve clients. The emphasis is on the leader not striving to be different from followers. Therefore, the leader articulates the servant's notion of what the leader should be.
- E is for empowers: The leader empowers participation in social and economic democracy.

- R is for recounter of stories: The leader narrates stories about the institution's history, heroes, and future.

- V represents being visionary: Visionary leaders should articulate a clear notion and intent of what it is that followers are committed to and believe in.

- A is for being androgynous: Androgyny means no gender discrimination; leaders must be able to refrain from discriminating on the basis of gender. They must be able to speak in both male and female voices.

- N is for net worker: The leader must manage the transformation and configuration of the diverse network of teams spanning from suppliers to clients.

- T is for team builder: The leader mobilizes, leads, and dispatches a web of autonomous teams.

However, Clegg *et al.* (2005:248) conclude that one can draw parallels between the post-modern view of leadership and the well-known types of leadership such as transformational, transactional, and charismatic leadership. Still, post-modern views of leadership seem to support the behavioural theories of leadership that propose that it is the conduct of the leader rather than specific personality traits that determine effectiveness. Finally, post-modern views of leadership may be viewed as an expanded form of the contingency theories of leadership that are founded on how leaders modify their behaviour to fit situations, especially the needs and attitudes of followers.

For Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:576), servant-leadership should be viewed as a philosophy of managing than a testable theory. In concurring with Clegg *et al.,* Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:567), state that Greenleaf believes that effective leaders act as servants, putting the needs of others including workers, clients and the community, as their top priority. Servant-leaders focus on increased service to others than to themselves. It is believed that leadership derives naturally from a commitment to service. Servant-leadership results in followers becoming wiser, healthier and more autonomous. Servant-leadership can, therefore, enhance employee job satisfaction. It is a long-term, transformational approach to life and work and not a quick-fix approach to leadership. House's path-goal theory of leadership is founded on the expectancy theory of motivation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:564; Martin, 2001:695). The path-goal theory of leadership focuses on how leaders influence the followers' expectations. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:564) maintain that

House's path-goal theory suggests that a leader's behaviour is acceptable when workers regard it as a source of satisfaction or as paving the way to future satisfaction. Furthermore, leader behaviour is perceived as motivational if it (1) reduces impediments that interfere with goal accomplishment, (2) provides the guidance and support needed by employees, and (3) link meaningful rewards to goal achievement. The model is called path-goal theory because it deals with pathways to goals and rewards. Therefore, House perceives the leader's main task as assisting employees to stay on the right paths in order to achieve challenging goals and valued rewards.

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:142) stress that the leadership style adopted by a leader can impact positively or negatively on effective goal attainment, performance, staff development and job satisfaction in an institution such as a school. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:564) and Martin (2001:695) indicate that House identifies the following four leadership styles that can be exhibited by leaders:

- Directive leadership: Where leaders provide guidance to employees about what should be done and how to do it, scheduling work, and maintaining performance standards. Luthans (1998:392) explains that the leader's directiveness correlates with satisfactions and expectations of subordinates engaged in ambiguous tasks. Conversely, directive leadership is negatively related to satisfactions and expectations of subordinates who are familiar with their task demands.

- Supportive leadership: It reflects a style that adopts a friendly, concerned approach to the needs and well-being of employees. The leader is friendly and approachable, and treats employees as equals. This type of leadership can effectively enhance satisfactions of subordinates who work in stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying tasks (Luthans, 1998:392).

- Participative leadership: This reflects a style in which the leader consults and seeks options and suggestions from employees before making a decision. Participative leadership is positively related to the satisfactions and expectations of employees engaged in non-repetitive, ego-involving tasks. It creates a participative environment, good for decision-making as it clarifies the paths and goals, allows employees to decide

on the goals they want, increases employees' control over what happens to them on the job and lets subordinates determine pressure toward high performance themselves. Therefore, this style perfectly fits employees such as principals who show a high preference for autonomy and self-control.

- Achievement-oriented leadership: It reflects a style in which the leader is task oriented and sets challenging goals for employees. The leader encourages and motivates employees to perform optimally by setting challenging goals, emphasizing excellence, and demonstrating confidence in employee abilities. This style provides satisfaction to employees with ambiguous and non-repetitive tasks. The achievement-oriented leader assures employees that efforts for effective performance will be rewarded.

Gunn and Holdaway (1985:5) found that the research results of their study of job satisfaction of Canadian secondary school principals revealed that educators and sources outside the school constituted a major source of dissatisfaction for school principals. This dissatisfaction was compounded by superordinates, school trustees, and the Department of Education officials and their policies. Their findings were supported by Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1990:31) in finding that principals' job dissatisfaction resulted from such factors as the quality of educators who served as their subordinates, the school system, the interests of parents and the pressure of special groups. For Mercer (1997:58), the findings of the above mentioned researchers actually highlight the perception that job satisfaction is mainly determined by the interaction between individuals and their working environment.

In another study, conducted on effective leadership in school facing challenging contexts in the United Kingdom, Harris (2002:17) found that principals of failing schools adopted leadership styles that were very directive and task-oriented in order to correct the unacceptable poor learner performance in their schools. However, this approach was not used in schools that demonstrated a steady improvement. Therefore, the evidence collected indicated that principals adopt leadership styles that match the particular stage of a school's development. In order to attain incremental school improvement, the relevant principals intentionally chose a form of leadership that would move the school forward by empowering educators and distributing leadership activity throughout the school.

Harris (2002:18) found that, though principals' responses to problems varied according to their circumstances, their value positions remained consistently one of empowering learners, educators and parents. Thus, the finding from the research study suggested that leadership in schools facing challenging circumstances (SFCC) is characterized by an individual value system that includes equity, empowerment and moral purpose. It reflected a democratic form of leadership and a dominant concern with giving others the responsibility to lead.

The principals shared a common vision and values with educators and were optimistic that people have untapped potential for growth and development. They respected and trusted their staff and, in turn, required this respect and trust from staff. In short, the relevant principals adopted an invitation stance towards learners, parents, educators and other stakeholders (Harris, 2002:18). Harris (2002:19) comments that the principals' ability to invite others to share and develop their vision was often raised by staff and learners alike. Their approach was one of empowerment through caring and through developing an organisational culture in which all learners were motivated to succeed. The principals distributed leadership through praise and involving others in decision-making processes and giving professional autonomy. In addition, the principals maintained staff morale and motivation by investing in staff development. They embarked on a consistent and vigorous promotion of staff development through in-service training, visits to other schools, and mentoring or peer support programmes. Staff development was aimed at satisfying both individual and organisational needs. Harris (2002:21) comments that the principals invested in continuous development of their staff for they regarded and valued their staff as their most important asset. Similar findings were echoed by Franey (2002:29-32) in his study of the challenge of leadership in a British Urban School. The challenge is always on being prepared to distribute leadership to others and becoming a life-long learner (Franey, 2002:29).

From the above discussion on leadership, it becomes evident that principals, as leaders in their schools, can improve their job satisfaction by empowering other educators and effectively involving them in decision-making processes on matters affecting their jobs. This implies putting in place effective communication channels that promote active participation of staff in school activities. It is only when educators are motivated and satisfied with their jobs that principals, as leaders, can expect to see their efforts bearing positive fruits that are likely to enhance their own

job satisfaction. The literature discussed in this chapter clearly indicates that it remains the principals' task to ensure that the quality of teaching and learning is continually improved in their schools.

2.5.2   Role tensions

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:386) define a role within an organisational context as a set of behaviours that people expect of occupants in a leadership position. Van Dyk (1998:327) add that a role should be carried out in accordance with set standards that improve organisational goal achievement. Law and Glover (2000:43) and Van Dyk (1998:327) stress that roles played by individuals in an organisation are dependent on two interacting factors:

- Situational factors: these include requirements of the task, leadership style, and status in the communication network.
- An individual's personal factors: included here are personal values, skills, attitudes, motivation, ability and personality.

Slocum and Hellriegel (2011:388) define role expectation as referring to the expectation that an individual has of the role behaviour of another. Educators, for example, expect a particular behaviour from principals, and principals, in turn, have expectations of behaviour for educators. Consequently, educators and principals have complementary role expectations.

Law and Glover (2000:43) believe that in any given organization, employees are prone to have certain role expectations of any new manager joining the organization. These role expectations may or may not correspond. Additionally, the group with which the manager works most closely - the role set - is inclined to have certain expectations about that principal's beliefs, attitudes and behaviours. If the differences in expectations are too great, they are likely to impact on those involved in a variety of ways and individuals may experience role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Law and Glover (2000:44) suggest that role ambiguity occurs when individuals perceive their role definition as being unclear due to insufficient information available regarding their role. Individuals become uncertain as to what is expected of them. Gerber *et al.* (1998:329) suggest that employees' own perceptions of their role may be at variance with the expectations of others and

this may lead to under-performance. Mullins (in Gerber *et al*. 1998:329) explains that role ambiguity may be the outcome of lack of formally prescribed expectations, especially during times of constant change. According to the role theory (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:388), protracted role ambiguity can promote job dissatisfaction, undermine self-confidence, and impede job performance. Sikhwivhilu (2003:12) identifies role ambiguity as one of the major factors that results in job dissatisfaction of principals. The researchers Wiesner, Vermeulen and Littler (1999: 391) explain that in South Africa, educator redeployment (including that of principals) leads to job insecurity due to the feeling and fear of not knowing what is likely to happen to one during the redeployment period. High school principals in failing schools have in the past been redeployed to intermediate and primary schools in the Free State.

People experience role conflict (Robbins, 2000:307) when compliance with one role requirement is not consistent with another. Consequently, role conflict results from people's job making conflicting demands on them, and this conflict invariably leads to frustration. Owens (1991:64) argues that many sources of role conflict may be identified, with all of them hindering optimum performance by the role-player. For example, many principals experience role conflict when they earnestly try to foster trust, confidence and high morale in the educator staff, and are then expected to participate in disciplinary procedures that seem to be in conflict with those goals.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:388) assert that role conflict may occur when internalized values, ethics or personal standards clash with others' expectations. Employees in managerial positions are usually confronted with situations where they have to make a choice between being loyal but unethical or ethical but disloyal. This often happens when managers, like schools principals, experience work overload because of important deadlines that have to be met. This results in personal turmoil, interpersonal conflict and quitting behaviour. It is, therefore, evident from the above discussion that role conflict negatively affects managers' job satisfaction.

In role overload the manager fails to meet the extent and diversity of the roles that are required (Law and Glover, 2000:44). Therefore, role overload is experienced when others' expectations exceed one' ability. As the individual attempts to do more and more within restricted time frames, stress escalates and personal effectiveness weakens (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:388). Gerber *et al.* (1998:329) point out that the expectations which internal and external customers have of a

position with too many roles are too high and intensive and can lead to burnout. Mercer (1993:159) contends that when principals are unable to get the job done, they experience a sense of inefficacy and job dissatisfaction in the form of personal and professional frustration. Conversely, the completion of assigned tasks leads to enhanced job satisfaction.

Unfortunately, role outcomes are characteristically experienced in some combination that is more often than not harmful to both the person and the organization. Poor job performance seems to occur when employees experience a combination of role conflict and role ambiguity.

Handy and Aitken (in Law & Glover, 2000:45) are of the opinion that in an organization such as a school, role ambiguity can be reduced significantly if roles are clearly defined, and there is a common and open agreement amongst stakeholders about what the roles entail. They suggest that role conflict can be lessened by reducing role clashes and that role overload can be minimized by an agreement among stakeholders to prioritise activities. In such a working environment, role issues will not impact negatively on the person's job satisfaction or organisational effectiveness.

2.5.3   Locus of control

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:150), Robbins (2000:368) and Luthans (1998:183) explain that people differ in terms of how much personal responsibility they accept for their conduct and its outcomes. These differences in behaviour can be explained by identifying an aspect of personality called locus of control. Locus of control refers to individuals' tendency to attribute causes of their conduct chiefly to either themselves or environmental factors. In a work situation, employees who believe that they control their destinies and outcomes that affect their lives are said to possess an internal locus of control and are labeled internals. In contrast, those who perceive their lives as being controlled by outside forces are said to possess an external locus of control and are called externals. A comparison between internals and externals has consistently indicated that the perceived locus of control has a differential impact on their performance and satisfaction.

Luthans (1998:183) and Robbins (2000:368) maintain that internally controlled employees are generally more satisfied with their jobs, perform well in their jobs and are more likely to hold managerial and professional positions that demand complex information processing and learning. Externals, on the other side of this personality dimension, are less satisfied with their jobs and are more suited to highly structured jobs requiring greater compliance.

Research studies have shown that internally controlled managers perform better than those who are externally controlled. Still, internally controlled employees tend to be more comfortable with a participatory management style than employees who perceive external control. In fact, externals are likely to be more alienated from the job setting and are less involved in their jobs than internals. There are also high incidents of sickness and absenteeism from work in externals than in internals. Internally controlled managers are more considerate of employees, are inclined not to experience burnout and are strategic in whatever actions they take (Robbins, 2000:368). Clegg *et al.* (2005:203-204) assert that internals have a higher level of achievement than their counterparts, they are much more independent, enjoy better mental health, and have superior coping strategies than externals. These differences between internals and externals are brought about by the fact that internals believe that they are masters of their own fate whereas externals view themselves as pawns of fate.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:151) explain that researchers have found the following important differences between internals and externals:

- Internals show greater work motivation.
- Internals have stronger expectations that effort leads to performance.
- Internals show higher performance on tasks involving learning or problem solving when performance leads to rewards.
- There is a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and performance for internals than for externals.
- Internals obtain higher salaries and greater salary increases than externals.
- Externals tend to suffer more anxiety than internals.

The above summary of research findings on locus of control has implications for managing employees at work. Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:151) suggest that managers should assign internals jobs or tasks that require high initiative and low compliance because internals typically believe that they control the work environment through their conduct. Therefore, they will likely attempt to control their work environment through influencing work procedures, working conditions, task assignments or relationships with colleagues and supervisors. This implies that internals are likely

to derive job satisfaction if they are given more autonomy and increasing responsibility. However, externals should be assigned highly structured jobs that require greater compliance and close supervision. Furthermore, because internals believe that their effort leads to performance, they are apt to improve their performance if the reward system is such that it links incentives such as merit pay or sales commission to performance.

Given that research has shown that most principals aspire for more autonomy and independence, it seems reasonable to conclude that most school principals are internals. Therefore, it seems that principals may derive more satisfaction from their jobs if they are given more autonomy. Self-managing schools serve as examples of how the Department of Education actually empowers schools to attain more autonomy. By rewarding schools that attain excellent Grade 12 final results, the department is indicating its commitment to linking incentives to good performance. However, these rewards should also cater for all schools and not for Further Education and Training schools only.

2.6 OTHER COMPARATIVE STUDIES

The literature on job satisfaction indicates that it would be impossible to draw up a list of all factors contributing towards job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. However, researchers in various countries have investigated the extent to which principals experience job satisfaction. For example, in the United Kingdom, Mercer (1993:158) lists the following factors that were found to influence job satisfaction or dissatisfaction among school principals:

Table 2.1: Positive features of headship

Job satisfaction

Organisational aspects	*Personal aspects*
• Problem solving	• Having responsibility
• Job variety	• Having a worthwhile job

• Working with the senior management team	• Recognition for the school
• Establishing structures for innovation	• Having an overview
• Working in partnership with governors, parents, the community, etc.	• Improving pupil prospects and sharing in the success of others
	• Obtaining loyalty from staff
	• Being the focal point of a wider community

Table 2.2: Negative features of headship

Job dissatisfaction

Organisational aspects	*Personal aspects*
• Having to deal with problems over which one has no control	• Day-to-day problems with develop plan
• Being constantly bombarded from all sides	• Too much work in a limited time
• The moving goalpost of government legislation	• Inability to move incompetent staff
• An inability to control the site, i.e. vandalism and trespass	• Having to compete with other schools and colleges
• Having to attend too many meetings	• Vandalism
• Lack of time to sit and talk to people	

Source: Adapted from Mercer (1993:158)

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has attempted to explain what job satisfaction means according to the views of various researchers who have investigated the topic. The various definitions presented by these researchers show why job satisfaction as a social construct is such a nebulous concept. The discussion has shown that there exists a clear and close relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation. That is, motivation of workers can lead to job satisfaction. Consequently, job satisfaction is to a large extent explained in terms of motivational theories. Furthermore, research has proved that employees holding managerial positions like school principals are apt to derive more job satisfaction if they enjoy more autonomy and involvement in matters affecting their schools. However, the ever-moving goalposts of government policies and work overload are the main sources of dissatisfaction.

In the next chapter, the relationship between job satisfaction and some factors influencing it will be considered. This relationship between job satisfaction and other organizational variables can either be positive or negative ranging from the weak to the strong. Therefore, it is the strength of these relationships that tends to contribute towards the overall job satisfaction of employees.

CHAPTER 3

THE CONSEQUENCES OF
JOB SATISFACTION OR DISSATISFACTION

3.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the relationship between job satisfaction and other organisational behaviours. Only a few of these behaviours will be considered as it is impossible to examine them all. According to Meyer and Botha (2000:262), the prevalent low levels of employee job satisfaction in most South African companies lead to low levels of commitment to performance and the realization of organisational goals. The symptoms of these problems manifest themselves in the form of low productivity levels, high absenteeism, labour unrest, industrial action and high labour turnover. It is therefore evident that the consequences of the relationship between job satisfaction/dissatisfaction and some organisational behaviour can impact positively or negatively on the overall effectiveness of the organisation and its ability to survive and flourish. A few of these organisational behaviours will now be considered.

3.2   THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION AND SOME ORGANISATIONAL VARIABLES

3.2.1   Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours

According to Daft and Noe (2001:121), and Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:213), organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) consist of behaviours that employees are not expected to perform as part of their jobs. These refer to those behaviours of employees, that are commendable, and that go above and beyond the call of duty. The behaviours can be seen in employees who are willing to voluntarily assist other co-workers to perform optimally and achieve organisational goals. Thus, employees exhibit OCBs when they voluntarily, deliberately and intentionally engage themselves in mentoring activities, availing themselves to other co-workers to discuss personal and professional problems that they encounter, encouraging others to actively participate in organisational meetings, protecting them from harm and promoting cooperation, collegiality, strengthening interpersonal relationships within the organisation, and advocating for continuous

improvement and quality service provision. Furthermore, employees display organisational citizenship behaviours when they voluntarily utter constructive statements and comments about their institution or department, when they demonstrate a caring for organisational property, and when their punctuality and attendance are well beyond the expected standards (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:213) and Gibson *et al.* (1994:123).

Daft and Noe (2001:121) maintain that employees are more likely to engage in OCBs when they think that they are well treated by their organisation. Specifically, employees tend to exhibit OCBs when they perceive their employment relationship to be founded on trust, shared values and commitment. Under such circumstances, individuals are inclined to exceed their job description by assisting others and the organisation. In contrast, individuals are less likely to exhibit organisational behaviour if they believe that they are being considered as temporary, short-term or dispensable by their organisation. According to Gibson *et al.* (1994:123), OCBs are likely to be found among satisfied employees. This view is supported by Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:213) in stating that separate research studies have revealed a significant and moderately positive correlation between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Additionally, other research studies have shown that employees' citizenship behaviours are largely influenced by leadership behaviour and the work milieu than by an individual's personality.

Significantly, Jones and George (2003:83) give two reasons why it is proper for managers to experience job satisfaction in their organisations. Firstly, satisfied managers are more apt to exhibit OCBs, ranging from working extra long hours when required to coming up with innovative, truly creative ideas and overcoming problems and implementing them, to going out of their way to assist co-workers, subordinates or supervisors, even when doing so involves considerable personal risk and sacrifice. Secondly, managers who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to leave the organisation.

The above discussion seems to suggest that effective school principals are likely to assist beginners and struggling principals if they firmly believe that there exists a relationship of trust, commitment and shared values between themselves and their educational employers. Educational leaders would certainly like principals to exhibit OCBs as this is likely to minimize personnel developmental costs.

3.2.2   Job satisfaction and withdrawal from work

Withdrawal from work as a result of dissatisfaction over working conditions, impacts adversely on organisations as it invariably disrupts organisational continuity and is very costly. This behaviour can manifest itself in the form of psychological withdrawal and cognition, and physical withdrawals such as absenteeism and turnover.

3.2.2.1   Job satisfaction and psychological withdrawal

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:168) explain that the failure by dissatisfied staff to change their job situation or remove themselves physically from it may encourage them to disentangle themselves psychologically from their work. This disengagement can reveal itself in two ways:

In a case where dissatisfaction is brought about by aspects of the job itself, dissatisfied employees tend to show a significant low level of job involvement. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002: 168) contend that individuals who are uninvolved in their job regard their work as not playing an important role in their lives. Thus performing well, does not affect their self-concept or self-esteem.

- When the dissatisfaction involves the organisation as a whole, the dissatisfied worker displays a very low level of organisational commitment. Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:168) define organisational commitment as the extent to which an employee (educator) identifies with the institution (school) and is prepared to voluntarily work hard on its behalf. Accordingly, educators who experience low organisational commitment are likely to leave the teaching profession as soon as an opportunity presents itself. Thus, it seems reasonable to argue that increasing staff job satisfaction may ameliorate the problem of low levels of job involvement by employees as well as that of low levels of organisational commitment.

3.2.2.2   Job satisfaction and withdrawal cognition

Whereas psychological withdrawal occurs as a result of dissatisfied staff not being able to change their job situation or to disengage themselves physically from job, withdrawal cognition seems to refer to something else. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:214), withdrawal cognition or intention to quit refers to the individual's overall thoughts and feelings about leaving a job.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:214) maintain that the process of employees quitting their job generally goes through the process of considering whether or not they should leave. The same authors argue that job satisfaction is one of the important contributors that lead to employees' thoughts about quitting their job. These researchers cite an example of a recent study of managers that showed that job dissatisfaction caused employees to start the process of thinking about quitting. In turn, withdrawal cognition led to increased employees turnover. Therefore the implication from the results of this study is that employee turnover can be indirectly lessened by increasing employee job satisfaction (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:214).

An Education Labour Relation Council report by Hall *et al.* (2005:7), on factors that attract educators away from education reveals that more than half of the respondents indicate that they have definitely considered leaving the profession. They state that they have the intention to leave education because of lack of job satisfaction (Hall *et al.*, 2005:26). The report indicates that an average of 50, 6% principals/deputy principals intend to leave the teaching profession; while an average of 55% educators also consider quitting the profession. Only 44% of the respondents indicate that they have no intention to leave. Of those who had entertain thoughts about leaving, 29% indicate that they regularly think about leaving, while 25% indicate that they only experience these thoughts from time to time (Hall *et al.*, 2005:7). The report further reveals that (Hall *et al.*, 2005:13) dissatisfaction over inadequate remuneration packages is the most likely reason for educators to consider leaving the teaching profession.

The report also reveals that educators living in metropolitan areas are likely to consider leaving their profession because they may have greater access to alternative work opportunities than those living in semi-urban or rural areas. Thus, it is found that the proportion of educators who think about leaving their jobs is higher in the Western Cape and
Gauteng than in the other seven provinces (Hall *et al.*, 2005:8). The Free State province is found to be the third highest (62, 4%) after Western Cape and Gauteng, in terms of the number of educators who intend to quit the profession on account of inadequate remuneration. More importantly, the report finds that job dissatisfaction is not only experienced by and limited to those educators who think about leaving the profession. On the contrary, even those educators who have no intention to leave express their dissatisfaction over factors such as work overload,

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inadequate pay and the low status and respect that are accorded the profession (Hall *et al.*, 2005:26).

The researchers conclude their report by recommending that it is very important that factors that bring about job dissatisfaction to educators be urgently addressed in order to avoid frustrations that may lead to increased absenteeism or/and passive job behaviour. Increased absenteeism and lack of job involvement would negatively affect the quality of education given to South African learners (Hall *et al.*, 2005:26).

Another study conducted by Jackson and Rothman (2005:106) on an adapted model of burnout for educators in South Africa, reveals that educators who intend to leave the teaching profession are more prone to suffer from exhaustion, cynicism and depersonalisation, compared to those who do not intend to quit their jobs. This implies that educators who consider leaving their profession are likely, to entertain these thoughts because they have arrived at a point in their careers where they suffer from burnout due to job stress. A recent study conducted by Maforah (2010:131) on factors influencing the job satisfaction of principals of previously disadvantaged secondary schools in the North West Province, reveals that 50% of the principals that were interviewed, expressed their dissatisfaction with their jobs due to organisational structure factors and would consider quitting the teaching profession if an opportunity availed itself. Thus, the study confirms the findings by Hall *et al.* (2005) that a considerable number of principals in South Africa intend to quit the teaching profession. And the conclusions arrived at from the two studies are similar, namely, that the intention by many principals to leave their jobs is bound to adversely affect their performance and the quality of education received by learners in their schools.

3.2.2.3   **Job satisfaction and absenteeism**

Mathis and Jackson (2008:81) define absenteeism as referring to any failure by workers to report for work as scheduled or to stay at work when scheduled. Absenteeism is very costly for most organisations as it affects productivity and lowers group morale. According to Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:169), research shows that highly motivated workers are inclined to sacrificing and making the extra effort to report for duty regardless of the problems they are experiencing. In contrast, lowly motivated and dissatisfied employees are more likely to frequently absent themselves from work. Consequently, productivity is negatively affected as absent workers have

to be substituted or present employees are compelled to increase their efforts to make up for those who temporarily abdicate their responsibilities. Maforah's study (2010:127) reveals that lack of commitment from staff, manifesting itself in the form of frequent absence from class by educators is a source of dissatisfaction for principals. This problem is further compounded by some undisciplined learners who are oftentimes absent from school or class.

According to Mkhwanazi (1997:33), modelling plays an important role in schools because leaders are expected to demonstrate ideal behaviour to their subordinates. Therefore, educators and principals alike should always strive to model acceptable and desired behaviour for their learners. Absenteeism by educators is likely to result in learners emulating their behaviour. This would invariably affect learner performance. Buchel (2006:ii) contends that educator and learner absenteeism impacts adversely on the management structures of the school, and the role of principals to provide quality education in schools where absenteeism is rampant becomes increasingly complex.

In investigating the effects of educator absenteeism on secondary school learners in KwaZulu Natal, Mkhwanazi (1997: iii) finds that educator absenteeism has the following adverse impact to schools:

- Truancy
- Drunkenness and other forms of substance abuse by learners
- Demotivation among learners
- Fighting and other forms of violence such as intimidation, defiance and vandalism
- Incomplete work programmes and poor performance
- An increase in the drop-out rate

It seems evident that the above factors would inevitably also impact on the level of job satisfaction of the principals in charge of the involved schools. However, George, Louw and Badenhorst (2008:140) report that the results of their study on job satisfaction of educators reveals that educators experience serious levels of dissatisfaction in their jobs. This dissatisfaction which is brought about by factors in their workplace results in frequent educator absence from work,

aggressive conduct towards learners and colleagues alike, psychological withdrawal from work, burnout and increased turnover.

Researchers such as Spector (2012:253), Johns (1996:146) and Robbins (2001:78) found that while it seems reasonable to contend that dissatisfied workers are more apt to be absent from work, other factors such as employee illness, family member illness, weather conditions, distance from workplace, fatigue and personal business have an impact on the relationship and tend to reduce the correlation coefficient. These findings are supported by Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:214) when they report that the results of a meta-analyses study indicate a weak negative relationship between the job satisfaction and absenteeism. This implies that increasing job satisfaction does not significantly reduce absenteeism. In fact, according to McCormick and Ilgen (1995:315) the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism is, in many cases, zero.

Earlier on, a meta-analysis study conducted by Hacket and Guion in 1985 (Smither, 1997:253) found a relationship between absenteeism and job satisfaction. The results of their study reveal that employees who are less satisfied with their job are frequently absent from work. Additionally, the results indicate that people who frequently absent themselves from work have higher turnover rates. Other meta-analysis of 72 absence studies conducted by Farrell and Stamm (Spector, 2012:253) reveal that the two best predictors of employee absenteeism are previous absence history and the organisation's absence policy, rather than job satisfaction. These studies show that employees who have been regularly reported absent in the past are likely to be absent in the future.

Ilgen and Hollenback (in McCormick & Ilgen, 1995:316) found that organisations that provide generous sick leave benefits are likely to encourage all their employees - including those who are highly satisfied - to absent themselves from work. In such a situation, where both supervisors and co-workers regard absenteeism as a way of life, then satisfaction with organisational policy, supervision and co-workers cannot be expected to be negatively correlated with absenteeism. Instead it is more likely that companies that allow more frequent absences that are penalty free can yield greater satisfaction. However, Johns (1996:146) states that in companies where a no work no pay policy is applied, unhappy employees who are in desperate need of money are likely to show up for work.

Mathis and Jackson (2008:82) suggest that rewards can be used to enhance attendance and reduce absenteeism. In this regard, they proposes a control company policy based on positive reinforcement to improve attendance, and sanctions grounded on a motivational pattern of legal compliance to reduce absence. However, the reinforcement and other incentives used should have proof of favourable response from employees to confirm that they can be used to ensure regular employee attendance. It is assumed that those employees who are likely to respond to positive reinforcement would not be negatively affected by the presence of sanctions that are meant for those who neglect their responsibility through habitual absenteeism.

For Graham and Bennet (1998:76), absenteeism can be reduced and controlled through job design and job rotation processes aimed at making work more interesting for employees, increasing employee participation in decision making, carefully considering applicants' job attitudes towards absenteeism during employee selection procedures, implementing flexi-time and job sharing arrangements, employee counselling regarding chronic absence from work and careful record keeping intended to identify individuals and types of work with the highest absenteeism rates.

From the above discussion on job satisfaction and absenteeism, one is inclined to conclude that notwithstanding the fact that conventional wisdom suggests that absenteeism is a consequence of job dissatisfaction, research indicates that overall absence is less likely to have a strong relationship with job satisfaction. Also the policy of no-work, no pay can significantly reduce unnecessary employee absence from work, while incentives such as pay, job security and advancement could be linked to performance and attendance behaviour. Finally, increasing employee participation in decision-making can create a feeling of ownership and belongingness in employees, which may in turn increase job satisfaction and reduce absenteeism.

3.2.2.4   Job satisfaction and employee turnover

Turnover refers to the quitting of employees from their jobs. The percentage of employees leaving their job during a given period of time is called the turnover rate. Spector (2012:255) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:214) argue that excessive turnover rates are very costly for they increase the direct costs of recruiting and training new, inexperienced employees. This results in inefficiency and problems in achieving organisational objectives. High turnover rates also increase the indirect costs relating to poor service quality, lost business to other competing companies, possible loss of technical knowledge and the workforce, and declining morale among remaining employees. Consequently, it is imperative to maintain low turnover rates in organisations.

Most research studies conducted on job satisfaction and turnover have revealed that job satisfaction correlates negatively with turnover (McCormick & Ilgen, 1995:314; Robbins, 2001:78; Spector, 2012:255 and Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002:169). This means that dissatisfied employees are more prone than satisfied ones to quit their jobs. Employees who are satisfied tend to stay longer. Consequently managers can try to reduce employee turnover by increasing employee job satisfaction. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1995:314), because of the consistency of the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, most researchers became curious and sought to identify and look more closely at other factors contributing towards employee turnover. Pursuant to this line of investigation, Hall *et al.* (2005:1) found that dissatisfaction over working conditions lead to quitting behaviour if employees believe that they can find alternative employment. Therefore, expectation about alternative job opportunities is one factor that moderates the satisfaction-turnover relationship (Robbins, 2001:78; Johns, 1996:148).

Spencer and Steers' study (in McCormick & Ilgen, 1995:315) found evidence that indicates that the worker's level of performance is an important moderator of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. They found that superior performers are less likely to quit their jobs than those who are relatively low performers. These findings were confirmed by Williams and Livingstone (Spector, 2012:255) who conducted a meta-analysis study of the performance-turnover relationship.

Robbins (2001:78) and McCormick and Ilgen (1995:315) argue that high performers remain in an organisation because they are offered all sorts of inducements to ensure that they do not quit the

organisation. These incentives range from pay raises, praise, recognition and appealing fringe benefits to increased promotional opportunities. Therefore, the organisation makes every effort to satisfy superior performers. In contrast, just the opposite tends to apply to low performers. They don't receive any encouragement from their employers. Spector (2012:255) maintains that poor performers are likely to be denied rewards, assigned distasteful work, subjected to harassment and unkindly treated in order to motivate them to quit. Therefore, turnover is not problematic if those who are dissatisfied and wishing to quit, are poor performers. Robbins (2001:78) comments that seemingly job satisfaction is more important in motivating poor performers to remain than good performers, arguing that whatever the level of satisfaction of high performers, the organisation will still pump them with incentives to retain them on account of their outstanding performance.

Notwithstanding the fact that poor performer turnover may have rewarding results for an organisation if better replacements can be found, Spector (2012:255) cautions that creating turnover for low performers has the potential to yield more difficulties than it actually solves. For example, it may affect workers who are not the intended target and is likely to create unnecessary hostilities as other workers may take sides and sympathize with their harassed colleagues. Harassed employees may also feel obliged to seek legal recourse and file lawsuits. If the supervisor and the harassed employee are of a different gender or dissimilar ethnic background, a discrimination case might be pursued. Spector (2012:255) also believes that harassment of employees is unethical and that each and every employee should be treated in a fair and honest manner. Spector (1996:262) points out that, withdrawal cognitions (intention to quit) result from job dissatisfaction and may lead to employee turnover (also see 3.2.2.2). This relationship between job satisfaction, intention to quit and turnover can be illustrated by Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Employee turnover as a function of job satisfaction and unemployment rate
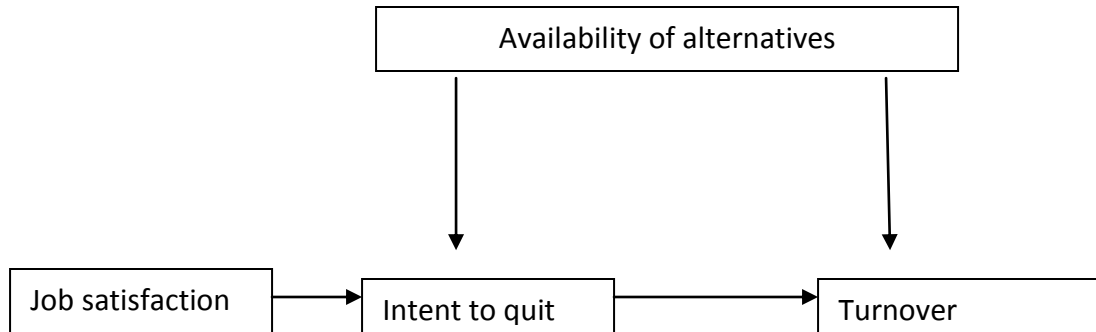
Source: Spector (2012:256)

The figure does not only indicate that job satisfaction leads to withdrawal cognition, which in turn leads to turnover. It also shows that this relationship is moderated by the employment rate. This means that even though dissatisfied workers are likely to think about quitting, they may, however, not quit if the unemployment rate is high and no other jobs are available for them. Research findings by Blau, Carsten, Spector and Gerhart (Spector, 2012:256) fully support the propositions of this model. Furthermore, Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:118) also add that while the model does not clearly indicate them, other pressures and factors such as wishes of an individual's family members and friends, feelings about the community, and resistance to and fear of change may also play a role.

Jones and George (2003:83) and Phillips and Connell (2003:6) contend that employee turnover impacts negatively on those employees who remain on the job. They argue that the disruptive nature of turnover has the effect of significantly increasing the workload of remaining employees with the result that dissatisfaction may ensue. Remaining employees may also experience job insecurity as they are likely to develop concern and curiosity about why their colleagues are quitting. Phillips and Connell (2003:15) suggest that reducing employee turnover benefits both the individual and the organization because it improves employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment, customer satisfaction and teamwork. It also lessens conflicts, stress and bottlenecks.

A study conducted by Whitaker (1996: 69) on burnout and principalship in Colorado (USA) reveals that some principals consider leaving their posts because of problems with central office, time constraints, politics regarding dealing with many different stakeholders, managerial work overload that takes time from leadership responsibilities and a lack of opportunities for professional growth. Furthermore, principals mention the need for salary raises and fringe benefits. Consequently, Whitaker (1996:69) appeals for the need by school district offices to recognize and understand the challenging and burdensome role of the principals fully. She argues that the principal's role must be rewarding, fulfilling and challenging. Hall *et al.* (2005:13) also found that insufficient remuneration and work overload of educators are two of the main reasons why educators resign from their posts.

Whitaker (1996:69) opines that principals may remain in their jobs if they experience a sense of continually growing as professionals and individuals. Principals also need to experience a sense of admiration and respect by others. They need to be accorded opportunities for advancement and professional growth. In addition, they should gain sufficient autonomy that enables them to effect changes and innovations that will enhance the quality of teaching and learning in their schools. Therefore, the task of district offices (Whitaker, 1996:69-70) is to create strategies that promote continued growth of principals and to assume the role of "head learner" in the school district. Whitaker (1996:70) concludes that society cannot afford to downplay the important role played by principals in the education of its children.

In conclusion, it is evident that job satisfaction does not influence turnover directly. However, it has a direct influence on other factors that may affect turnover such as withdrawal cognition and intentions to look for a new job. It is also clear that principals will be motivated to remain in their posts if their needs for fulfilment, advancement, professional growth, security and autonomy are adequately gratified. Apparently, district offices also have a role to play in enhancing principals' job satisfaction and thus reducing their turnover rate.

3.2.3   Job satisfaction and union activity

Robbins (2001:79) explains that one of the ways in which employee dissatisfaction can be expressed is through active and constructive endeavours to improve work conditions. These attempts include voicing their discontent through engaging in union activity. Robbins

(2001:79) argues that this behaviour by union members helps us understand why it is possible to find situations in which low job satisfaction exist alongside low turnover. The fact that union members are able to voice their concerns through their unions, allows them to continue working, while convincing themselves that they are acting to improve their work conditions.

Amos, Ristow and Ristow (2004:295) and Grobler, Warnich, Carroll, Elbert and Hatfield (2004:487-488) maintain that among the different reasons that are likely to lead employees to join unions, the following are common:

- job security
- wages and benefits
- working conditions
- fair and just supervision
- social needs/ the need to belong
- need for self-fulfilment
- need for representation
- political reasons
- to protect a trade or skill

It is evident from the above list that it includes Herzberg's so-called hygiene factors - security, pay, working conditions, supervision and social needs. Therefore, it seems, that failure by employers to satisfy worker's hygiene factors leads to dissatisfaction, which may in turn, compel workers to join unions. Muchinsky, Kriek and Schreuder (2004:301) contend that employees' reaction to trade union membership serve to indicate the extent to which they believe such membership will lessen their frustrations and fears, improve their opportunities and lead to the attainment of quality work life and a better standard of living.

Muchinsky *et al.,* (2004:301-302) are of the opinion that union joining is high in the following situations:

- Where workers believe that the union will be instrumental in assisting them to attain outcomes they desire.

- Where workers believe that they are less likely to influence changing their working conditions through channels such as talking to their superiors, through high performance or networking.

- Where workers prefer to direct their dissatisfaction to unions, rather than turnover or absenteeism.

- Where joining is related to the provision of protection against adversity such as unfair treatment or accusations of misconduct. And, for conflict insurance from unions that may provide material and legal aid in the event of individual complaints, grievances and hardships.

Milkovich and Boudreau (1994:20) suggest that unions are important in that they foster harmonious relationships between organizational management and workers by attending to sources of dissatisfaction which workers have failed to change themselves.

It may therefore be concluded that unions serve a useful role in organisations as they are quick to advise organisational management about those company actions, policies, processes and procedures that are likely to lead to discontent and counterproductive behaviour in the workforce. It is also clear that employees' tendency to join unions is largely enhanced or influenced by the organisation's failure or reluctance to satisfy their lower order needs.

3.2.4 Job satisfaction and counter-productive behaviours of employees

Spector (2012:257) says that counter-productive behaviour refers to employee behaviour that is damaging to the organisation. This type of behaviour includes aggression against others at work, sabotage and theft of organisational property. Furthermore union actions such as withholding of output through work slowdowns and stoppages are viewed as counter-productive from the organisation's perspective (Spector, 2012:260).

Appelbaum, Iaconi and Matousek (2007:587) state that the management of counter-productive behaviours in the workplace has become a growing concern to organizations globally because such behaviour can directly or indirectly lead to huge monetary and personal costs for workers and their organisations. However, Prinsloo (2005:10) argues that school governing bodies are legally obliged to put in place necessary procedures that effectively deal with threats to safety and

security of learners and staff against any form of physical or psychological danger in their schools. These threats may include assault, bullying, sexual harassment, rape, drugs and even murder. Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:122) report that work violence, including homicides and murders is increasing in Britain in Britain. Work violence has also been reported in South African schools (cf. 1.1 & 1.2). According to Spector (2012:257) direct monetary costs to organisations are brought by acts of sabotage such as damage to tools, equipment and property. Furthermore, indirect organisational costs may arise when workers surreptitiously and deliberately sabotage company equipment such as computers and copiers. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007:53) explain that in Malawi the Ministry of Education is burdened with disciplinary cases which frequently involve teachers' sexual relationships with learners, fraud, theft of teaching and learning materials and substance abuse. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007:53) comment that a major problem in most countries where negative deviant behaviours occur lies in that principals lack the necessary authority to be able to discipline educators effectively.

Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:122) and Spector (2012:258) maintain that counter-productive behaviours are mostly reactions to frustration and dissatisfaction at the work place. These reactions start with organisational constraints that impede job performance as well as the realization of the employee personal goals. Spector (2012:258) avers that organisational constraints refer to any aspect of the work situation arising from factors such as the physical environment, supervisor practices and the shortage of needed training, tools, equipment or time that hampers or hinders good job performance. He contends that the constraints evoke feelings of dissatisfaction and frustration in affected employees. In turn, dissatisfaction and frustration can either lead to constructive behaviour, such as putting in place more effective strategies to overcome impediments or destructive acts such as sabotage, aggression, or theft.

Figure 3.2 illustrates how reactions to frustration and dissatisfaction at work, occur.

Figure 3.2: Constructive and destructive employee behaviour as a result of frustration and dissatisfaction
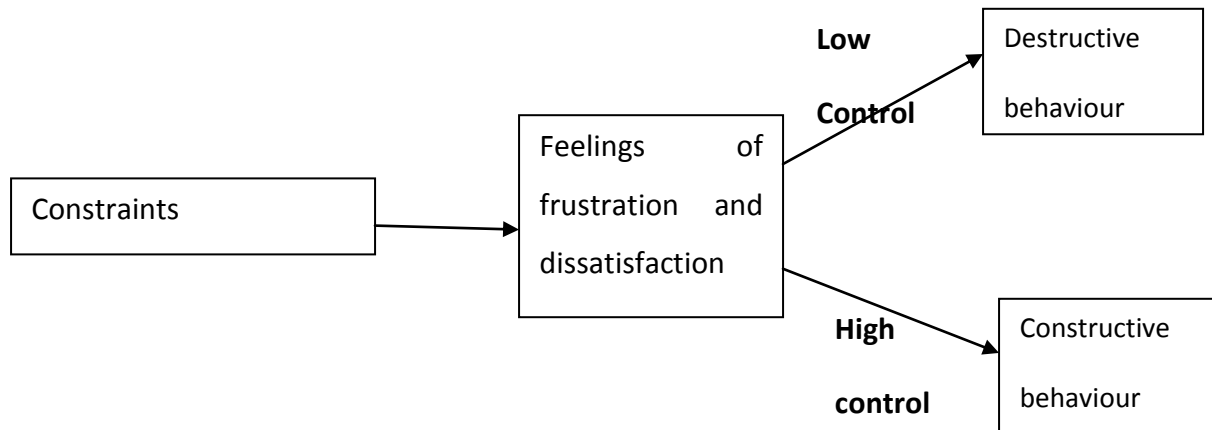
Adapted from Spector (2012:258)

From the figure above, it is clear that constructive or destructive responses are partly determined by an individual's beliefs about control. Thus, employees who believe that constructive and positive effort, can overcome obstacles and lessen problems, are likely to engage in constructive and productive behaviours. In contrast, those who believe that they cannot control obstacles are likely to resort to counter- productive behaviour (Spector: 2012:258).

Locke (as cited in Silvester, 2008:91) maintains that one of the major responses to job dissatisfaction by employees is aggressive or vengeful actions. This usually occurs in cases where discontent employees perceive themselves as victims of distributive or procedural injustice. In such instances an employee may desire to remedy the situation. However, if redress seems not possible, the employee may decide to retaliate. Retaliatory action may include theft, vandalism, sabotage, lying, leaking unpalatable information to the media, giving away or selling company secrets to rival competitors, or badmouthing supervisors and other colleagues. Locke's assertion is supported by Spector (2012:258) in saying that employee job dissatisfaction and frustration has been shown to relate to counter- productive behaviours. However, Giacalone and Rosenfield (in Spector 2012:258) warn that research on counter-productive behaviour, is difficult to conduct as many of counter-productive behaviours are illegal by their nature. Therefore, most information is gathered through questionnaires that ask respondents to report anonymously about their job and reactions.

Spector (2012:258) also adds that research has shown that individuals' locus of control moderates the relation between feelings of frustration and counter productive behaviour. His study results show that employees with an external locus of control indicate a correlation between frustration at work and destructive behaviours, while their internal counterparts indicate little or no correlation between frustration and destructive behaviours. Accordingly, externals, when frustrated, are more likely to engage in counter productive behaviours than internals.

In conclusion, it is evident that organisational constraints can lead to frustration and job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is important for managers to try to reduce aspects of the work environment that impact negatively on the level of job satisfaction of employees. Lack of working tools, equipment, time and insufficient training of employees as well as supervisory practice that hinder opportunities for promotion and personal growth at work, should be dealt with by the management in order to enhance job performance as well as employee job satisfaction. Employees should be trained to channel their dissatisfaction in a manner that does not cause harm to fellow workers or organisational property.

3.2.5   Job satisfaction and the individual

Bohloko (1999: 67) suggests that it is important to investigate the effects or consequences of job satisfaction on the personal well-being of employees as most of these employees spend much of their time at work. Similarly Mckenna (in Hollway, 1992:178) expresses the opinion that organisations have a major role to play in promoting and ensuring a healthier life-style for employees because of the possible benefits in reduced insurance costs, reduced absenteeism and turnover, improved productivity and enhanced employee morale. Importantly, Spector (2012:227-228) avers that research has shown that job dissatisfaction is related to workers' health and well-being. He also comments that research has further revealed that job satisfaction could be a factor in serious employee illness and even death (Spector, 1996:235).

Borg and Riding (1991:263) point out that teacher stress (principals included) has implications that go beyond the concern of the educator's well-being because of the diverse effects that may be caused by protracted stress on their mental and physical health. Borg and Riding (1991:263) suggest that it is only reasonable to expect teacher stress to interfere with teacher performance and consequently with the whole education process. Additionally, Borg and Riding, in another study

(1993:19) found that Maltese principals and deputy principals who are most satisfied with their role as administrators are also likely to be the least stressed. These researchers also found that the scale of the problem of occupational stress among school principals is comparable to that among school educators in general (Borg & Riding, 1993:20).

Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990:285) propose that teachers are continually trying to cope with rapid changes in their jobs, brought about by efforts to adapt to technology and the advancements of the day. These changes tend to place heavy demands on them, both intellectually and socially. According to Kremer-Hayon and Goldstein (1990:285), it is only through the knowledge and understanding of educators' professional inner being that the educational policy and leaders can effectively nourish teachers' professional well-being, and consequently improve their teaching. They suggest that the inner world of educators comprises a number of factors, including job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Applied to school principals, this implies that it is very important for educational leaders to have a thorough knowledge and understanding of those factors that cause or lead to principals' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This knowledge is essential for nurturing principals' well-being in a bid to ensure their effectiveness in their schools. Concurring with the above comments, Mercer (1997:57) maintains that principals' influence within schools can be profound. As a result, it is of interest to all concerned that they obtain satisfaction from the work situation. However, Borg and Riding (1993:20) comment that with the ever increasing demands that parents, teachers, learners and the British Education Department are making on principals, it seems that principals are bound to become more pressured and stressed up, with the possible result that their effectiveness is compromised.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:214) caution that stress can impact very negatively on both organisational behaviour and an individual's health. These researchers maintain that stress is positively related to employee absenteeism, turnover, coronary heart disease and other viral infections. Furthermore, they conclude that there exists a strong, negative relationship between employee perceived stress and job satisfaction. Consequently, they recommend that managers should attempt to lessen the negative effects of stress by improving employee job satisfaction (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:214).

Similarly, Edelmann and Woodall (in Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:49) maintain that the incidence and prevalence of stress at the workplace, is one of the major negative influences on employee job satisfaction, work performance, productivity, absenteeism and turnover. This view is also shared by Steyn and Niekerk (2002:168) and Hall *et al.*, (2005:13) in explaining that at school level, work related stressors such as, inter alia, work overload, large classes, job insecurity, staff appraisal and continuous changes, correspond largely with job factors leading to educator job dissatisfaction. Earlier on, Borg and Riding (1993:12-14) suggested that sources of high stress for school principals could be reduced to four broad categories, namely, lack of support and resolving conflict; inadequate resources; workload; and work conditions and responsibilities.

A report by the Department of Education (2009:70-71) on Trends in Education: Macro Indicators gives a summary of the reasons behind the resignation of a substantial number of educators from teaching. According to the report factors that contributed towards educators quitting the profession included lack of discipline, lack of teaching facilities, overcrowding of schools and classrooms, inadequate incentives, lack of parental involvement in school governance and in disciplining their children, role conflict, favouritism and nepotism at school governance levels; policy overload that results in dissatisfaction with time allocation and rendering working conditions unbearable due to increasing paper work; and the low status that teaching is accorded. Friedman (2002:230) remarks that the relationship between the educator staff and their work environment is an afflictive one, characterised by a clash between their high expectations and the high and often conflicting demands of their work life. Therefore educators and principals who enter into this relationship inadequately prepared for their roles are likely to experience frustrations and stress that may lead to burnout.   It seems reasonable, therefore, to infer from the above, that principals' effectiveness is reduced if they are overwhelmed with stress and dissatisfaction over their working conditions.

It is also evident, from the above, that a positive relationship exists between employee excessive stress and job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it can be concluded that stress reduction on the part of employees, may lead to reduction of job dissatisfaction.

3.2.5.1 Job satisfaction and physical health

The literature on job satisfaction and job stress has consistently shown that high stress is related to low job satisfaction (McCormick & Ilgen, 1995:321). Some researchers such as Nkonka (1999: 30), Sharpley, Reynolds, Acosta and Dua (1996:73), Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (2001:202), Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:52) and Steyn and Niekerk (2002:168) link job dissatisfaction and stress to physical disorders such as peptic ulcers, ulcerative colitis, irritable bowel syndrome, cardiovascular diseases, asthma, headaches, skin disorders (e.g. eczema, acne, psoriasis and hair loss), hyperventilation, light-headedness, unstable gait, appetite and sleep disturbances, backache, arthritis, diabetes, profuse sweating, increased, urination and pounding of the heart, fatigue and hypertension.

Cranny, Smith and Stone (1992: 226, 230) also link serious levels of job dissatisfaction in the early 1990's with illness such as strokes, high-blood pressure, ulcers, arthritis, and alcohol and drug abuse. They argue that job dissatisfaction is the underlying cause of these illnesses in that people are prone to resort to drinking, smoking and using drugs to reduce the job induced strains. Moreover, employee tension and stress from job dissatisfaction cause physiological reactions such as hypertension, which can result in more grave illnesses. However, Spector (2000:216) cautions that evidence relating job satisfaction to more serious health problems, such as heart disease, has been difficult to produce.

Sharpley *et al.* (1996:73), and Bayne (2004:124) caution that further research and reviews have revealed that intense and/ or prolonged stress on human beings impairs their immune systems, thus leading to the incidence, intensity and duration of diseases. These researchers
also indicate that research has shown that job dissatisfaction and overall sadness are stronger predictors of coronary heart disease than any of the popular risk factors such as hypertension, cholesterol and exercise (Sharpley *et al.*, 1996:74). Additionally, Dua (in Sharpley *et al.*, 1996:74) earlier on, found that university lecturers associate higher levels of job distress with job dissatisfaction, psychological distress, negative affect, anxiety and poor health as measured by absenteeism through illness, visits to medical doctors and self-rating of overall physical health.

For Rissler (in Bohloko, 1999:70), there should be a balance between work and leisure time. He argues that unwanted overtime is a significant contributor to dissatisfaction with job demands and

employees' ill-health because it reduces leisure time. Furthermore, the reduced leisure time cannot be utilized effectively due to physiological activation and added employee strain and weariness resulting from overtime work. Therefore, job dissatisfaction is likely to be an outcome of the reported strain, weariness and fatigue, irritation and bad mood during overtime, occasioned by work overload. Nkonka (1999:30) concludes that job dissatisfaction has an adverse effect on one's health while job satisfaction gives a boost to one's physical well-being.

Principals often have to work overtime. It is therefore evident that work overload and other factors arising from the work situation may lead to stress and dissatisfaction, which, in turn, may result in serious physical disorders. Prolonged illness invariably leads to increased absenteeism and turnover.

3.2.5.2 Job satisfaction and psychological health

Bondesio and De Witt (1999:327, 329) caution, that stress is a rapidly growing mental health problem that has a devastating effect on teaching as a profession and educators alike. They argue that because educators are virtually involved in ongoing, emotionally challenging situations on a daily basis, their self-esteem is threatened and their confidence is undermined. Supporting this view Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:168), maintain that low levels of esteem and status in teachers can contribute to both job dissatisfaction and stress.

Research has revealed that psychological and emotional consequences of stress include anger, fear, frustration, lowered self-esteem, poor concentration, forgetfulness, depression, anxiety, irritability, confusion, resentment of supervision and job dissatisfaction (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2001:202; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:52). Therefore, mental health problems can be related to the absence of job satisfaction (Nkonka, 1999:30). Concurring with this notion, McCormick and Ilgen (1995:322) contend that although absence of job satisfaction is not necessarily job dissatisfaction, absence of job satisfaction or lack thereof, can lead to anxiety, worry, tension, impaired interpersonal relations and irritability. These, in turn, may ultimately be the foundations of dissatisfaction.

Rue and Byars (2001:338) state that dissatisfied employees are prone to absent themselves from work due to mental health problems rather than due to illness or personal commitments. However, Gruneberg (1979:123) remarks that the relationship between job dissatisfaction and mental health

is generally of a low order because employees pretend to be satisfied with their jobs when they are actually not. They also cover up for their psychological problems because of their fear of what others might think of them. Gruneberg (1979:123) explains that extreme cases of dissatisfaction with one's job are uncommon since employees choose to avoid these by either seeking alternative jobs that satisfy their needs, or searching for gratification of their needs from aspects of their jobs other than work itself. While agreeing that dissatisfaction has been found to correlate with factors such as anxiety and depression, Spector (2012:233-234) argues that other studies have challenged such results as probably being the outcome of the employee's personality or moods rather than the effect of the job on the worker. This view is supported by Stein (2006:54) in suggesting that negative emotions are more closely related to stress, strain and burnout. Furthermore, negative emotions at work, increase distraction, absenteeism and job dissatisfaction. Accordingly, Spector (2012:228) maintains that while it is possible that job dissatisfaction impacts negatively on employees' health, convincing evidence has yet to be provided.

From the above it is evident that high job stress can lead to lowered or diminished job satisfaction, which in turn, can lead to psychological problems. It is also clear that personal factors such as personality traits and locus of control also play a significant role in employees' mental health. It is, therefore, essential for educational leaders to consider these factors when dealing with matters pertaining to employees' psychological well-being.

3.2.6   Job satisfaction and burnout

Job burnout is a serious challenge for organizations and their employees. Research by Faragher, Cass and Cooper (2005:108) has shown that on average, employees with low levels of job satisfaction are prone to emotional burnout. Hellriegel *et al.* (2001:205) explain that job burnout refers to the negative consequences of working conditions where stressors seem inevitable and sources of job satisfaction and relief from stress are unavailable. This phenomenon typically includes stress components, namely, a state of emotional exhaustion; depersonalization of individuals; and feelings of low personal accomplishment (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2001:205). Similarly, Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:403) define burnout as "a process of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished accomplishment, with low job satisfaction and a reduced sense of competence". Furthermore, Friedman (2002:245) argues that in addition to exhaustion, depersonalization and low feelings of personal accomplishment, burnout in principals is

characterised by the presence of strain-inducing stressors that can overwhelm their coping abilities. These stressors include incessant and unreasonable demands from rude parents, poor performance of educators which encompasses ill-discipline, unresponsiveness to the principal's reasonable requests and instructions, lack of motivation to work and achieve, an observable non-recognition and demeaning of the principal's authority as their supervisor and leader in professional, administrative and organisational terms, work overload, incompetence on the part of the principal and inadequate performance from non-teaching staff (Friedman, 2002:245).

Whitaker (1996:61) comments that several researchers who investigated the relationship between stress and burnout within the education profession found that stress and job satisfaction are predictors of burnout. For example, Anderson and Iwanicki (in Whitaker, 1996:61) discovered that specific aspects of the job, which influence job satisfaction, also contribute to job burnout. In confirmation of Anderson and Iwanicki's findings, Macpherson (in Whitaker, 1996:61) found that autonomy, role ambiguity, educator supervision, boundary spanning and opportunities for promotion show a significant relationship to principal burnout. Moreover, Whitaker (1996:61) also highlights the fact that research on principalship reveals that role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload are inherent in the principal's job. Therefore, aspects of the job such as supervision, autonomy and role tensions that contribute to job satisfaction, also contribute to principal burnout.

For Schamer and Jackson (1996:29), job satisfaction seems a key aspect of burnout, especially among professionals like teachers who work in stressful conditions, gain few rewards, seldom feel fulfilment and whose needs are not being satisfied. In addition, Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen and Wissing (1999:192) maintain that the results of burnout among educators only signify negative implications for all the stakeholders in the teaching profession as well as for the quality of education.

However, Gold and Roth (1993:37) argue that job dissatisfaction does not necessarily lead to burnout. But, the cumulative effect of negative experiences, strengthened by an educator's perception that these unfortunate circumstances prevent him/her from experiencing a feeling of success and accomplishment, render an educator vulnerable.

Mercer (1993:160) argues that a lack of efficacy in principals may result in frustration and job dissatisfaction. Concurring with this view, Le Compte and Dworkin (1991:92) indicate that a strong sense of inefficacy among many burned-out professionals has been documented by other researchers. They argue that research has shown that burnout is associated with withdrawal and feelings of rejection by clients who are often blamed by the burned-out professional for being unwilling to improve, in order to wilfully spite the professional. Moreover Le Compte and Dworkin (1991:92-93) warn that the burned-out professionals no longer espouse the aims and ideals that attracted them to the profession. Instead, they now mechanically "go through the motions," following the means to these goals without actually applying their minds.

From the above it is clear that the incidence of burnout in principals can be very costly to the education system and has to be prevented by all means. This may be achieved by satisfying principals' higher order needs such as autonomy, self-esteem and self-actualization needs. Principals also need to be thoroughly trained in conflict management and change management skills in order to cope with the daunting challenges that they seem to experience in their job environment.

3.2.7   Job satisfaction and occupational level

Jones and George (2003:83) maintain that research on occupational groups has significantly indicated that the higher the occupational level, the higher the job satisfaction and career commitment, and the lower the employee turnover. They argue that people occupying higher positions earn higher salaries, enjoy better working conditions and their challenging jobs make fuller uses of their abilities. Consequently, they have good reason to be more job satisfied and rarely experience job dissatisfaction.

Similarly, Baron and Byrne (1997:500) suggest that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee status and seniority. This implies that the higher the position of an employee within an organisation, the greater his/her reported job satisfaction. Research findings in education also confirm that a high position in the organisation relates positively with job satisfaction. For example, Mercer (1993:154) reported that Jones (1987) found that many British principals derive satisfaction from the power and prestige that go along with the job. Similar findings were reported by Hardy (in Mercer, 1993:64), Borg and Riding (1993:18) and Johnson

and Holdaway (1991:64). However, Borg and Riding (1993: 18) also state that there was a decline in job satisfaction among experienced Maltese deputy principals. They concluded that lack of promotional opportunities might have played a significant role towards their level of satisfaction. Additionally, a study conducted by Bull (2005:98) in South Africa reveals that job satisfaction does not increase progressively with job level among educators from disadvantaged schools in the Western Cape.

Notwithstanding the above reports, Jones and George (2003:83) observe that a growing source of discontent for many lower- and middle-level managers including ordinary employees with no managerial positions is the perceived threat of unemployment and increased workloads occasioned by organisational downsizings. Earlier on, in the teaching fraternity, Hill (1994:233) found that British primary school principals' job satisfaction is being continually reduced by factors of their work such as excessive paperwork, overload and low status.

From the above, it is clear that while principals' position within the school provides opportunities for gratification of higher-order needs such as autonomy, self-esteem and self-realization, factors of the work such as work overload and lack of promotional opportunities, may eventually reduce their level of satisfaction and effectiveness.

3.2.8 Job satisfaction and life satisfaction

Life satisfaction is regarded as an indicator of persons' overall happiness or emotional well-being because it measures how satisfied individuals are with their lives (Spector, 2012:228). Certo (1997:417) argues that no job can be rewarding all the time, therefore, a persons' satisfaction should also derive from other areas of his/her life. He is of the opinion that people are likely to lead a well-rounded life if they not only concentrate on advancing their careers, but also devoting time to social, family, intellectual, spiritual and physical activities.

Spector (2012:228) observes that studies of life satisfaction reveal that it is correlated with job satisfaction. The relationship between job and life satisfaction can be best explained through the spill over, compensation and segmentation hypotheses (Spector, 2012:228; Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2002:122). The spill over hypothesis proposes that satisfaction or dissatisfaction in one area of life

affects or spills over to another. This means that problems and dissatisfaction at work can lead to dissatisfaction at home. Conversely, problems and dissatisfaction at home results in dissatisfaction with work (Spector, 2012:228; Saari & Judge, 2004:399). Consequently, Saari and Judge conclude that organizations have a limited control over an employee's job satisfaction, because for many employees, job satisfaction is also an outcome of their life satisfaction.

The compensation hypothesis, however, suggests that dissatisfaction or satisfaction in one area of life can be compensated for in other aspects of life. Therefore an employee with a dissatisfying job will seek satisfaction in non-work life. The reverse is also true. A person with a dissatisfying home life is likely to explore satisfaction at work. Still, the segmentation hypothesis posits that human beings "compartmentalize" their lives and that satisfaction or dissatisfaction in one aspect of life has no bearing or relation to satisfaction or dissatisfaction in another (Spector, 2012:228).

Evidently, the three hypotheses lead to opposing predictions about the correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Whereas the spill over hypothesis predicts a positive correlation in assuming that satisfaction or dissatisfaction at work results in satisfaction in non-work life, the compensation hypothesis, in contrast, predicts a negative correlation because dissatisfaction with work will be compensated for by satisfaction in non-work life. Still, the segmentation hypothesis predicts no correlation because people keep satisfaction with the various aspects of life separated (Spector 2012:228). According to Spector (2012:228), the spill over hypothesis is the only one supported by research. Spector further argues that even though Judge and Watanabe (1993) conducted a longitudinal study that supported the spill over hypothesis, the problem is that the interaction between work (e.g. job characteristics) and non-work (e.g. family problems) factors and the experiences of and reactions to jobs has been accorded too little attention. Therefore, he suggests that a thorough understanding of the relationship between work and non- work is not possible without a better understanding of how they affect one another (Spector 2012:228).

From the above, it seems reasonable to concur with the conclusion arrived at by Bohloko (1999:74), that the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction depends on personality factors, the job itself and personal circumstances. Therefore, general inferences should be avoided when interpreting the relationship and dealing with its outcomes.

3.2.9   Job satisfaction and productivity

Amos *et al.* (2004:363) define productivity as the efficient transformation of inputs or resources into outputs or products. Similarly, Certo (1997:346) describes productivity as the amount of outcomes (output) an organisation receives for a given amount of inputs. Gruneberg (1979:105) argues that productivity is one of the mayor reasons for studying job satisfaction. He maintains that whether employees are happy or not with their work has consequences for their productivity. These consequences, which may be positive or negative, are crucial in maintaining a smooth and healthy running of the organisation. Ideally, positive consequences should be upheld and improved while developing remedial strategies to lessen negative ones.

Baron and Byrne (1997:501) and Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:120) explain that research on the consequences of job satisfaction has generally revealed a weak relationship between job satisfaction and task performance. Baron and Byrne (1997:501) argue that one reason for the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity to be weak is because many jobs do not allow for variations in performance. If employees perform below certain minimum levels, they are likely to be relieved of their jobs. Similarly, they cannot exceed the minimum levels by much, as their work depends on interactions, interdependencies and inputs from other colleagues with whom they work. Therefore, job satisfaction cannot exert a strong influence on task performance because of the limited range of possible performance.

Baron and Byrne (1997:501) also contend that the organisational constraints such as working conditions, resources and the extent to which the task is structured also serve to weaken the link between job satisfaction and task performance. They cite an example of a study conducted by Ostroff (in Baron & Byrne, 1997:501) in which the results revealed that the measures of school performance such as learners' pass rates, academic performance and measures of levels of vandalism, are positively related to educators' job satisfaction. Baron and Byrne (1997:501) conclude that job satisfaction does influence performance at the organisational level.

This view is shared by Robbins (in Schultz, 1998:220) in saying that when satisfaction is measured for the whole organisation, organisations with more satisfied workers tend to be more effective or productive than those with less satisfied workers. Similarly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:215) report that a team of researchers conducted a recent meta-analysis of 7939 business

units in 36 organisations. Their findings revealed a significant positive relationship between business-unit-level employee satisfaction and business-unit output of client satisfaction, performance profit, employee turnover and accidents. Based on the results of this research, Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:215) concluded that managers can positively influence productivity and other organisational outcomes, by enhancing employee job satisfaction.

Earlier on a study by Khaleque (Gruneberg, 1979:99) provided evidence of a positive relationship between performance and job satisfaction in a repetitive job. The results indicated that employees experience a sense of fulfilment in performing simple tasks. It also proved the importance of supervision and co-workers to overall satisfaction with the job. Additionally, Gruneberg (1979:105) agrees that a positive relationship between friendly supervision (as an indicator of job satisfaction) and productivity exists, with friendly supervision resulting in increased productivity. However, in this case it can be argued that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity is not direct, as friendly supervision seems to be an intervening variable. Furthermore, Berning and Potgieter (in Schultz, 1998:220) differ with Khaleque's findings when they suggest that blue-collar employees are inclined to have lower levels of job satisfaction because of the repetitive and commonplace nature of their jobs.

Spector (2012:226) argues that while it is evident that satisfaction and performance are related, there exist two opposing explanations of the relationship:

1.   That job satisfaction might lead to performance. That is, employees will perform better if they are satisfied with their job.

2.   That performance might lead to job satisfaction. It is assumed that employees who perform well are apt to gain rewards from their performance, and these benefits could in turn increase their job satisfaction.

Both of these assumptions are illustrated in figure 3.3

Figure 3.3: Two views of the job satisfaction-performance relationship

(a) View1: Satisfaction causes performance

| Job Satisfaction | | Effort | | Job |

(b) View 2: Performance causes satisfaction

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                                    ┌──────────────┐
                                    │  Perceived   │
                                    └──────┬───────┘
                                           │
                                           ▼
┌──────────────────┐      ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
│  Job performance │ ───► │  Effort  │ ───► │ Job satisfaction │
└──────────────────┘      └──────────┘      └──────────────────┘
```
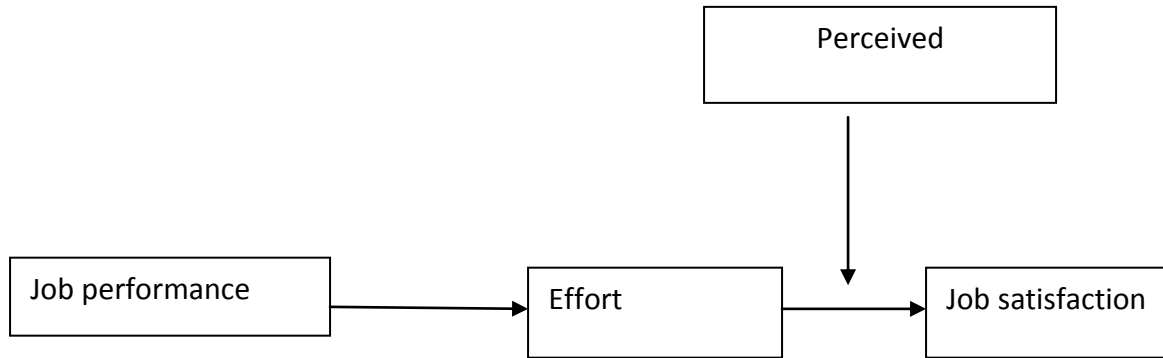
Source: Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:121)

As already indicated, research has shown that job satisfaction does not exert a strong influence on task performance at individual level (Baron & Byrne, 1997:501; Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2002:120; Staw, 1995:92; McCormick & Ilgen,1995: 376). However, research has also found some evidence suggesting that job satisfaction does influence job productivity at organisational level (Baron & Byrne, 1997:501; Robbins in Schultz, 1998:220; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004:215). Obviously, more research needs to be conducted on this issue.

Arguments for the assumption that job performance might lead to job satisfaction are supported by research. Lawler and Porter (in Staw, 1995:215) suggest that instead of higher employee job satisfaction leading to higher productivity, higher productivity yield rewards, which may or not lead to enhanced job satisfaction. According to Lawler and Porter (in Bohloko, 1999:76), the link between job satisfaction and productivity is significant when employees perceive their endeavours to enhance productivity as fairly and equitably rewarding. A negative relationship between productivity and satisfaction occurs in a situation where rewards are unrelated to performance or negatively related to performance (Staw, 1995:92). For example, in South Africa principals are not rewarded according to their level of productivity (learner achievement), but according to other

factors such as the school's total enrolment. Lawler and Porter's approach can be represented diagrammatical as illustrated in figure 3.4 below:

Figure 3.4: Model of the relationship of performance to satisfaction
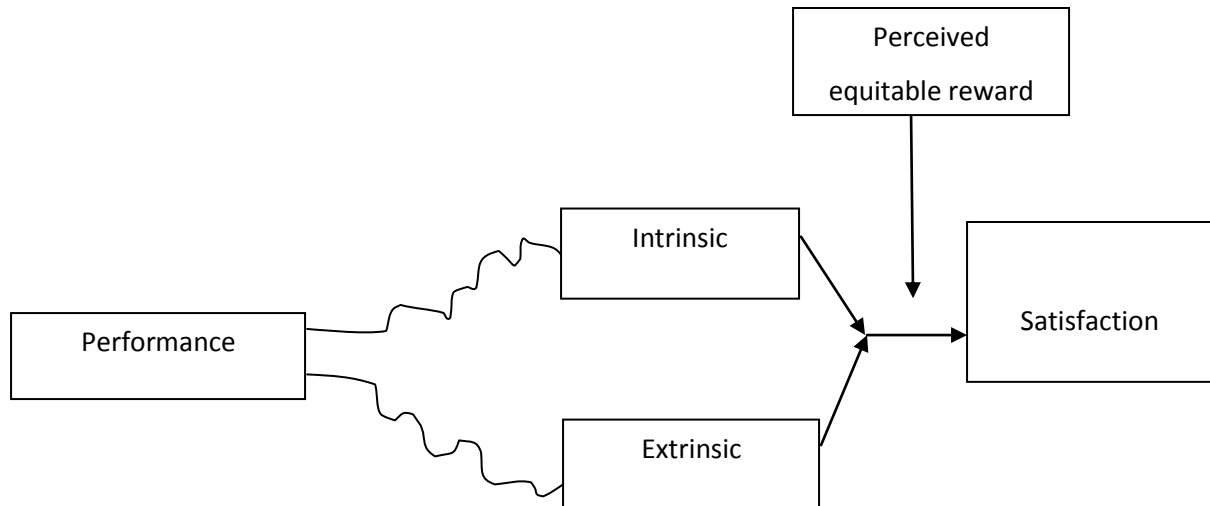
 Source: Staw (1995: 93)

This representation by Staw (1995:95) indicates that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are not directly linked to job satisfaction, because the relationship is moderated by perceived equitable rewards (what employees think they should receive). Therefore, satisfaction is a function of the actual amount of rewards employees receive versus the amount of rewards that they feel they should receive.

Gruneberg (1979:107) therefore, argues that Porter and Lawler combine their expectancy theory (see 2.3.2.3b) with the equity theory in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Using the expectancy theory, they suggested that employees exert more effort in their job when they believe that they will reap valued rewards for accomplishing a given task. However, using the equity approach, they propose that performance enhances satisfaction when that performance yield rewards or incentives and when these incentives are regarded as equitable in terms of the energy spent and in comparison with the rewards of other employees (Gruneberg, 1979:107).

Staw (1995:92) maintains that for organisations to attain the same level of satisfaction for both high performers and poor performers, high performers must receive more incentives than low

performers. The reason being that performance level influences the amount of rewards the employee expects to receive. Therefore, if the reward is perceived as insufficient for the individual's level of performance, dissatisfaction is likely to set in. Furthermore, when poor performers receive equal or better incentives than good performers, the latter will be the least satisfied, and a negative satisfaction - performance relationship will exist (Staw, 1995:92; Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2002:121). Therefore, it is extremely important for organisations to properly reward their employees. Lawler and Porter (in Staw, 1995:92) found the influence of intrinsic rewards such as experiencing a feeling of accomplishment, to be more directly related to good performance. Intrinsic rewards include any of the rewards that gratify self- actualisation needs or higher-order growth needs. Moreover, they discovered that extrinsic rewards such as pay, promotion, status and security are not directly related to performance since they are organisationally controlled and thus depend on the policies of the organisation and group membership. Consequently, high performers will have more intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and experience more job satisfaction as a result thereof. Conversely, those who perform worst will be less satisfied due to lack of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:38) contend that even though job satisfaction and job performance are related to rewards, research shows that rewards constitute a more direct cause of job satisfaction than performance. Also, rewards linked to current performance are more apt to cause subsequent performance.

Staw (1995:93) strongly supports the view that performance leads to job satisfaction. He argues that the assumption that satisfaction leads to performance is contrary to the concepts developed by both drive and expectancy theories. The two theories seem to suggest that high satisfaction might lessen motivation because of the resultant reduction in the importance of incentives that may have triggered the motivational force. He, therefore, concludes that a logical assumption is that performance derives from employees' efforts to attain the goals and outcomes they value, and satisfaction in turn, is determined by the actual outcomes that employees receive.

The researchers, Judge, Thorosen, Bouno and Patton (2001:226) reviewed seven general models of the job satisfaction – job performance relationship.

Briefly, the models can be described as follows:

Model 1: Job satisfaction causes job performance.

Model 2: Job performance causes job satisfaction

Model 3: There exists a reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Model 4: The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is spurious.

Model 5: The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by other variables

Model 6: There is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Model 7: Reconceptualisation of job satisfaction and job performance.

The findings from the research (Judge, *et al.*, 2001:240) revealed that the performance – satisfaction model, the moderator model relating to pay-for-performance, and models advocating alternative conceptualisation of job satisfaction and job performance all garnered considerable support. However, the researchers concluded that notwithstanding the large support received by some of the reviewed models, the results from most of the models were inconsistent. They reasoned that the inconsistencies were occasioned by the gradual and fragmented nature of the research. Additionally, most of the proposed models have not been thoroughly and systematically tested. Another problem emanated from a lack of consensus regarding the validity of the models (Judge, *et al.*, 2001:226,240).

In spite of all the criticism levelled against the job satisfaction and job performance relationship, Judge, *et al.* (2001:243) concluded that it seems premature to dismiss the relationship. Instead, they suggest that future investigation should look into the conditions under which job satisfaction and job performance are related.

Some authors like Aldag and Kuzuhara (2002:122) suggest that if the definition of productivity, was broadened to include OCBs such as, being punctual, assisting others, making suggestions to improve conditions, not wasting time at work and in general, going the extra mile, then the relationship between satisfaction and performance would be strengthened because these behaviours represent actions more under the control of employees than conventional performance measures. This would imply that job satisfaction leads to performance since research has shown that job satisfaction leads to OCBs.

In conclusion, the controversy regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance remains unresolved. While it is clear that more research needs to be conducted on the relationship, up to so far, evidence seem to suggest that job performance might lead to job satisfaction.

3.2.10 Job satisfaction and achievement

Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:165) suggest that employees who are not successful in their work experience very little, if any, job satisfaction. In supporting this view, Mercer (1993:159) argues that it seems that achievement on task or in attaining specific standards of competence invariably leads to job satisfaction. Similarly, Sergiovanni (in Evans, 1998:7) identified job factors such as opportunities for success, achievement and increased responsibility as the actual determinants of job satisfaction, in educators. More over it has already been mentioned that Maslow and Herzberg (see 2.3.2.1 (a) and (c)) suggest that emphasizing achievement and recognition for achievement is motivating and intrinsically rewarding.

3.2.10.1 Job satisfaction and educator achievement

Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:265) explain that it is typical of high achievers to prefer moderately difficult tasks because success in the completion of these tasks reinforces achievement behaviour by decreasing the frequency of failure and increasing satisfaction for a challenging task well done. McClelland (in Aldag & Kuzuhara, 2002:238) believes that the need for achievement can be developed and nurtured in employees by motivating them to believe that it is possible for them to change. It can also be developed by encouraging and assisting employees to set personal goals. According to McClelland (in Aldag and Kuzuhara, 2002:238) the process of developing a need for achievement in employees, also requires the leader to learn to "speak the language of achievement". This implies that leaders can teach their subordinates to think, talk and act like achievement oriented employees. Therefore, it is extremely important for school management developers and other education officials to speak the language of achievement to school principals, if they desire to change schools into centres of excellence. Moreover, (Mercer, 1997:64) suggests that job satisfaction is a direct consequence of a sense of pride in the employee's own personal achievements. This implies that personal achievement by school principals and educators alike, leads to job satisfaction.

Mercer (1993:159) expresses the view that it is possible that most school principals experience a sense of impotence because of their inability to complete tasks that have been identified as essential. He further maintains that the principal`s inability to get his work done - and thus experience a sense of personal achievement - leads to job dissatisfaction as it tends to result in personal and professional frustration. Additionally, Mercer (1997:60) avers that factors such as lack of self-efficacy, shortage of resources and failure to achieve their mission, invariably result in job dissatisfaction for school principals.

Friedman (2002:245) identifies educators as the major cause of burnout and dissatisfaction for school principals. Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1990:28) include factors such as the quality of educators with whom principals have to work as causes of principals' job dissatisfaction. Part of this problem could apparently arise from failure by educators to achieve organisational goals due to incompetence and/ or lack of commitment towards organisational goals. However, it is evident from the discussion above that, principals as leaders and managers of their schools should also

learn to speak the language of achievement to their schools. Staff developmental activities can help a great deal in this regard.

Bittel and Newstrom (1992:253) point out that achievement is probably more important to supervisors and to most employees who enter the management ranks than to ordinary employees. This seems to suggest that supervisors and managers are conscious of the reality that for them to attain organisational goals, they need to have achievement oriented subordinates. Furthermore, it implies that one of the important dimensions of effective leaders is their concern to achieve and accomplish the tasks and goals of their institutions.

For Evans (1998:11), job fulfilment - a component of job satisfaction - depends on the educators' perceptions of having achieved something, which they regard as adequately worthwhile to increase job-related and achievement-related self-esteem. She argues that when educators engage in self-assessment activities, their evaluation is actually about how well they perform in their jobs in relation to their colleagues and other stakeholders. Job fulfilment occurs when individual educators perceive themselves to have contributed in bringing about specific job-related conditions and circumstances that they value and consider to be important. Therefore, job satisfaction occurs when an educator experiences a sense of personal achievement. Evans (1999:11) contends that her idea of job fulfilment is the equivalent of what Herzberg labels job satisfaction.

From the above it is clear that principals' perception of personal achievement as well as those of their subordinates have an influence on their level of job satisfaction. High employee achievement leads to enhanced self-esteem and job fulfilment. Therefore assessing and providing feedback to both principals and educators are essential in order for them to experience a sense of recognition for achievement which in Herzberg's viewpoint (see 2.3.2.1) is an indicator of job satisfaction.

3.2.10.2 Job satisfaction and learner achievement

Mercer (1993:158) suggests that one of the positive features of principalship that leads to job satisfaction is sharing in the success of others. This implies that high learner and educator achievement contribute towards enhancing the principal`s job satisfaction. Harris (2002:23) contends that effective principals show a strong and clear commitment to learner academic achievement. He maintains that such principals are apt to provide the best opportunities for the learning and achievement of learners and staff even under the most challenging circumstances. In fact, Johnson and Holdaway (1991:64) and Jones (in Mercer, 1993:154) found that dealing with educators and learners represented the most satisfying aspects of principals` work. In supporting Harris' contention, McEwan (2003:120) proposes that effective principals are producers who are enthusiastically focussed on learner achievement because they recognise that academic achievement affords their learners options and opportunities for the future. She argues that such principals do not worry about obstacles but simply find ways and means to minimise, remove or overcome their challenges. McEwan (2003:123) emphasizes the point that effective principals take pride or derive satisfaction in knowing that they have employed all kind of interventions to ensure that their learners attain success in their studies. Accordingly, these principals (McEwan, 2003:123) fondly embrace the philosophy that an emphasis on learner achievement is central to school improvement.

Michaelowa (2002:20) suggests that educator job satisfaction exerts a positive and important influence on learner achievement. However, a study conducted by Verdugo, Greenberg, Henderson, Ururibe and Schneider (1997:44) revealed that the level of learner achievement is an important factor in determining an educator`s sense of efficacy, job commitment and job satisfaction. Applied to school principals, the above discussion implies that improved learner achievement is likely to increase the principals' sense of having achieved an important goal, which in turn, will enhance their job satisfaction.

McEwan (2003:166) maintains that highly effective principals usually experience a sense of accomplishment or overall effectiveness at a point where their schools are recognised for past learner achievement or when a major goal is attained. Furthermore, Herzberg (see 2.3.2.2(c)) says that recognition for achievement leads to employee job satisfaction. McEwan (2003:14) further

comments that effective principals recognize and appreciate their need for continuous improvement and growth, and consistently strive for the eradication of unproductive attitudes and behaviours while further intensifying their most productive ways of being and doing. Therefore, effective principals fully appreciate the importance of continuous improvement and growth as factors that can lead to further achievement and job satisfaction.

From the above it is evident that learner achievement is an important and critical factor affecting both educators and principals' job satisfaction. Indeed, it seems very unlikely for one to find a situation where principals are content with their jobs while learners are not achieving. Accordingly, highly effective principals recognize that accountability and a commitment to learner achievement are likely to yield positive results that lead to job satisfaction through recognition for achievement.

In conclusion, it is clear that job satisfaction is related to several employee behaviours. Increased employee satisfaction seem to be linked with behaviours such as OCBs which are beneficial to the organisation and evidenced by employee behaviour such as being punctual, helping others, volunteering, mentoring, not wasting time, etc. However, lowered employee satisfaction is related to negative employee behaviours like regular absence from work and high employee turnover. It is also evident that there is no clear relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. However, it seems that performance can lead to satisfaction if linked to intervening variables such as rewards. Furthermore, it appears that increasing job satisfaction can be beneficial to employees` well-being. Consequently, it can be argued that increasing employee job satisfaction is indeed beneficial to organisations.

3.3   CONCLUSION

In this chapter an attempt has been made to highlight the importance of job satisfaction in influencing organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviours, absenteeism and turnover, union activity and productivity. It is clear that while it can be argued that the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity is not strong, nevertheless, job satisfaction is more strongly related to OCBs which contribute to organisational effectiveness. It is also clear from this chapter that job dissatisfaction can, however, result in physical and mental illness. Furthermore, job dissatisfaction, seems to be related to counter-productive behaviours such as lateness, high turnover, violence and even murder. It is therefore desirable for school principals to experience job satisfaction as this tends to increase their tendency to display or perform OCBs which are positively related to organisational commitment. Another reason why it is proper for these professionals to be satisfied with their jobs is that satisfied principals are less likely inclined to quit their jobs.

In the chapters that will follow, the focus of the study will be on investigating the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State with a view to establish whether principals in the Free State are satisfied with their job situation. In order to achieve that, the research methodology which will be applied will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In chapter 1, the necessity for investigating job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State was stated. The main objectives of the study were mentioned and the methods of investigation to be used were briefly discussed. In chapter 2, a review of the literature on job satisfaction was done by focusing on the relationship between job satisfaction, morale and motivation as perceived by various authors. The chapter also examined the implications of job satisfaction indicators for educational management. Chapter 2 was followed by chapter 3 in which the relationship between job satisfaction and other organisational behaviours were investigated.

This chapter deals with the philosophical assumptions underpinning this study. It then explains the methodology employed, because the methodology used in any research is directly influenced by the philosophical paradigm chosen by the researcher (Creswell, 2009:4). This means that a research philosophy is a belief about the way in which information regarding a phenomenon being investigated should be collected, analysed and used. Consequently, researchers select and apply methods in accordance with the aims and objectives of the study being conducted, the nature of the phenomena being investigated and the underlying theories of expectations of the research.

This chapter focuses on the research design and also defines the scope and limitations of the research design. The research design, according to Creswell (2005:79) serves to describe and analyse methods, to highlight their limitations and resources, to explain their presuppositions and consequently to relate to existing knowledge. In this chapter, the research instruments that have been utilised to answer the research questions are introduced as well as the rationale for their choice. Ethical issues inherent in this research are also discussed.

4.2 PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS

In an attempt to investigate and measure the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State, two methods of enquiry that complement each other were used (Neuman, 2000:122), namely, the positivist and interpretive approach. Lin (1998:122) argues that absolutist claims for either the positivist approach or the interpretive one are wrong and that it makes more sense to combine the two approaches. This view is also supported by Creswell and

Garett (2008:2) in noting that when both quantitative and qualitative researches are brought together, their strengths are combined and the outcome is likely to be a better understanding of research problems than when either approach is used alone.

Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) define a paradigm as the "basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation". A paradigm should include, at least three elements, namely, ontology, epistemology and methodology. This implies that for a theoretical model to assist in explaining any phenomenon there must be an appropriate relationship between the statements made, the methods used to make such statements, and the philosophical perspective employed to inform the methods. Inherent in the above-mentioned relationship are issues relating to ontology, epistemology and methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:99).

Ontology concerns questions about reality, what there is to know about the world, including whether an objective reality exists or not. Its central question within social research is whether or not social reality exists independently of individuals' conceptions, perceptions and interpretations. It questions whether a common, shared, social reality exists or whether there are multiple or many realities that are context-specific. Furthermore, it questions whether human behaviour is controlled by rules that can be regarded as immutable or generalisable (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003:11). In short, ontology pertains to assumptions that a particular approach to social investigation makes about the nature of social reality.

Sprague (2010:78) defines epistemology as the theory of knowing which directs us in how to go about understanding something. It concerns our ways of knowing and learning about social reality. Therefore, its fundamental question is: how do we come to know about reality and what is the foundation of our knowledge (Snape & Spencer, 2003:13).

Methodology (Krauss, 2005:758-759) serves to identify the specific process used to acquire knowledge of the phenomenon that constitutes reality. Therefore, a close relationship exists between ontology, epistemology and methodology in that, whereas ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology deals with how we come to know that reality and methodology identifies the specific processes employed to attain the knowledge of it. From the above discussion it is clear that the methodology chosen in conducting research develops from the researcher's ontological and epistemological stance.

4.2.1 A positivist paradigm

A positivistic ontology regards social reality as real, apprehensible and independent of the researcher. The positivist researcher assumes that reality is stable, objective and singular and that it can be observed and described objectively without interfering with the phenomenon under investigation. Positivists perceive the world as an ordered, structured place that is governed by physical laws (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:110). Therefore, the aim of any research should be to adhere to what can be observed and measured. For the positivist researcher observations are essential and are conducted systematically, through the use of accurate tools and countable measures (Sprague, 2010: 79).

According to the positivist epistemology, the researcher is independent from the phenomenon being researched. The only genuine knowledge is the one based on sense experience and positive verification. Consequently, authentic knowledge can only be discovered and confirmed through direct observations or measurement of phenomena (Krauss, 2005:759). The positivist epistemology posits that science is the only way to get at truth, to understand reality adequately so that it might be predicted and controlled. Predictions can be done on the basis of previously observed and explained phenomena and their inter-relationships. For the positivist, the world and the universe are deterministic because they function according to the law of cause-and-effect, which can be clearly seen and understood if the scientific method is applied. This means that if the law is known, conditions can be manipulated to produce the predicted result. The positivist uses deductive reasoning to develop statements and postulate theories that can be tested (Trochim, as cited in Krauss, 2005:759).

The methodology employed by the positivist researcher is akin to that used in the natural sciences, for it is believed that research can only be proved or verified by empirical means and not by argumentations. To this end, experiments and surveys are extensively used to test and verify hypotheses (Krauss, 2005:759). Consequently, quantitative methods are mainly used to arrive at the truth. Furthermore, since science quantitatively measures independent and external facts about a single understandable reality, the data collected and their analysis are therefore value-free and unbiased, and data remain unchanged because it is being observed (Healy & Perry, 2000:119).

4.2.2 The interpretivist paradigm

In contrast with research conducted under a positivistic ontology, research conducted under interpretivist ontology views reality as subjective and socially constructed, with both researcher

and the (object) respondent involved in the knowing process. Accordingly, only through the subjective interpretation of and intervention in reality can that reality be apprehended. Olson (1995:3) states that "the subjective researcher seeks to know reality through the eyes of the respondent". This implies that, that which exists is that which we agree exists.

The interpretivist epistemology assumes that the best way to understand any phenomenon is to look at its context; that the best way to understand what is going on is to actively participate in and to become part of the culture or organisation under investigation and experience "what it is like to be a part of it" (Krauss, 2005:759-760). Because it is assumed that reality is not predetermined, but constructed by research participants, the interpretivist epistemology stance holds that the researcher and the social reality impact on each other (Snape & Spencer, 2003:17). This means that researchers cannot avoid affecting those phenomena they study, and that all research is essentially biased by the researcher's perceptions (Denscombe, 2010:301).

Unlike positivist researchers, interpretivists believe that it is impossible to conduct an objective and value free research because it is assumed that facts and values are not distinct and research findings are inevitably impacted upon by the researcher's perspective and values (Snape & Spencer, 2003:17). Consequently, truth is socially constructed through multiple interpretations of the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, the notion of truth is a composite of realities.

The methodology used by the interpretivist researcher is mainly phenomenological and involves qualitative methods that include, inter alia observation, in-depth individual interviews and focus group discussions. Accordingly, the methods used usually involve close interaction between the researcher and participants, where the researcher is the primary research tool. Furthermore, the methods employed to generate data are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which the data are generated (Snape & Spencer, 2003:4).

4.3 THE RESEARCH STRATEGY

Neuman (2000:122) avers that although qualitative and quantitative research approaches vary in many respects, they complement each other in many ways as well. It is therefore better to appreciate the strengths that each approach offers and how both may contribute their benefits to the research question (Thomas, 2003:7). In concurring with their views, Plano-Clark and Creswell (2010:299), as well as Bouma and Ling (2006:169) suggest that good research is likely to employ both qualitative and quantitative approaches, with the difference lying in the extent to which the

research is based in one approach or the other. For the purpose of this study, both quantitative and qualitative research approaches have been employed.

As already indicated in the previous section on research paradigms, quantitative research is associated with a positivistic paradigm, while in contrast, qualitative research is founded on the interpretivist perspective. Although both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were employed in this investigation, the research is however, leaning heavily towards a quantitative research approach. Consequently the study is a descriptive survey and the questionnaire has been used as a key data collection device.

In the sections that follow, the research methods and procedures that were followed in this investigation are described in detail.

4.3.1 Research methodology and design

Babbie and Mouton (2006:74) and Strauss and Corbin (1990:17) define a research design as a plan or blueprint of how the researcher intends or proposes to carry out the research. Similarly, Creswell (2003:12) proposes that the research design is an action plan that connects the philosophical assumptions to specific methods. For Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:71), the research design is directly used to test hypotheses as it specifies in detail what strategies and tools will be applied during the investigation in order to accurately answer the research questions or test a specific hypothesis under given conditions. Therefore, the research design is a strategy employed by researchers to integrate the different aspects of the research project cohesively and coherently.

Babbie (2004:6) refers to methodology as "the science of finding out". Concurring with this view, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:157) consider methodology as referring to the philosophical framework and assumptions underpinning the research. This implies that methodology develops from the researcher's ontological and epistemological stance (Henning *et al.* 2004:36). Methodology, may also be defined according to Creswell (2009:4), as the paradigm that relates to the whole research process. Furthermore, Babbie and Mouton (2006:74) explain that research methodology focuses on the research process and the type of instruments and procedures to be used, while the research design pays more attention to the end product. However, Henning *et al.* (2004:36) argue that a research design is part of methodology. Examples of research designs are experimental research, survey research, ethnography and mixed methods (Creswell, 2009:40; Mouton, 2001:57).

In research, the research design should stem from the research question because one of the functions of the research design is to ensure that evidence collected accurately answers the initial research question. Therefore, the primary concern for the researcher in choosing a research design is to ensure that the research design is relevant to the research question. The research question in this study is to investigate the current level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State (cf. Chapter 1). Although both the qualitative and quantitative approaches have been used to gather data, the large sample chosen on the basis of the population size, dictated that the research lean heavily towards a quantitative approach. Bouma and Ling (2006:169) suggest that good research is likely to employ both qualitative and quantitative approaches, with the difference lying in the extent to which the research is based in one approach or the other. Therefore, the research design in this study is a descriptive survey, and the questionnaire has been used as a key data collection device.

4.3.2 Quantitative research

As already indicated in the previous section on philosophical assumptions (see 4.2), quantitative research is associated with a positivistic paradigm, while, in contrast, qualitative research is founded on the interpretivist perspective. Best and Kahn (2003:141), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:18) and Van der Merwe (in Garbers 1996:282) state that the aim of quantitative research is to test theories and hypotheses, verify facts, make statistical analysis, indicate relationships between variables and make predictions on the basis of evidence at hand. For Plano-Clark and Creswell (2010:166), quantitative research is the collection of numerical data, with a view to explain, describe, predict and control the phenomenon of interest.

Quantitative research is characteristically based on the idea that social phenomena can be quantified, measured and expressed numerically (Creswell & Garrett, 2008:2) and that information can be collected from many participants and trends assessed across large geographical areas. In this study, as indicated, the population of interest (urban school principals in the Free State) is dispersed over a large geographical area so that only a descriptive survey is considered appropriate to economically yield the desired outcomes.

4.3.2.1. The descriptive survey design

Neuman (2000:285) and Thomas (2003:41) describe a survey as a process characterised by the translation of a current research problem into questionnaires, then using information gathered from

respondents through these questionnaires to create quantitative data, and finally giving a brief report of the findings. Thomas (2003:44) explains that surveys are very helpful in revealing the current status of a specified characteristic of a group within a neighbourhood, region or a nation. This study involves the investigation of the current status of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State. Accordingly, it is cross-sectional as it studies the attitudes of school principals towards their work at a given moment in time (Garbers, 1996:287). Furthermore, Gay and Airasian (2003:327) state that one of the most useful features of a descriptive survey lies in its capability to examine a variety of educational issues including the evaluation of attitudes, opinions, preferences, demographics and procedures.

In this study the survey was helpful in collecting data from a sample of urban school principals in the Free State, learning, analysing and generalising from the sample of the population in order to make inferences about the perceptions of urban school principals (Creswell, 1994:118). Cost effectiveness, available time, population accessibility and the dispersion of urban school principals over too broad a geographical range, also served as contributing factors in selecting a survey based research. For example, mail surveys are the least expensive way to collect data from a large dispersed sample.

A distinctive feature of a survey is that it involves a large number of subjects/respondents drawn from a defined population. A survey is useful because it has the capacity to identify the characteristics or attributes of a population from a small sample of respondents (Creswell, 1994:118). The respondents in a sample answer the same questions. In this survey a structured self-administered questionnaire, requiring choices between particular answers was used as a data collecting instrument. Respondents were subjected to an identical set of questions which rendered processing of responses easier and allowed for consistency and precision with regard to question formulation and wording (Gray, 2009:337-338).

(i) The questionnaire as the research instrument

Thomas (2003:66) defines a questionnaire as "any printed set of questions that participants in a survey are asked to answer". Respondents are expected to either (1) select one choice from among several possible responses or (2) give their answer in writing. According to Check and Schutt (2012:164-165) the questionnaire investigation should be important to the researcher, the specific field of interest, as well as to the respondent. The questionnaire should be able to motivate the respondents to cooperatively and honestly answer the questions given to them. It should be able

to retain the attention of the respondents and to evoke in them feelings of sympathy and interest in answering questions. Significantly, the questionnaire is considered to be the most commonly and widely used data collection instrument (De Vos, 2002:152). Furthermore, the wide use of the questionnaire as a data gathering instrument derives from the observation that it is relatively economical and has the potential to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality (Gray, 2009:338). Accordingly, the questionnaire investigation has the potential to ensure the building of trust between the researcher and participants, and, therefore, the likelihood that the gathered data is truthful and valid.

Questionnaires may be used by a researcher to collect factual information that only requires respondents to accurately and honestly reveal information about themselves such as their sex, age, and qualifications, and so on. They may also be used to investigate respondents' opinions, that is, their attitudes, beliefs and preferences. (Denscombe, 2010:88; Thomas 2003:66). In the latter case respondents are requested to reveal information about their likes and dislikes, approvals and disapprovals, and to express values in a way that is judgemental. In the present study a questionnaire was used to collect factual information about urban school principals in the Free State as well as to investigate their opinions about their actual and ideal job environments (Roberts & Robbins, 2004:90).

Mouton (2001:100) states that a researcher is at liberty to use existing or self-constructed questionnaires for data collection and measurement. For the purpose of this study, it was considered more appropriate to use an existing questionnaire which is likely to be more economical in time and costs and which is considered to be high in validity and reliability (Mouton, 2001:100). The main aims of the questionnaire are as follows:

- Investigate the current level of job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State region.
- Establish the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by the respondents.
- Determine the current level of job satisfaction of the sub-groups of the respondents.
- Establish the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by each of the sub-groups of the respondents.
- Identify the factors that impact negatively on the job satisfaction of the respondents.

The research questionnaire is divided into two sections, namely, Section A and Section B (see appendix A). Gray (2009:355) emphasises the importance of carefully giving clear, unambiguous instructions to respondents on how to complete the questionnaire. Accordingly, in this study clear instructions at the beginning of each section are given to principals on how to correctly complete the questionnaire. Section A deals with factual information that includes biographical details such as gender, experience as a principal, academic qualifications, age and teaching experience. Factual information relating to school aspects, also forms part of Section A; they include learner enrolment and school category. Initially, factual information from respondents included questions relating to the respondents' current position (principal or acting principal), type of school (public or independent) and terms of employment (temporary or permanent). However, these categories were omitted in the analysis because it was discovered that all respondents are principals, all of them are employed in public schools, and they are all permanently employed. Additionally, information on school category was condensed to form only two broad groups, namely, primary or secondary school. This change was brought about by the discovery that most intermediate schools included grades that actually belong to primary schools and that senior secondary and secondary schools both belong to one band, namely, Further Education and Training. The category on academic qualifications was also compressed to two broad groups, namely, matric plus diploma and bachelors' degree or post graduate degree. This was occasioned by the finding that all respondents possess matric plus teachers' diploma while others also hold bachelors' degree or/and post graduate certificates. The last category in which changes were effected is the one on teaching experience. This category was also divided into two broad groups, namely, one up to 15 years and another one more than 15 years experience. This decision was taken after data analysis revealed that the first two groups, 1-5 years and 6-10 years yielded very small numbers. For example in the 1-5 years group there were zero respondents while in the 6-10 years experience they were only three.

Section B deals with the opinions of respondents regarding their important needs /values in their ideal work environments; vis-a-vis the presence of reinforcers of these important needs/values in their actual work environment. Edwards (1991:326-346) avers that most of empirical person-environment fit studies show that match indices representing the difference between job supplies and employee needs are positively related to job satisfaction. This implies that the fit of work reinforcers to employee needs permits the prediction of job satisfaction. Therefore, the greater the

correspondence between the employees needs and the job requirements, the likelihood of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Muchinsky and Monahan (1987:269) maintain that a fairly large body of literature supporting or confirming the validity of person-environment fit is already in existence.

To investigate the correspondence between the respondent's important needs in their ideal work environment and the availability of reinforcers in their present jobs to fulfil these needs, the researcher decided to adapt the O* NET Work Importance Locator, which is an instrument based on a previously developed and standardised measure of work values, namely, the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Rounds, Henly, Dawis, Lofquist & Weiss, 1981). According to Dawis (2002: 11), work values may be divided into six broad categories, namely, achievement, independence, recognition, relationships, support and working conditions. Each of the 20 specific needs/ values are then matched up with the appropriate broad classification. Below is a classification of work values according to clusters:

TABLE 4.1: Work values according to clusters

CLUSTER	VALUES
Achievement work value:	*Ability utilization,* *Achievement*
Independence work value:	*Creativity,* *Responsibility,*
Recognition work value:	*Advancement,* *Recognition,* *Authority* *Social status*
Relationships work value:	*Co-workers,* *Social service,* *Moral values*
Support work value:	*Company policies and practices,* *Supervision: human relations,* *Supervision: technical*
Working conditions work value:	*Activity,* *Independence,* *Variety,* *Compensation,* *Security,* *Working conditions*

Section B is divided into two parts. In the first part 20 value statements are given and respondents are required to respond to these value statements by indicating the extent to which each value is important to them. In the second part, use is made of the same 20 value statements to determine

the extent to which respondents' actual jobs provide opportunities to ensure the fulfilment of the stated values.

To assess the respondents' opinions on the 20 values variables, the researcher measured the variables on a five-point Likert-type scale. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:198) describe a scale as a series of ratings, stages or values that describe different degrees of a phenomenon. Extensive use of scales in questionnaires is often made as it is believed that scales yield fairly precise evaluations of beliefs or opinions and perceptions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:198). The most widely and commonly used rating scale format is known as the Likert scale. In this format, items consist of questions or statements that are followed by a scale of potential responses. Respondents are requested to indicate how they feel about the items by indicating the extent to which they agree or disagree with a given item. For example, respondents may be required to indicate whether they strongly agree/agree/are undecided/disagree/strongly disagree with a given statement. In this study, 20 close-ended items were put on a five-point Likert-type scale with the prompts: very unimportant, unimportant, neutral, important and very important in the first part of Section B. The respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which the research variable was important to them by crossing one of the prompts. Similarly, in the second part of Section B, respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which their present jobs provided opportunities to fulfil their needs by crossing the following prompts: definitely no opportunity, no opportunity, neutral, opportunity, there is definitely an opportunity. The neutral choice was included in order to avoid forcing the respondents to make a choice that they not wholly prefer, which may result in a non-response and some form of frustration to them (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:199).

The Likert-type scale was regarded as appropriate in this study because scaled items are very helpful in accessing attitudes and personality (Kanjee in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter; 2006:488). Therefore, the Likert-type scale was employed to investigate and evaluate the perceptions and attitudes of urban school principals in the Free State province. Furthermore, Likert-type scales are easy to compile and, therefore, preferable to other scaling methods that involve complicated procedures for their compilation. Likert-type scales are also valuable because the ordinality of their response categories is clear and definite (Babbie, 2008:188). Consequently, Likert-type scales are able to guide respondents in making appropriate choices.

In the following section the benefits and limitations of a questionnaire as the data gathering device are discussed.

(ii) Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

Questionnaires are the most popular and widely used data gathering devices in social science research. Babbie (2008:278) states that structured questionnaires are vital to and most directly linked to survey research. In collecting data through a structured questionnaire, the researcher may decide to mail, personally deliver or hand out a written questionnaire to respondents. The researcher may also decide to conduct personal interviews or telephone interviews. In this study, the researcher chose to mail most questionnaires, personally deliver some to readily accessible individual respondents and to administer others to groups of respondents attending principals' meetings. Much as the questionnaire is widely used in social research, researchers using it recognise that it has benefits as well as limitations and, most importantly, it has to be suitable to the research question and the particular target population under investigation.

a) Advantages of a questionnaire

Research has shown that there are many advantages of a questionnaire. However for the purpose of this study, only those that are relevant to the empirical investigation will be mentioned and explained. Fraenkel and Wallen (1993:351), Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:109), Gay and Airasian (2003:282) and Babbie (2008:272) mention that structured questionnaires have the following advantages:

- They improve consistency of responses across respondents because they tend to draw out a uniform set of responses from all the respondents. This renders them easier to process than open-ended questionnaires.
- They allow for anonymity in this study. Because respondents are afforded time to complete the questionnaire in their own time, being assured of anonymity and confidentiality, the respondents tended to be more genuine in their responses to sensitive issues.
- They preclude possible interview bias that is so common with interviews and that contributes to weakening the reliability of survey results. They can be sent over a large geographical area and save time as they are relatively easy to complete.

b) Disadvantages of a questionnaire

Babbie (2008:272-273) and Fraenkel and Wallen (1993:351) identify the following disadvantages of structured questionnaires:

- They are inflexible and may not be used to explore complex issues in great depth. In fact, low response rates are also common to structured questionnaires. For these reasons, the researcher had to employ a qualitative approach to overcome this limitation in this study. Furthermore, because it was initially difficult to obtain an adequate number of responses from mailed questionnaires, the researcher had to send questionnaires for the second time to non-respondents to increase the number of responses.

- The risk exists that the questionnaire, especially mailed ones, may be completed by people other than the targeted respondents, and this can lead to bias.

- Respondents may respond superficially without applying their minds, especially if they perceive the questionnaire to be too long.

- There is the danger of questionnaire fatigue if surveys are carried out frequently, with the result that respondents may be inclined to ignore the questionnaire even when follow-up activities have been done.

- Mailed questionnaires may appear impersonal. In this study, the researcher was only able to create a rapport with those respondents to whom he administered the questionnaire in person.

- Respondents may answer questions incorrectly or not at all because of misunderstandings and confusion. They may also invite others to help, and this may lead to bias of the respondent's opinions.

- It is often not possible to determine the demographics and characteristics of non-respondents and/or reasons for their refusal to participate.

4.3.2.2 Questionnaire administration

Babbie (2010:270) suggests that one of the three main methods of administering a survey questionnaire to a sample of respondents is that of self-administered questionnaires, in which respondents are requested to complete the questionnaire themselves. For the purpose of this study, the mail survey was used to reach respondents who could not be easily reached, such as those employed in Motheo, Fezile Dabi, Lejweleputswa and Xhariep Education Districts. In the Thabo-Mofutsanyana Education District where the researcher is employed, most questionnaires were personally delivered by the researcher to the randomly selected respondents' homes or places of

work and collected on a mutually agreed-upon date. In some instances, the researcher requested School Management and Governance Developers (SMGDs) to administer the questionnaires to a group of respondents attending principals' cluster meetings in a particular area at the same time (Babbie, 2010:270). In situations where the researcher personally delivered the questionnaires or in cases where they were delivered by SMGDs during cluster meetings, the response rate proved to be significantly higher than in cases where the questionnaires were mailed to respondents. Additionally, mailing questionnaires to respondents proved to be more expensive than using the other two methods.

In preparing the questionnaire, the researcher avoided using negative words in the questionnaire as they may likely confuse the respondents (Babbie, 2008:276). The questionnaire was also administered to competent school principals who are considered to be experiencing the research problem directly. That is, principals are expected to know about their important needs and values in their ideal workplace and whether their present jobs provide them opportunities to fulfil these needs and values (Babbie, 2008:30).

4.3.2.3 Permission to conduct a research study

In order to administer the questionnaire to selected school principals, the researcher wrote a formal letter requesting permission to conduct research in Free State schools from the director of Quality Assurance Sector of the Free State Department of Education. Permission for conducting research in the Free State schools was granted by the director subject to conditions laid down in the reply letter (Appendix B). The researcher subsequently administered the questionnaire, which was accompanied by a covering letter to the targeted schools. In the following section, a brief explanation of the necessity for a covering letter is provided.

4.3.2.4 A covering letter

The covering letter is one of the most important aspects of a mailed questionnaire. It may encourage the selected subjects to read the questionnaire and may improve their attitude to genuinely and truthfully complete the questionnaire. In this study, the main purpose of the covering letter was to explain to targeted urban school principals the purpose of the research. The main aim of the questionnaire was to investigate the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State. The study is also intended to identify both the causes and consequences of job dissatisfaction among school principals with a view to make

recommendations that are likely to eradicate or minimise these causes of discontent among principals.

In the covering letter it was clearly stated that participation in the research was voluntary, that the responses to the questionnaire would solely be used for research only, that no individual or school would be identified and that all information received from respondents would be kept confidential. It was further indicated that participants could access the research results from the five Free State Education Districts where the researcher would send them after the successful completion of the study. Respondents were further requested to put their completed questionnaire in a sealed, stamped envelope that was administered with the questionnaires. They would then be required to return the stamped envelope to the address of the researcher which appeared on the envelope (Babbie, 2008:286). Enquiries were directed to the supervisor of the researcher for purpose of validating or confirming the contents of the covering letter. Respondents were also requested to return the completed questionnaire within three days. Accordingly, the researcher hoped that the contents of the covering letter would help to allay the fears of the targeted subjects and, hopefully, increase the response rate. Response rates may be very problematic for researchers using mailed questionnaires as their main data gathering device. Finally, the researcher expressed in advance his appreciation and gratitude for respondents' cooperation and participation and further apologised for any inconvenience that the study may cause individual respondents.

4.3.2.5 Sampling

Bickman and Rog (2009:77) explain that sampling refers to the process of selecting a subset of a research population for data collection. For Mouton (2009:133), sampling can also be described as a process of selecting a representative number of events or people with the aim of generalising the outcomes of the study to a specified population. He stresses that the word "sampling" is only used in cases where the results of the research are to be generalised. In this study, sampling is done with a view to generalise the results to an identified population.

4.3.2.6 Population

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:119) describe a population as a group of individuals, objects or events that have some common characteristics that comply with certain standards and to which the researcher intends to generalise the results of the research. For this study, the population comprises all school principals from public and independent schools in the Free State, with the

exclusion of school principals from farm schools (cf. 1.5.2.1). The researcher received information of all public and independent Free State schools from the EMIS section of the Free State Department of Education (FSDoE) as well as their division according to the five existing education districts. The division of those schools according to districts is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Free State Department of Education: Schools per education district (excluding farm schools)

Education District	Number of schools
Xhariep	58
Fezile Dabi	147
Lejweleputswa	181
Motheo	282
Thabo-Mofutsanyana	284
Total	952

4.3.2.7 Sample

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:119) describe a sample as a group of participants from which information is obtained. According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:49), and Babbie (2008:211-212) the main aim of sampling is to select a sample that will be representative of the population to which the researcher intends to make a generalisation. Babbie (2008:200) argues that probability sampling includes the important idea of random selection.

Random sampling is a form of a probability sampling in which every member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Mouton, 2009:138; Huysamen, 2001:39). There are other types of probability sampling such as systematic, stratified random, cluster and panel sampling. However, for the purpose of this study random sampling was used.

A total of 500 (52,5%) school principals were randomly selected from the population of 952 urban school principals. The construction of the sample was carried out in such a way that each of the five education districts was proportionally represented. Table 4.3 shows the number of possible participants from each education district.

Table 4.3: Number of principals from each education district

Education District	Number of school principals	Percentage of the total
Xhariep	31	53,4%
Fezile Dabi	77	52,4%
Lejweleputswa	95	52,5%
Motheo	148	52,5%
Thabo-Mofutsanyana	149	52,5%
Total	500	52,5%

In determining the desired sample size for the study, the researcher considered some general principles guiding the determination of a sample size. Firstly, he considered the fact that a small population requires a relatively large sample and vice-versa (Huysamen, 2001:47). Secondly the researcher considered the reality that in a study where questionnaires were mailed to participants the number of responses may be smaller than the original sample size (Huysamen, 2001:48). Having considered the above-mentioned principles, the researcher decided to make the sample as large as possible.

4.3.2.8 Response rate

Babbie (2010:272) states that a high response rate greatly reduces the possibility of response bias than does a low rate. Creswell (2005:367) concurs with this view in stating that questionnaires with high response rates enable the researcher to generalise the results with confidence. However, Ary, Jacobs and Razaviech (1990: 432) and Muijs (2012:148) contend that non-responses are a feature of questionnaire administration. Therefore, it is quite common for researchers to receive insufficient response rates. According to Huysamen (2001:149), the inability to have control over the completion of questionnaires may result in poorly completed questionnaires and poor response rates. Huysamen (2001:150) and Babbie (2010:272) suggest that in a bid to improve the response rate on questionnaires, the researcher could do the following:

- Personally deliver the questionnaires at the respondents' address with a request that they be posted back after completion.
- Mail the questionnaires to respondents and personally collect them as arranged. Questionnaires may also be delivered and collected personally by the researcher. In this

study, the researcher personally sent questionnaires to nearby selected schools and collected them after three days.

- Send follow-up mailings to provide respondents with additional stimuli to respond. In this study, in addition to sending follow-up mailings in cases where the respondents' geographical area was too far from the researcher, telephone calls were made to humbly remind the respondents about the questionnaires. Follow-up mailings were sent after three weeks.

- The questionnaire should be sent at the most convenient time when respondents are likely to be available and will have time to respond. For example, in this study, the questionnaires were distributed during the second term, when most principals have completed their term one workload. Furthermore, it was clearly stated in the covering letter that questionnaires could be filled outside school hours.

Researchers' views differ about acceptable response rates. However, Babbie (2010:273) states that the only acceptable response rate to a mail survey is 100 percent. Arguing that while the possibility exists that response rates as high as 70 percent or more may be achieved, most mail survey probably fall below that level. Accordingly, he suggests that it is crucial to test for non-response bias where possible. Nevertheless, Tuckman (1988: 247) suggests that any response less than 80% requires that other means be pursued to receive data from non-respondents. For Ary, *et al.* (1990:432), other attempts to obtain data from non-respondents should be considered if the response rate is less than 75%. Still, Gay (1992:229-230) regards a response rate that is less than 70% as having the potential to weaken the validity of the conclusions, while a rate of 60% is unacceptably low. Leedy and Ormrod (2001:185) regard 70% as a high response rate. In contrast, Fouche (1998:153) considers a response rate of 50% as adequate. It is, therefore, evident that researchers have divergent views with regard to an acceptable response rate and that there is no existing general rule concerning the safe frequency of questionnaire returns (Ross & Rust, 1997: 437). The response rate for the sample of urban school principals is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Response rate for the sample of principals per district

Education district	Questionnaire sent out		Questionnaires Returned		Questionnaires used	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Xhariep	31	100	20	64,5	20	64,5
Fezile Dabi	77	100	51	66,2	49	63,6
Lejweleputswa	95	100	64	67,4	54	56,8
Motheo	148	100	92	62,2	88	59,5
Thabo-Mofutsanyana	149	100	123	82,6	111	74,5
Total	500	100	350	70,0	322	64,4

From the above table, it is clear that of the 500 questionnaires that were representing 52.5% of the total population of 952 urban schools, 350 were received back. The researcher considered 52,5% to be a sufficiently large sample. Additionally, a response rate of 70,0% and a usable rate of 64,4% was considered to be sufficient. Accordingly, the results can be generalised in terms of the total population.

4.3.2.9 Computing the research data

The raw data were computed by the Department of Statistics at the University of the Free State. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences primer (SPSS primer) was used to do the computation. The mean for various combinations of the raw data was calculated and formed the basis of the computation.

4.3.2.10 Reliability of the quantitative data

Niemann *et al.* (2000:284) states that customarily reliability in quantitative research is mainly connected to the accuracy, stability, consistency and respectability of the research. In concurring with this view, De Vos (2002:168) and Mouton (2009:144) define reliability as the accuracy or precision of an instrument; as the degree of consistency or congruence between two independently derived sets of scores; and as the degree to which independent applications of the same measuring tool produce similar results under comparable or different circumstances. Mouton (2009:144) further emphasizes that reliability is a key validity criterion for data collection. He also states that some of the possible sources of error during data collection processes are the measuring tools such

as questionnaires, scales, tests and interviewing schedules. Therefore, the extent to which a measurement instrument is free from error indicates its reliability.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used on the scale items of the questionnaire to measure the instrument's internal consistency and hence its reliability. Schmitt (1996:350) states that it is absolutely important to calculate and report Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency for any scales or subscales that the researcher may be using.

In this study the alpha coefficients on the importance of the values to all respondents and the opportunity provided by their present work environment to satisfy these values were as follows:

> ➢ Scale: Importance = 0,883
> ➢ Scale: Opportunity = 0,882

Reliability on the scale items of the questionnaire for various subgroups of the sample was also calculated by means of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient and the results are as presented in table 4.5 below:

Table 4.5: Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient: Reliability of the questionnaire for the various subgroups

Subgroup: Gender	
Scale: Importance Male = 0,891 Female = 0,859	Scale: opportunity Male = 0,894 Female = 0,840
Subgroup: Learner Number	
Scale: Importance ‹ 650 = 0,859 650+ = 0,866	Scale: opportunity ‹ 650 = 0,907 650+ = 0,852
Subgroup: Principal Experience	
Scale: Importance ‹ 5 yrs = 0,912 5 yrs+ = 0,872	Scale: opportunity ‹ 5 yrs = 0,892 5 yrs+ = 0,879
Subgroup: Age	
Scale: Importance ≤ 40 yrs = 0,890 › 40 yrs = 0,877	Scale: opportunity ≤ 40 yrs = 0,905 › 40 yrs = 0,877
Subgroup: School Category	
Scale: Importance Primary = 0,875 Secondary = 0,890	Scale: opportunity Primary = 0,879 Secondary = 0,886
Subgroup: Academic Qualifications	
Scale: Importance Matric + Dipl = 0816 Bachelors + = 0,889	Scale: opportunity Matric + Dipl = 0,853 Bachelors + = 0,887
Subgroup: Teaching Experience	
Scale: Importance 1-15 yrs = 0,825 15 yrs + = 0,886	Scale: opportunity 1-15 = 0,875 15 yrs+ = 0,882

Schmitt (1996:351) states that it is common for researchers to presume a 0, 70 alpha level as adequate or desirable. It is therefore, evident that the reliability of the questionnaire used in this study is high as the alpha coefficient level is above 0, 80 in all cases.

4.3.2.11 Validity of the quantitative data

Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measuring tool adequately measures what it is required to measure and thus provides an accurate picture of what is being investigated (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:122; De Vos, 2002:166). Gay (1992:154) emphasizes the necessity of validity and states that no quality of a questionnaire can make amends for inadequate validity.

The researchers Babbie and Mouton (2006:122-123), Neuman (2003:133) and De Vos (2002:166) state that there are four main types of validity:

- Content validity. Content validity refers to the extent to which a measure fully assesses the construct of interest or covers the range of meanings included within the concept. Therefore, content validity is aimed at addressing the question: Is the full content of a definition represented in a measure?

- Face validity: Face validity refers to the degree to which a questionnaire or an instrument appears to measure what it claims to measure. It is often regarded as a component of content validity which is established when someone reviewing the questionnaire or instrument arrives at the conclusion that it looks as if it is indeed measuring what it is designed to assess.

- Criterion-related validity: Criterion-related validity has its bases on some external criteria or standard and is established by comparing scores on a measurement instrument with an external criterion which is known or believed to measure the same concept or behaviour under investigation. It is important for the external criterion to be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

- Construct validity: Construct validity refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument successfully measures the theoretical construct that it is intended to measure e.g. attitudes, self-concept, anxiety, intelligence and achievement. Construct validity is therefore, largely concerned with underlying theory and is based on the logical relationships among variables.

In this study, the literature pertaining to job satisfaction of employees in general, and that of educators and principals in particular was explored. In studying the existing literature on job satisfaction, more insight was gained into the problem under investigation (Monnapula-Mapesela, 2002:232). The researcher, through the newly acquired knowledge from the literature review was, therefore, able to validate the research questionnaire on the basis of checking whether it was aligned with the existing body of knowledge on job satisfaction. Accordingly, the validity of the questionnaire was confirmed in section 2.3.3 (see Figure 2.10).

The questionnaire was also used to investigate the correspondence between the respondents' values/ needs in their ideal jobs and the opportunities provided by their present jobs to satisfy these values/needs. It was assumed that an increase of fit between value importance and reinforcers of the work environment would contribute to job satisfaction of respondents, while a decrease in value-reinforcer correspondence would decrease their job satisfaction (see section 1.1). A comparison of the results and conclusions that could be drawn from this study, with those arrived at by researchers such as Pii (2003) and Bohloko (1999) in investigating job satisfaction, served as confirmation to a very large extent, that the questionnaire did measure what it was intended to assess (see sections 1.1 and 5.2). The two researchers used a standardised Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, which is regarded as high in validity and reliability, to investigate job satisfaction of lecturers.

The next section provides an exposition of the qualitative approach used in this study which is aimed at complementing the results of the quantitative survey.

4.4 A QUALITATIVE APPROACH

Humans are complex social beings. Consequently, their behaviour, motivations, interests, needs and values may not be sufficiently explained by assumptions based on one research paradigm. It seems reasonable, therefore, to argue that a research survey on job satisfaction of principals will not necessarily provide all of the data needed to arrive at valid conclusions. The use of qualitative methods may then provide a more complete picture of the present situation regarding the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:130).

In qualitative research, the researcher is the main data gathering tool and is in direct interaction with the participants under study. The methods used for data collection include in-depth

interviews which are typically flexible in that they allow greater spontaneity and adaptation of the interaction between the researcher and the respondent. Respondents also have the opportunity to respond more elaborately and in detail, which is not the case with strictly regimented quantitative methods. The interaction is very useful to the researcher as he/she also has the opportunity to respond immediately to what the respondent says by tailoring follow-up questions to information provided by the latter. Additionally, open-ended questions used in in-depth interviews have the ability to elicit responses that may be unanticipated by the researcher and which are rich and meaningful to the respondent and explanatory in nature (Terre Blanche *et al.* 2006:273-274; Snape & Spencer, 2003:4; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:13).

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:13), although qualitative research designs are different from those applied in quantitative designs, they, however, are just as systematic as quantitative designs. The main difference is that in qualitative designs, emphasis is laid on collecting data in natural settings of respondents and data is represented in the form of words rather than numbers. Additionally, the researcher uses different methods to arrive at a deeper understanding of the content and context. The face-to-face strategy used by the researcher to collect information from participants in their natural settings is known as the interactive qualitative method. In-depth interviews form part of the interactive qualitative method.

In this study, the responses provided by the respondents in the quantitative survey were used as the basis for seeking a deeper understanding of the correspondence between the respondents' values and their present job environments. It is assumed that conducting in-depth interviews with some of the respondents, on some of the work aspects that they identified as sources of their dissatisfaction with their work environment, may lead to a better understanding of the challenges faced by some school principals in the Free State. In the next section, interviews and the way they were employed in this study are discussed.

4.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Flick (2006:204) and Coleman (2012:251) state that conducting an interview is a strategy used to collect verbal data as well as to gain insightful knowledge from individuals. In an interview, respondents are allowed to get involved and express their views, their perceptions and interpretation of a given situation. The researcher, as a key data collecting tool, motivates the respondents to reply fully and accurately, while avoiding biases arising from "social desirability, conformity, or other constructs of disinterest" (Hoyle, Harris & Judd, 2002:144). The researcher

should also talk about topics that address the research question and introduce aspects of the research question that were not yet mentioned (Flick, 2006: 204). This implies that the focus of the interview is decided by the researcher who is free to probe new areas of interest that seem to be pertinent to the research question (Gray, 2009:373).

One-to-one semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data in this investigation. Semi-structured questions allowed the researcher to ask probing and exploring questions aimed at explaining and clarifying the real causes of job dissatisfaction among Free State urban school principals (Patton, 2002: 343). The researcher was also able to explain or rephrase the questions that seemed to be unclear to the respondents. As indicated, the findings of the quantitative survey formed the basis of question formulation in the subsequent qualitative data. The researcher identified those aspects of the respondents' present work environment that evoked feelings of discontent in respondents. In particular, the researcher paid attention to the last open-ended question of the questionnaire in which the respondents were requested to describe any other aspect of their ideal job that was not provided for by their present jobs. The following aspects were identified as major causes of dissatisfaction among respondents: compensation, recognition and departmental policies and practices. The researcher also decided to include two other aspects, namely, security and working conditions whose ratings on opportunities provided by their job were just above 50% in the quantitative survey. In doing so, it was hoped that the questions pertaining to these two aspects would also be best answered through an in depth analysis of their impact on the job satisfaction of the respondents.

The researcher developed an interview protocol, which is a form of recording information during interview sessions (Creswell, 1994:48). The interview protocol was used during interview sessions with the selected principals. The researcher explained the purpose of the interview at the beginning of each session. He also sought permission to tape-record the proceedings. This permission was granted and the researcher further promised to send copies of the results to participants. In the following section, sampling strategies employed to collect the qualitative data are dealt with.

4.4.2 Sampling and site selection

Kelly (2006: 289) states that in qualitative research, theoretical saturation is reached when the researcher stops gathering new data because the new information no longer adds anything of value to the researcher's analysis of the problem under investigation. Saturation is attained when

the new data "becomes increasingly redundant, to the extent that it becomes repetitive". However, much as theoretical saturation is desirable, in practice researchers are required to present research proposals in which they are expected to specifically mention the sample size that they are going to use for data collection (Kelly, 2006: 289).

Kelly (2006: 289) explains that one of the ways that can be used to determine the appropriate sample is to examine the extent of theoretical development in the phenomenon under investigation. In a case where there is a strong body of existing theory, a small sample size which has to respond to fairly specific research questions can be selected. Job satisfaction, in general, has been widely researched. Consequently there is a strong body of existing theory on the phenomenon of job satisfaction. One would, therefore, reasonably consider a small sample size to be appropriate for data collection in this study. However, Kelly (2006:289) further points out that in cases where semi-structured interviews on aspects such as attitudes are used, a relatively large sample size of 10 to 20 respondents would suffice. Furthermore, there are no strict rules regarding sample size choice as constraints such as deadlines and budgets can be imposed on the researcher. On the basis of the above arguments, the researcher decided to interview ten urban school principals from the Thabo Mofutsanyana Education District.

The researcher employed convenience sampling as a strategy in selecting the ten participants to the interviews. In convenience sampling, the researcher identifies and selects respondents on the basis of their availability to participate in the study (Bickman & Rog, 2009:81; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:125). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:125) contend that although researchers need to be very cautious in using convenience samples, they, however, often provide the only possibility for research. Furthermore, the paramount aim of the study may not be to generalise but to gain a sound understanding of relationships that may exist between variables. In supporting the above contentions, Flick (2006: 130) asserts that the criterion of convenience in sample selection may, from time to time, be the only way to do an assessment with scarce resources of time and people. In selecting the sample, in this study the researcher ensured that all the categories that were assessed through the questionnaire were represented in the sample. For example, the sample comprised respondents such as males and females, high school and primary school principals.

4.4.3 Reliability of the qualitative data

Silverman (2011: 153) states that the challenge in interviewing lies in extracting information as directly as possible without contaminating it. In order to limit random errors and ensure the reliability of the findings, the steps recommended by Niemann, *et al*., (2000: 284-285) for increasing internal and external reliability of a study were followed.

Internal reliability refers to dependability during the research, and can be ensured by:

- Triangulation

  Mouton (2009: 156) maintains that the inclusion of triangulation - the use of multiple methods of data collection - is likely to enhance the reliability of the observations. In this study, the researcher used method triangulation to gather information through conducting semi-structured interviews, using questionnaires as well as reviewing the literature on job satisfaction to improve the dependability of the results. The researcher also used theoretical triangulation by involving quantitative and qualitative data collection and interpretation in a manner that allows the two research methods to complement each other. Furthermore, the researcher employed data triangulation by including more than one kind of data sources. This objective was achieved by including the personal views of participants gained through semi-structured interviews, responses from questionnaires and the literature review that included a variety of resources.

- Cross-examination (peer examination): it is a method used to determine whether casual misinterpretations infiltrated the results of the research. In this regard, the researcher compared his own findings in this study with those of other researchers who had previously dealt with the same phenomenon under investigation.

- Member checks: contradictions in findings were referred back to the participants for explanation or solution. Member checking was also done during interviews as topics were rephrased and probed to gain more complete and subtle meanings (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010: 331).

- Auditing: the researcher preserved all information pertinent to the research, including data, surveys and notes to enable independent persons to verify the findings.

- Mechanisation: the researcher used audiotapes to record data and to ensure its safekeeping. A laptop was also utilised to store and process data.

External reliability refers to the verification of the findings of the research, when the same research is conducted by independent researchers under the same circumstances and using the same participants (Silverman, 2011:154; Niemann *et al.,* 2000:285; Miles & Huberman, 1994:279).

In an attempt to ensure external reliability, the researcher embarked on the following procedure in line with recommendations made by Niemann *et al.* (2000:285) and Smaling (1994:82):

- The researcher provided a "thick" description of the status and role of participants (see section 6.2) as principals, their academic qualifications and the categories of schools that they were in charge of. The participants were considered as relevant because the study set out to investigate the level of job satisfaction among school principals in the Free State. The researcher also explained the rationale behind combining quantitative and qualitative research methods.

- The researcher also provided an exposition of the theoretical starting points and arguments by attempting to explain why positivism and interpretivisim were perceived as complementary in this study (see section 4.2).

4.4.4 Validity of the qualitative data

According to Flick (2006:317) and McMillan and Schumacher (2010:330) the validity of qualitative data can be reduced to a question of whether the researchers see what they think they see and hear what they think they hear; so that there could be evidence in the data which describes clearly how the data was interpreted. Consequently, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:330) state that validity in qualitative research refers to the extent to which interpretations of data have shared or mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher. For Denscombe (2010:299), validity is the degree to which qualitative researchers can demonstrate that their data is accurate and appropriate. Nevertheless, Golafshani (2003:602) contends that the concept of validity may be described by a wide range of terms in qualitative research. These include trustworthiness, credibility, quality, dependability, transferability and confirmability. However, for the purpose of this study, validity will be used interchangeably with trustworthiness and credibility, with the latter more relevant to internal validity.

In this study, the researcher employed strategies suggested by Niemann *et al.* (2000: 285), McMillan and Schumacher (2010: 330) and Babbie and Mouton (2001: 275-276) to enhance both

the internal and external validity of the qualitative data. Beginning with internal validity, the following measures were taken to ensure credibility of results:

- A comprehensive register of data, notes of relevant actions and divisions of data established to be used during data analysis was compiled.
- Transcriptions from the data were taken back to participants to verify whether what the researcher constructed from his data was actually what they said.
- All information and notes were recorded for data analysis.
- The researcher provided a verbatim account from transcripts and direct quotes.
- Interviews were either conducted in the participants' offices or in their homes.
- The researcher considered the process of supervision by his promoters as a form of audit trial.
- The researcher guarded against his own bias and views that could influence the responses of the participants. Although the interviews were conducted in English, the participants were, however, free to switch codes if they so desired.
- The researcher also actively searched for negative or extreme data from participants with the aim of identifying views that contradicted emerging patterns of meanings.
- The researcher used participants (principals) that were able to provide relevant information.
- The researcher used triangulation to validate data from interviews using different theoretical perspectives.

In a bid to enhance external validity (validity of the results regarding the intended object of study), the researcher employed the following measures:

- In chapter 4, the researcher gave an accurate description of the research process, reasons for the choice of methods, as well as the context in which the study was conducted.
- The researcher also provided a thick description of the research situation and context to enable others to assess whether and to what extent the research outcomes are valid or can be commendable in their own situation or setting.

4.5 MULTIPLE- METHOD APPROACH

Creswell (2009: 5) states that a multiple-method or mixed -method is a method whose focus is on gathering, analysing and integrating both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. The basic assumption underlying the multiple-method approach is that, combining both quantitative

and qualitative methods within the same study is likely to enhance the researcher's understanding of the research problem than when either approach is used alone. This implies that the integration of these two methods in a single study can be seen as an attempt to enrich the results of the study. In this study, both the quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized. Having used the quantitative survey as the primary method of investigating the job satisfaction of respondents, personal interviews were subsequently used to corroborate and validate the quantitative data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:340).

Consequently, in the qualitative inquiry phase, the semi-structured interview was used to provide respondents with an opportunity to indicate how some aspects of their job, identified in the quantitative analysis, impacted on their job satisfaction. Furthermore, the selected respondents were given an opportunity to mention and explain job factors that impact on their satisfaction other than those included in the questionnaire (Monnapula-Mapesela, 2002:222). Therefore, the researcher deemed it desirable to combine both the quantitative and qualitative methods in this study, because by using them he was able to incorporate the strength of each approach (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:401). Consequently, a more comprehensive picture of job satisfaction of respondents was attained, resulting in the overall improvement of the entire research.

The complexity of contemporary research questions necessitates the use of complex methods for arriving at valid answers. Therefore, pragmatic researchers who believe that qualitative and quantitative methods are not dichotomous and discrete (Tashakkori & Teddlie, in Bickman & Rog, 2009:284) are able to go beyond the qualitative-quantitative divide, and are flexible enough to use both methods in a manner that effectively answers their research questions. Monnapula-Mapesela (2002:223) argues that once the researcher is able to go beyond the qualitative-quantitative continuum, then the benefits of using both methods can be increased. Furthermore, multi-methods are important because one approach is not always adequate as a research method on its own (Gillham, 2002:2 & 82). Gillham (2002:81) also explains that the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods enables the researcher to overcome naive empiricism because questionnaires are seldom adequate as research tools to effectively deal with a complex world.

Babbie (2008:123) explains that each research method has certain strengths and weaknesses. Consequently, the danger always exists that the research product may partly reflect the method of enquiry used with its attendant strong and weak points. It is therefore advisable to mix both

quantitative and qualitative methods in a complementary way when investigating complex world issues. In addition, an integrated-method has the potential to lessen the possible research bias, corroborate data and support the validity of the research findings (Gray, 2009:205).

Babbie, (2008:123) points out that a valuable strategy in which various methods are used in a single study to test the same findings is known as methods triangulation. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:405) and Flick (2006:37) report that the main purpose of method triangulation is to provide a more comprehensive and complete picture of information by combining data analysis methods and complementing strengths and weaknesses or blind spots of each single method. Flick (2006:37) cautions that in combining quantitative and qualitative methods, none of the two methods should be regarded as superior to another. Rather, they should be seen as playing equal roles in the study, irrespective of the sequence in which they are placed. In this study, even though the research method used is primarily quantitative, the qualitative data used to validate the quantitative findings is not considered to be playing an inferior role in the investigation. Bush (2012:83) explains that a strategy such as the one used in this study, which combines the questionnaire with a semi-structured interview, is known as methodological triangulation. Flick (2006:390) suggests that at present, triangulation goes beyond validating findings from each method, arguing that it helps to enrich and complete knowledge, while transcending the ever limited epistemological potentials of each method at the same time. It was against this theoretical background that the researcher decided to combine a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview in investigating the level of job satisfaction of the respondents. The use of multiple methods, such as reviewing the literature on job satisfaction, conducting a survey and interviewing respondents, was aimed at searching for convergent evidence from different sources that would help enrich the study and enhance current understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Kelly, 2006:380). In conclusion, it is clear from the above arguments that researchers who aim at fully understanding any complex social reality should seriously consider integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods in their quest to arrive at valid and acceptable results.

4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Mouton (2001:243) argues that scientific research essentially involves the participation of human or animal subjects. Consequently, since humans have basic rights, when working with them to acquire material and information that will assist the researcher, it is crucial that the rights, interests and sensitivities of those involved are respected and protected. In supporting Mouton's argument, Sieber (in Bickman & Rog, 2009:107) suggests that a narrow focus by the researcher on completing the research project may easily result in neglecting some of the interests and views of the participants and of society at large. The outcome may well be a research project that fails and a society that learns to disrespect researchers. Some of the major ethical considerations that have to be observed and strictly adhered to by researchers in conducting scientific research are the following:

4.6.1   Voluntary informed consent

According to Sieber (in Bickman & Rog, 2009:111) voluntary means "without threat or undue inducement", while informed means what a reasonable participant in the research would like to know before giving consent. To this end, in this study the researcher sent a covering letter accompanying the questionnaire in which he explained the purpose of the research, its benefits and those who will benefit from it. A letter of approval for conducting the research, sought and obtained from the Free State Department of Education was also sent with the questionnaire. The names of the researcher, his supervisors and the university involved, were disclosed in the covering letter whose main purpose was to request permission to conduct research in the targeted schools (Mouton, 2001:244). The letter clearly indicated that participation in the research was voluntary (Appendix A).

4.6.2 Security from any form of harm (anonymity and confidentiality)

The security of the respondents in this study was assured by clearly indicating in the covering letter that their identities would remain confidential and protected so that any information acquired from them would not embarrass or harm them in any way.

4.6.3 Requesting permission to conduct research from the relevant authority

Before the actual commencement of the research, the researcher sought permission to do so from the Free State Department of Education. The purpose and benefits of the study were clearly outlined. Permission was subsequently granted by the relevant authority in the department (cf. Appendix B).

From the above ethical considerations in conducting scientific research, it is evident that for researchers to attain their objectives in seeking useful information about reality, they need to create an atmosphere of trust in which participants are willing to respond genuinely to questions so that valid and reliable results can be obtained. In this study, trust was created between the researcher and the participants through strategies such as ensuring anonymity and confidentiality, emphasizing the importance of voluntary consent, availing a permission letter to conduct research, explaining the purpose and value of the research and basically adhering to all ethical issues involved in conducting social research.

4.7 OBJECTIVITY OF THE RESEARCHER

Denscombe (2010:298) considers objectivity as referring to the absence of bias in the research. He maintains that objectivity denotes the impartiality and neutrality of the research in terms of the researcher's influence on its outcome. Furthermore, it indicates processes and procedures of data collection and analysis that are fair and even-handed. However, Denscombe (2010:301) cautions that it is important for qualitative researchers to recognize that no research is even free from the influence of those who conduct it because qualitative data are always the outcome of a process of interpretation by researchers. Consequently, the involvement of the researcher, who happens to be the measuring instrument in qualitative research, raises questions about the extent of his /her biasness in the interpretation of the data. It also raises questions about the researcher's prospects of keeping "an open mind" and his/her willingness to consider alternative and contradicting competing explanations of the data (Denscombe, 2010:302). Therefore, Mertens (2005:359) emphasises the importance of a confirmability audit to ensure that research data and their interpretation are not figments of the researcher's imagination. Confirmability audit may be achieved by using available evidence compiled during the research process, to check and trace the data to their original sources and to verify and validate the process of synthesizing data to arrive at conclusions (Mertens, 2005:359).

In noting that they cannot be completely neutral, objective or detached from the research process, researchers may reduce their biases (influence of the researcher's assumptions and preconception) by using reflexivity. Reflexivity refers to a rigorous self-scrutiny by researchers, which involves being aware of the effects of their methods, values, biases, decisions, relationship with participants and development of specific interpretations in the very situations and phenomenon that they are investigating (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010: 332; Denscombe, 2010:303). Therefore,

researchers should not deny their subjectivity as humans, but rather take it into account through employing different strategies.

In this study, the researcher, in recognizing and acknowledging the importance of objectivity in research ethics, genuinely attempted to adhere to the principle of reflexivity as explained above. Additionally, the researcher has a wealth of experience in educational issues. He has been an educator for more than 30 years and is currently holding a Masters degree in Education. The theme of his script, which constituted part of the M.Ed degree was: *The level of motivation of secondary school educators in the Thabo Mofutsanyana District of the Eastern Free State.* The vast experience that the researcher has in educational matters, his academic achievements and involvement in previous research, greatly assisted him to adhere to ethical issues as required in this study. Consequently, the researcher was able to avoid bias and remain neutral by not allowing his own beliefs, prejudices and perspectives to interfere in the research process.

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the research methodology that was used in this study. Firstly, it dealt with the philosophical assumptions underlying the methods of enquiry used to investigate the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in the Free State. The two philosophical assumptions were described and contrasted as well as the two major research strategies emanating from these assumptions. The rationale behind using the two strategies was given and how they could complement each other if carefully integrated. The type of data gathering instruments used was also given and described. Furthermore, research processes and procedures such as the request to conduct the study, a covering letter, sampling and follow-up activities were discussed. Ethical considerations were also dealt with. Finally, it was indicated that the major research design used in the study was the quantitative survey.

In the next chapter analysis, presentation and discussion of the quantitative survey will be embarked upon.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUANTITATIVE SURVEY DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the research methodology employed to investigate the job satisfaction of principals in the Free State was explained. The philosophical assumptions underlying both quantitative and qualitative research methods were briefly expounded. The rationale behind integrating the quantitative and qualitative approaches was given. Furthermore, the instruments used and the procedures followed in data gathering was described in detail. In this chapter, the main objective is to present, analyse and interpret the quantitative data collected with a view to explain in detail the existing relationship between needs and values that principals perceive as being important and essential in their ideal jobs and the opportunities that their present jobs actually offer to satisfy these needs. The assessment of this relationship is done in line with the Theory of Work Adjustment which posits that job satisfaction is a function of the fit between the employee's vocational needs or values and the reinforcer systems of the work environment (Arthur, *et al.,* 1989:32). An accurate analysis and correct interpretation of the quantitative data will assist in making educationally sound and valuable recommendations in the final chapter. It will further assist to formulate pertinent questions that will be valuable during the interviews in the next chapter.

5.2 VALUE IMPORTANCE AND OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES

Table 5.1 indicates the importance of the values of the target group in their ideal jobs in comparison with the extent to which their present jobs provide opportunities to satisfy these values.

Table 5.1 Comparison of value importance and opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents

Value description	Value importance n=322	Rank Order	Opportunity provided n=322	Rank Order	Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean		Mean			
1. Ability utilization	4.38	1	3.92	2	0.463	0.000*
2. Achievement	4.33	2	3.56	5	0.770	0.000*
3. Activity	3.90	17	3.86	3	0.037	0.553
4. Advancement	4.20	4	3.31	14	0.888	0.000*
5. Authority	4.23	3	3.98	1	0.255	0.000*
6. Departmental policies and practice	4.03	14	3.26	16	0.770	0.000*
7. Compensation	3.97	15	2.47	20	1.494	0.000*
8. Colleagues	4.05	10	3.53	6	0.522	0.000*
9. Creativity	4.18	5	3.53	6	0.646	0.000*
10. Independence	3.40	20	3.26	16	0.137	0.099
11. Moral Values	4.04	11	3.30	15	0.745	0.000*
12. Recognition	4.04	11	3.01	19	1.025	0.000*
13. Responsibility	4.04	11	3.41	9	0.634	0.000*
14. Security	4.16	6	3.24	18	0.925	0.000*
15. Social service	3.97	15	3.80	4	0.168	0.009*
16. Social status	3.78	18	3.49	8	0.286	0.000*
17. Supervision : human relations	4.08	8	3.40	11	0.674	0.000*
18. Supervision : technical	4.07	9	3.39	12	0.680	0.000*
19. Variety	3.78	18	3.45	10	0.323	0.000*
20. Working conditions	4.13	7	3.32	13	0.814	0.000*

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant

Table 5.1 indicates that the mean for each of the 20 values that have been described is above 3.00 with 14 of these means above 4.00. This implies that all the respondents consider the described values as their personal values as principals and are as important for their survival and well-being.

The table shows that the most important value for the respondents in their ideal jobs is the need to be given a chance to do something that makes use of their abilities (mean= 4.38). It also reveals that the need for authority is the most provided for by their jobs with regard to opportunities for satisfying (mean = 3.98). The table shows that the least important value is the need for independence (mean = 3.40). However, the table indicates that the need for independence is also one of the five values that are least provided for by the work environment in terms of opportunities for satisfying (mean = 3.26). This implies that just as respondents rate the need for independence as being low in terms of importance, equally, the work environment does not provide high opportunities for its satisfaction.

The table also indicates that four other important values following the need for ability utilization are respectively the need to achieve (mean = 4.33), give directions to others (mean = 4.23), be provided with an opportunity for advancement (mean = 4.20) and be provided with steady security (mean = 4.16).

The table reveals that four other values that are least important to respondents are: the needs for one's pay to compare well with that of other employees (mean = 3.97), the need to be busy all the time (mean = 3.90), the need for social status (mean = 3.78) and the need for variety (mean = 3.78). It is also clear from the table that three of the top most valuable needs for the respondents in their ideal jobs, namely, the need for ability utilization, the need for achievement and the need for authority, also fall within the category of the five top most needs that are afforded the opportunity to be satisfied by the respondents' present work environments. However, the table further shows that although the three top needs are provided an opportunity to be satisfied by the work environment, the difference between their means in terms of need importance and opportunities available for their satisfaction is statistically significant in each case. This finding suggests that a discrepancy still exists between what the respondents desire to have in their ideal jobs and what their actual jobs are offering them presently.

Table 5.1 indicates that whereas security (mean = 4.16) falls within the top five most valued needs, it is, however, one of the least provided for with regard to opportunities for gratification (mean 3.24). Similarly, the need for advancement (mean = 4.20) also falls within the top five highly desired needs. Nevertheless, it is ranked lowly in terms of opportunities for its fulfillment (mean = 3.31; rank = 13). This implies that there exists a wide gap between what respondents need

in their ideal jobs with regard to the two described needs and what their workplaces have to offer to satisfy these needs. Table 5.1 also shows that compensation (mean = 3.97) and recognition (mean = 4.04) are lowly ranked in terms of importance. Notably, the table clearly indicates that they are also the two needs least provided for in terms of opportunities for satisfaction. This finding is considered to be so intriguing that it needs further probing through interviews during the qualitative phase.

Another interesting finding revealed by Table 5.1 relates to the need for activity or the need to be kept busy all the time. In this case, the table shows that there is a close fit between need importance and opportunities provided for satisfying the need. For both need importance and opportunities available the means are 3.90 and 3.86, respectively. However, with regard to ranking, the need for activity is lowly placed in terms of importance (rank = 17), while it is highly placed with respect to opportunities for its fulfillment (rank = 3). Accordingly, it seems that the work environment is providing more opportunities for the satisfaction of a value that is of lesser importance to the respondents.

Finally, Table 5.1 indicates an overall significant disparity between what the respondents regard as their important values in their ideal jobs and the opportunities their actual jobs provide for the satisfaction of these values. This is clearly confirmed by the fact that the differences between the means of value importance and the opportunity to satisfy these values are in 18 of the 20 cases statistically significant.

The situation in Table 5.1 can also be represented graphically. Figure 5.1 clearly shows the relationship between the respondents' needs and the opportunities provided by the respondents' work environments to satisfy these needs. In all the figures presented in this chapter the need statements have been abbreviated as follows: Ability utilization (ABU), achievement (ACH), activity (ACT), advancement (ADV), authority (AUT), departmental policies and practices.

(DPP), compensation (COM), colleagues (COL), creativity (CRE), independence (IND), moral values (MOR), recognition (REC), responsibility (RES), security (SEC), social service (SSE), social status (SST), supervision: human relations (SHR), supervision: technical (SUT), variety (VAR), working conditions (WOC).

Figure 5.1: Graphical representation of the relationship between value importance and opportunities provided
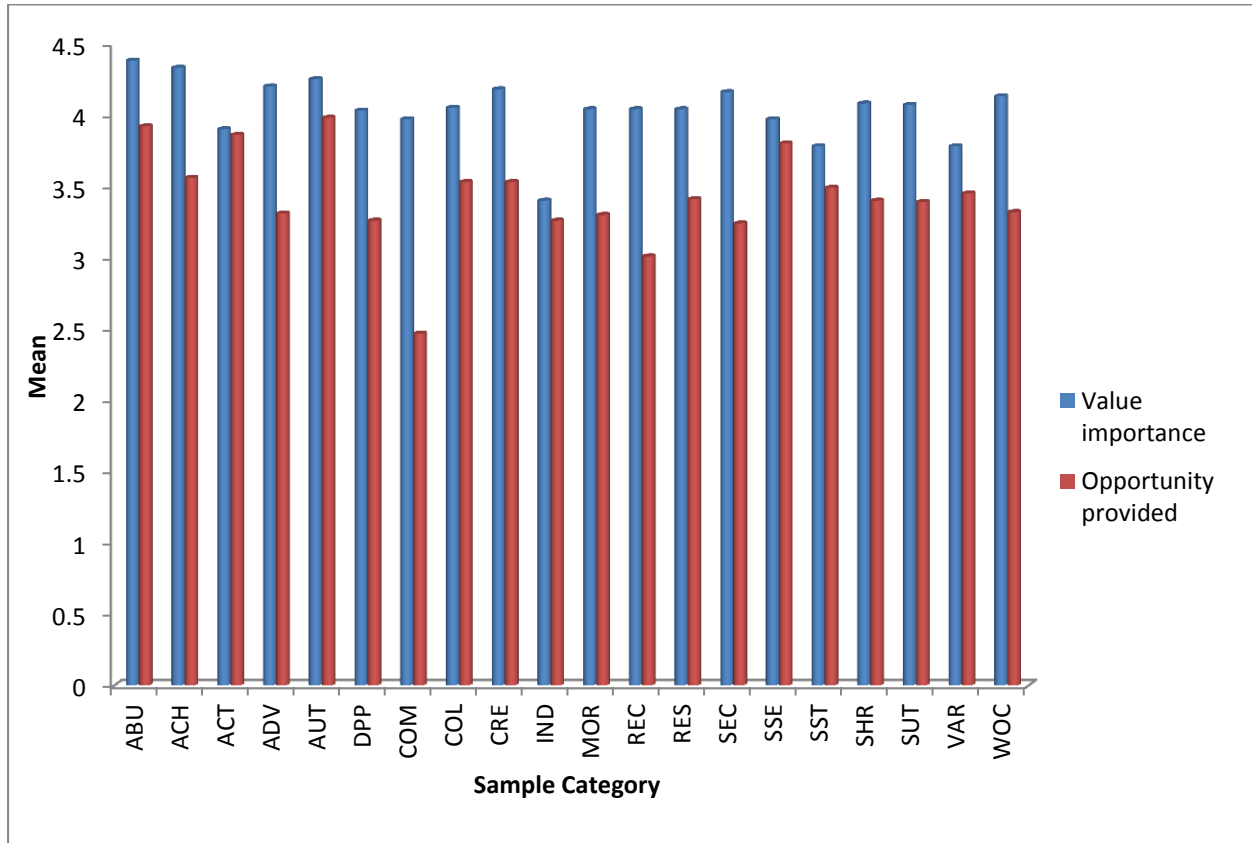
The relationship between values and opportunities is also graphically indicated below, using percentages (5=100%) to provide more clarity on the situation.

Figure 5.2: Graphical representation of the relationship between value importance and opportunities provided expressed as a percentage
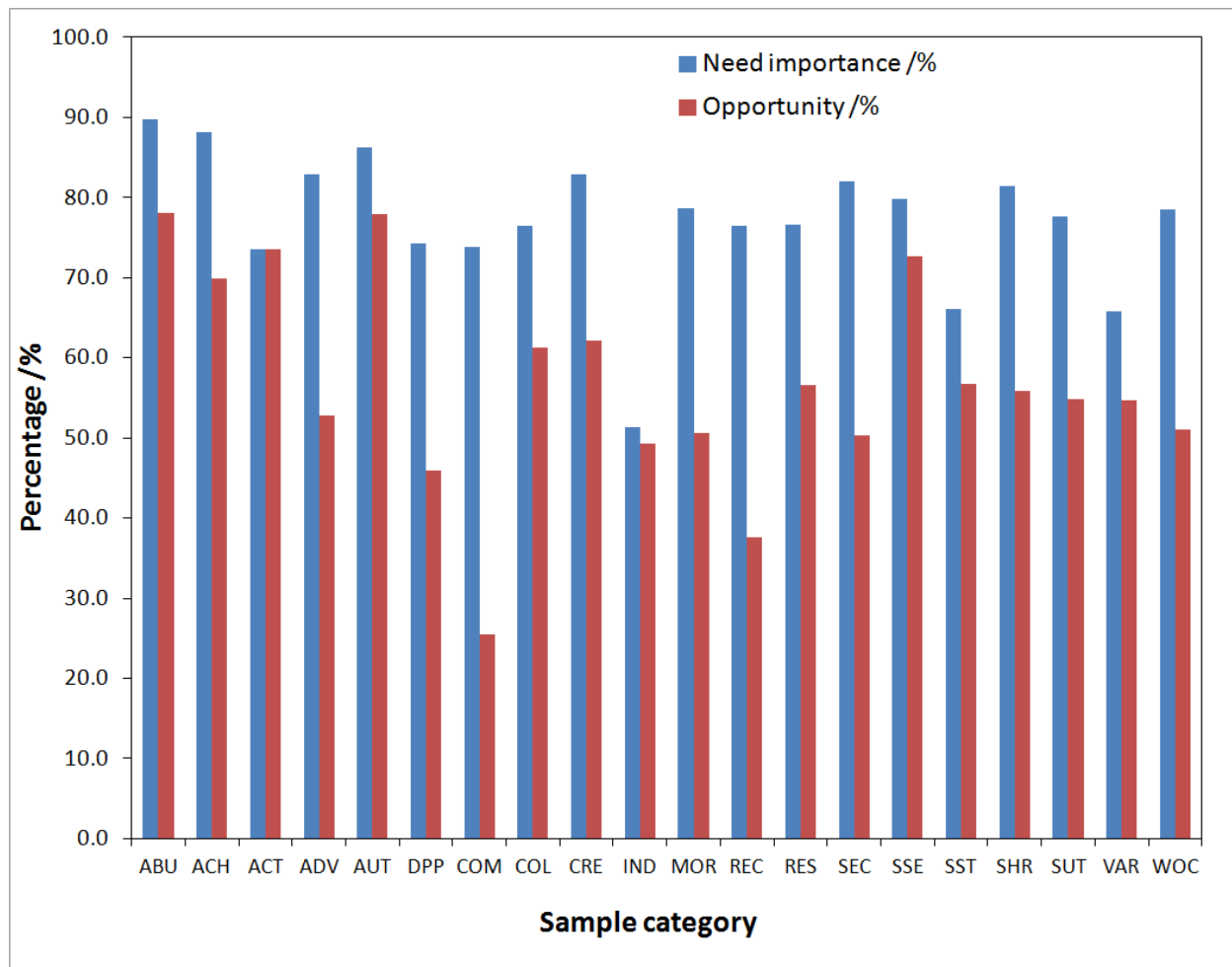
It is evident from Figures 5.1 and 5.2 that there exists a discrepancy in the relationship between the values of the respondents and what their work environments provide for the satisfaction of these values. Even though the findings are the result of subjective self-reports by individuals, it is important not to take them lightly as they reflect the perceptions of principals about their real work situations. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 clearly show that the need for activity is the only one that closely corresponds with the opportunities provided by the work environment for its satisfaction. As for the remaining values, the two figures indicate that opportunities provided by the work environment for their satisfaction is inadequate. In particular, values such as compensation, recognition, advancement, departmental policies and practices, creativity, moral values, responsibility, security, supervision: human resource , supervision: technical and working conditions clearly need to be improved in one way or the other as they may contribute to dissatisfaction on the part of principals.

The situation in Figures 5.1 and 5.2 regarding the correspondence between respondents' values and opportunities afforded by their work environment for the satisfaction of these values may best be understood by looking at their differences. This situation is illustrated by Figure 5.3 in which the differences are expressed as percentages.

Figure 5.3: Difference between individual values and opportunities
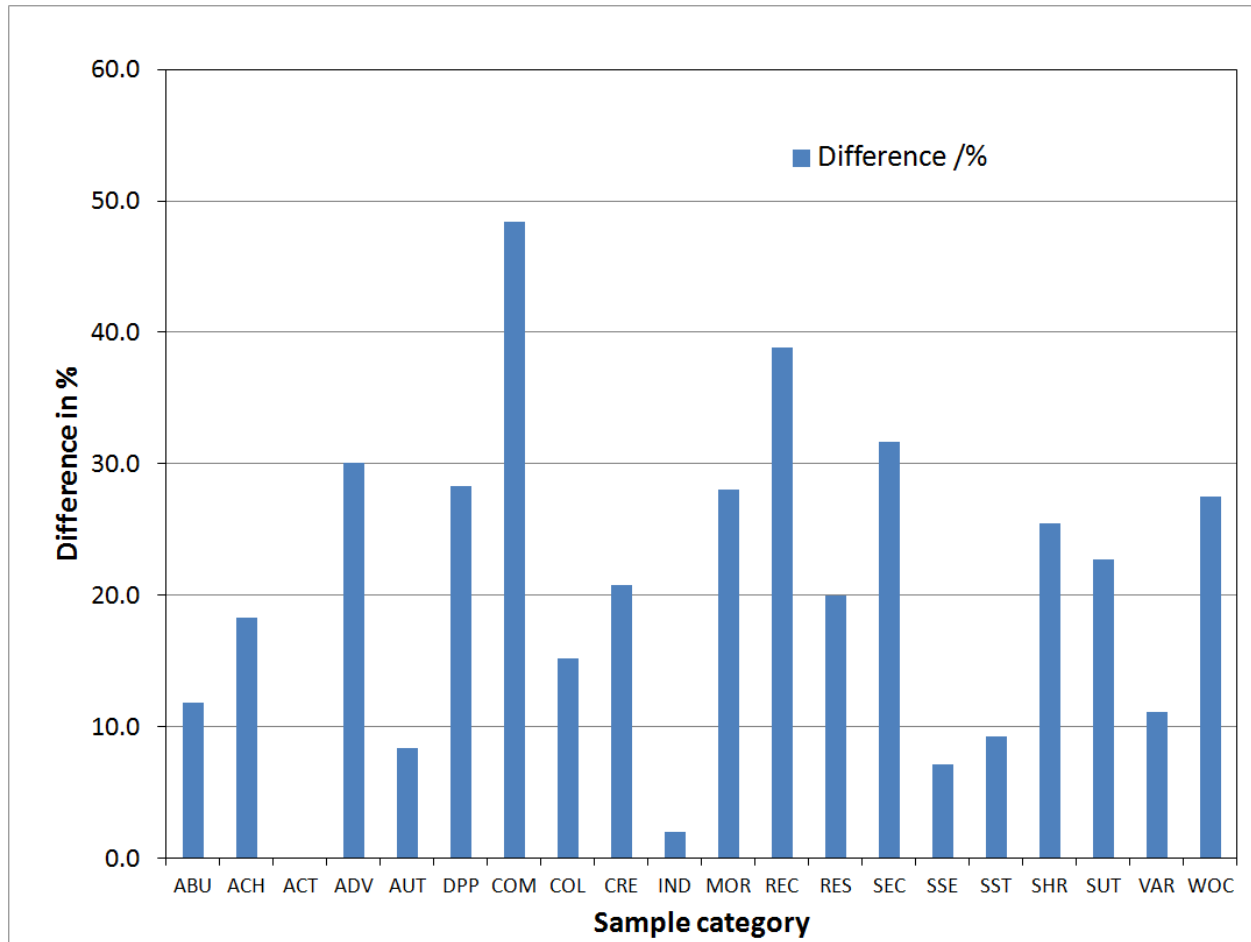
5.3 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO GENDER

Table 5.2 contains a comparison of the values of male and female respondents.

Table 5.2: Comparison of values of respondents according to gender

Value description	Male n=239		Female n=83		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.39	1	4.34	3	0.056	0.627
2. Achievement	4.31	2	4.37	1	-0.060	0.568
3. Activity	3.94	15	3.80	18	0.142	0.265
4. Advancement	4.21	3	4.18	10	0.024	0.820
5. Authority	4.21	3	4.29	5	-0.080	0.454
6. Departmental policies and practice	3.97	13	4.18	10	-0.206	0.108
7. Compensation	3.92	16	4.11	14	-0.192	0.214
8. Colleagues	4.01	10	4.18	10	-0.172	0.141
9. Creativity	4.18	5	4.19	9	-0.017	0.876
10. Independence	3.49	20	3.13	20	0.357	0.017*
11. Moral values	4.06	9	4.00	15	0.059	0.648
12. Recognition	3.96	14	4.25	7	-0.291	0.021*
13. Responsibility	4.08	8	3.94	16	0.136	0.251
14. Security	4.09	7	4.37	1	-0.281	0.011*
15. Social service	3.89	17	4.18	10	-0.290	0.021*
16. Social status	3.85	18	3.58	19	0.271	0.052
17. Supervision: human relations	4.00	11	4.30	4	-0.301	0.010*
18. Supervision: technical	4.00	11	4.27	6	-0.269	0.018*
19. Variety	3.73	19	3.90	17	-0.171	0.188
20. Working conditions	4.10	6	4.22	8	-0.166	0.337

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.2 shows some similarities between the three most important values of the two groups. These similarities are clearly indicated in Table 5.2 (a) below.

Table 5.2 (a): Comparison between the three most important values of males and females

Value Description	Rank Order (Value importance male)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance female)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4.39	3	4.34
Achievement	2	4.31	1	4.37
Advancement	3	4.21	10	4.18
Authority	3	4.21	5	4.29

Table 5.2 also indicates that both male and female respondents consider the need for independence and the need for social status as forming part of their least important values. Furthermore, the table shows that in 13 of the 20 cases, females rated their needs in their ideal jobs as more important than their male counterparts. Additionally, Table 5.2 clearly reveals that the differences of the means in five of the 13 cases are statistically significant. The situation regarding the different ways in which male and female respondents attach importance to the values in their work environments as described above is illustrated in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Graphical representation of value importance according to gender
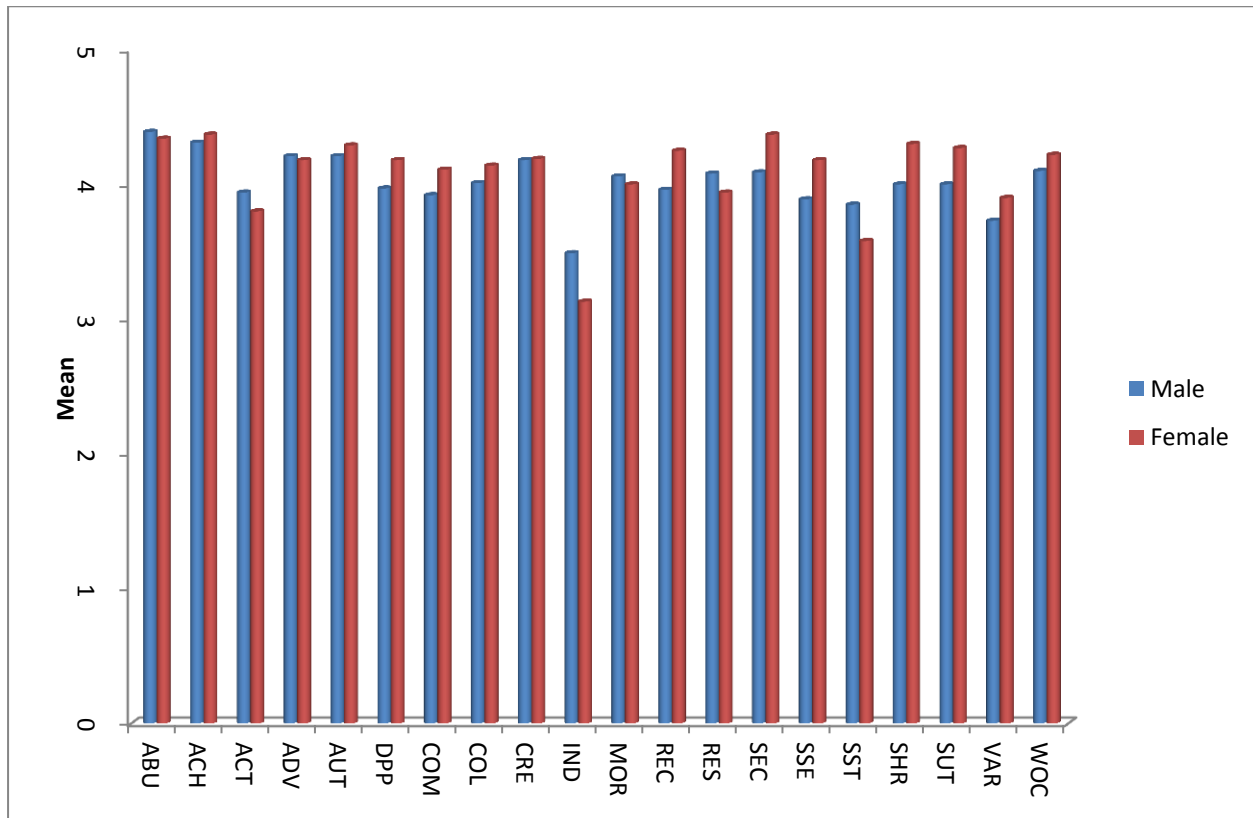
5.4 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES ACCORDING TO GENDER GROUPS

Table 5.3 contains a comparison of the opportunities of male and female respondents which satisfy their values.

Table 5.3: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy values according to gender

Value Description	Male n=239		Female n=83		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3.87	2	4.04	2	-0.162	0.241
2. Achievement	3.69	5	3.17	14	0.526	0.000*
3. Activity	3.82	3	3.99	3	-0.168	0.179
4. Advancement	3.33	15	3.25	12	0.078	0.611
5. Authority	3.95	1	4.06	1	-0.115	0.365
6. Departmental policies and practice	3.28	17	3.19	13	0.088	0.534
7. Compensation	2.56	20	2.23	20	0.328	0.043*
8. Colleagues	3.56	7	3.46	6	0.099	0.464
9. Creativity	3.58	6	3.40	8	0.184	0.193
10. Independence	3.31	16	3.13	16	0.173	0.243
11. Moral values	3.38	12	3.05	17	0.337	0.026*
12. Recognition	3.10	19	2.76	19	0.341	0.035*
13. Responsibility	3.44	10	3.33	11	0.110	0.446
14. Security	3.27	18	3.16	15	0.111	0.492
15. Social service	3.76	4	3.92	4	-0.158	0.208
16. Social status	3.51	8	3.45	7	0.065	0.602
17. Supervision: human relations	3.41	11	3.39	10	0.024	0.860
18. Supervision: technical	3.38	12	3.40	8	-0.017	0.905
19. Variety	3.37	14	3.69	5	-0.314	0.025*
20. Working conditions	3.45	9	2.93	18	0.524	0.001*

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.3 shows that male respondents rated their present jobs as providing more opportunities for value satisfaction than their female colleagues in 14 of the 20 cases. This is supported by the fact that in all of the 14 described values the means of the males are higher than those of the females.

In addition, the table indicates that in five of the 14 values the difference between the means is statistically significant. These five values are achievement, compensation, moral values, recognition and working conditions. However, it is worth noting that, in terms of importance, female respondents placed more value on achievement, compensation, recognition and working conditions than their male counterparts (cf. Table 5.2). Still, Table 5.3 also shows some similarities between values that are provided with the most opportunities for fulfillment by their present jobs. The values are indicated in Table 5.3 (a) below.

Table 5.3 (a): Comparison of the highest ranked opportunities for need satisfaction: males and females

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity male)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity female)	Mean
Authority	1	3.95	1	4.06
Ability utilization	2	3.87	2	4.04
Activity	3	3.82	3	3.99
Social services	4	3.76	4	3.92
Achievement	5	3.69	14	3.17
Variety	14	3.37	5	3.69

As illustrated in Table 5.3 (a), female respondents consider their jobs to be providing more opportunities for satisfaction of the first four described highest values than their male colleagues. It is also clear that while male respondents regard the value for achievement as one of the top five values afforded opportunities for satisfaction by their present jobs, their female colleagues have a different assessment with regard to this need (rank = 14).

Table 5.3 further shows that compensation and recognition are regarded by both male and female respondents as the least provided for in terms of value gratification. Additionally, the means for compensation in both groups is less than 3.00 (males = 2.56; females = 2.23). Moreover, Table 5.3 reveals that female respondents also experience their need for recognition and need for good working conditions as being provided opportunities that are below average. This is supported by the means that are below 3.00 in both cases. It is also revealing, to note that, in contrast, male respondents perceive their jobs to be fairly providing opportunities for their need for conducive

working conditions (mean = 3.45, rank =9). The scenario in Table 5.3 is graphically illustrated in Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.5: Graphical representation of opportunities to satisfy values according to gender
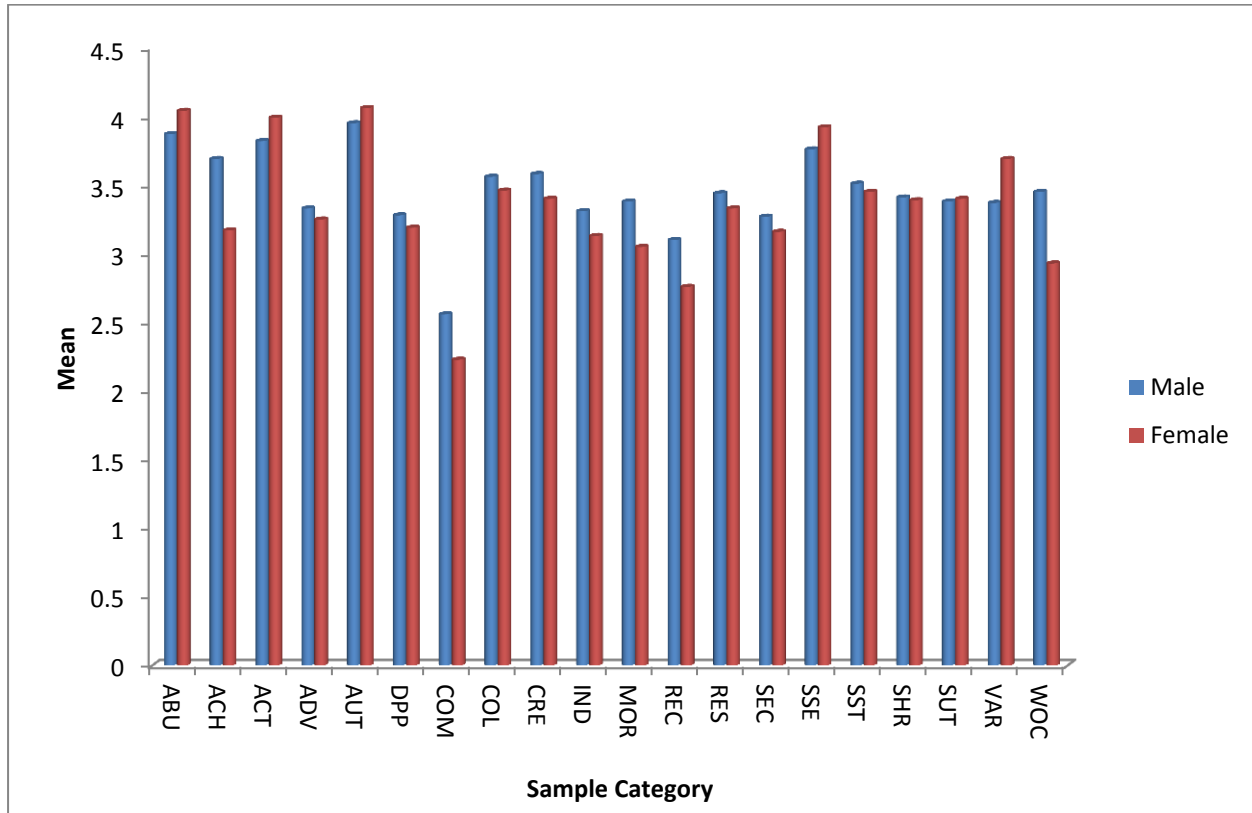
5.5 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO LEARNER ENROLMENT

Table 5.4 shows a comparison of the needs of respondents according to learner enrolment. Group 1 represents respondents with less than 650 learners, while group 2 represents those respondents who have 650 or more learners.

Table 5.4: Comparison of needs of respondents according to learner enrolment

Value Description	Group 1 n=152		Group 2 n=170		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.43	1	4.33	1	0.105	0.299
2. Achievement	4.34	2	4.32	2	0.012	0.896
3. Activity	3.94	17	3.86	18	0.076	0.496
4. Advancement	4.16	5	4.23	3	-0.065	0.488
5. Authority	4.27	3	4.19	5	0.076	0.419
6. Departmental policies and practices	4.09	10	3.98	12	0.109	0.332
7. Compensation	4.07	11	3.88	16	0.189	0.163
8. Colleagues	4.05	13	4.06	10	-0.013	0.901
9. Creativity	4.15	7	4.21	4	-0.055	0.569
10. Independence	3.40	20	3.39	20	0.007	0.956
11. Moral values	4.14	8	3.96	14	0.179	0.110
12. Recognition	4.01	15	4.06	10	-0.046	0.681
13. Responsibility	3.95	16	4.12	7	-0.176	0.088
14. Security	4.14	8	4.18	6	-0.038	0.701
15. Social services	4.02	14	3.92	15	0.102	0.353
16. Social status	3.67	19	3.88	16	-0.205	0.093
17. Supervision: human relations	4.06	12	4.09	8	-0.035	0.733
18. Supervision: technical	4.16	5	3.98	12	0.176	0.078
19. Variety	3.73	18	3.82	19	-0.087	0.444
20. Working conditions	4.20	4	4.07	9	0.127	0.233

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.4 shows some similarities among the four most important values for both group 1 and group 2. This similarity is clear from the information in Table 5.4 (a) below.

Table 5.4: (a): Comparison between the four most important needs for groups 1 and 2

Value Description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4.48	1	4.33
Achievement	2	4.34	2	4.32
Authority	3	4.27	5	4.19
Advancement	5	4.16	3	4.23

Table 5.4 also shows that independence is the least important value for both groups. From the above observation it can be concluded that school principals who participated in this survey, to a large extent share the same experiences in terms of personal value evaluation, regardless of the number of learners in their schools.

5.6 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES ACCORDING TO LEARNER ENROLMENT

Table 5.5 contains a comparison of opportunities to satisfy values of respondents according to school learners' enrolment. Group 1 represents respondents with less than 650 learner enrolment while group 2 represents those who have 650 or more learners.

Table 5.5: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy needs according to learner enrolment

Value description	Group 1 n=152		Group 2 n=170		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	**Rank Order**	**Mean**	**Rank Order**		
1. Ability utilization	3.80	4	4.02	1	-0.227	0.059
2. Achievement	3.51	6	3.60	5	-0.087	0.459
3. Activity	3.81	3	3.91	3	-0.103	0.349
4. Advancement	3.30	12	3.32	14	-0.015	0.910
5. Authority	4.00	1	3.95	2	0.047	0.672
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.20	18	3.31	15	-0.114	0.353
7. Compensation	2.47	20	2.47	20	0.003	0.983
8. Colleagues	3.62	5	3.45	11	0.165	0.161
9. Creativity	3.50	7	3.56	7	-0.065	0.602
10. Independence	3.27	13	3.25	17	0.017	0.897
11. Moral values	3.25	14	3.34	13	-0.091	0.492
12. Recognition	3.03	19	2.99	19	0.039	0.786
13. Responsibility	3.44	8	3.38	12	0.064	0.611
14. Security	3.21	17	3.26	16	-0.054	0.702
15. Social services	3.82	2	3.78	4	0.033	0.762
16. Social status	3.40	10	3.58	6	-0.175	0.106
17. Supervision: human relations	3.24	15	3.55	8	-0.304	0.012*
18. Supervision: technical	3.24	15	3.52	9	-0.281	0.023*
19. Variety	3.43	9	3.47	10	-0.036	0.767
20. Working conditions	3.40	10	3.24	18	0.160	0.241

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.5 shows that principals with 650 or more learners in their schools enjoy more opportunities to satisfy their values for supervision: human relations and supervision: technical, than their counterparts in schools with less than 650 learners. This is an important finding because the difference between the means of these values is statistically significant in each case.

Table 5.5 also indicates some degree of similarity between the four top most values of groups 1 and 2 with regard to the opportunities provided by their work environment for their gratification. Table 5.5 (a) illustrates this similarity.

Table 5.5 (a) Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Authority	1	4.00	2	3.95
Social services	2	3.82	4	3.78
Activity	3	3.81	3	3.91
Ability utilization	4	3.80	1	4.02

Furthermore, Table 5.5 also reveals some similarities between the values of groups 1 and 2 that are least provided with opportunities for their satisfaction. Table 5.5 (b) illustrates this relationship.

Table 5.5 (b) Comparison between the lowest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Security	17	3.21	16	3.26
Departmental policies and practices	18	3.20	15	3.31
Recognition	19	3.03	19	2.99
Compensation	20	2.47	20	2.47

It is evident from Table 5.5 (b) that the value for compensation is not only ranked the lowest in terms of opportunities for satisfaction, but has a common mean for both groups (mean = 2.47). It is also clear that the need for compensation and the need for recognition are both below average in group 2. However, the need for compensation and the need for recognition are both not highly ranked by both groups in terms of importance (see Table 5.4). But the need for security, which is ranked fairly high in terms of importance by both groups (see Table 5.4), is ranked among the lowest in terms of opportunities for its gratification. This implies that much as the respondents regard security as a valuable need, the reinforcers at the workplace are not adequately promoting it.

5.7 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO THEIR EXPERIENCE AS PRINCIPALS

Table 5.6 shows a comparison of the values of the respondents according to their experiences as principals. Group 1 represents principals with less than five years' experience and group 2 represents principals with five years' or more experience.

Table 5.6: Comparison of values of respondents according to their experiences as principals

Value description	Group 1 n=75		Group 2 n=247		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	**Rank Order**	**Mean**	**Rank Order**		
1. Ability utilization	4.37	1	4.38	1	-0.007	0.952
2. Achievement	4.17	3	4.38	1	-0.203	0.060
3. Activity	3.79	18	3.94	17	-0.149	0.260
4. Advancement	4.25	2	4.18	6	0.071	0.520
5. Authority	4.08	6	4.28	3	-0.195	0.077
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.87	15	4.08	12	-0.210	0.113
7. Compensation	3.87	15	4.00	15	-0.129	0.420
8. Colleagues	3.93	10	4.09	9	-0.156	0.198
9. Creativity	4.13	4	4.19	4	-0.061	0.590
10. Independence	3.57	20	3.34	20	0.229	0.140
11. Moral values	3.91	13	4.09	9	-0.178	0.178
12. Recognition	3.93	10	4.07	13	-0.135	0.301
13. Responsibility	3.99	8	4.06	14	-0.070	0.567
14. Security	4.07	7	4.19	4	-0.128	0.270
15. Social services	3.89	14	3.99	16	-0.095	0.467
16. Social status	3.81	17	3.77	19	0.044	0.761
17. Supervision: human relations	3.93	10	4.12	8	-0.188	0.119
18. Supervision : technical	3.99	8	4.09	9	-0.102	0.385
19. Variety	3.67	19	3.81	18	-0.143	0.288
20. Working conditions	4.12	5	4.13	7	-0.014	0.914

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.6 shows no significant difference in comparing the mean scores of the two groups. Furthermore, the table indicates that a relationship exists between the five most important values for groups 1 and 2. This similarity is shown in Table 5.6 (a) below.

Table 5.6 (a): Comparison between the first five most important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4.37	1	4.38
Advancement	2	4.25	6	4.18
Achievement	3	4.17	1	4.38
Creativity	4	4.13	4	4.19
Working conditions	5	4.12	7	4.13

Table 5.6 also shows some similarities between the four least important values of the two groups. Table 5.6 (b) illustrates these similarities.

Table 5.6 (b): Comparison between the four least important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Social status	17	3.81	19	3.77
Activity	18	3.79	17	3.94
Variety	19	3.67	18	3.81
Independence	20	3.57	20	3.34

5.8 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO THEIR EXPERIENCES AS PRINCIPALS

Table 5.7 exhibits a comparison of opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents according to their experiences as principals. Group 1 represents respondents with less than five years' experience, while group 2 represents those with five or more years' experience.

Table 5.7: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy values of respondents according to their experiences as principals

Value description	Group 1 n=75		Group 2 n=247		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.00	1	3.89	3	0.109	0.444
2. Achievement	3.60	6	3.55	5	0.053	0.700
3. Activity	3.69	5	3.91	2	-0.222	0.086
4. Advancement	3.11	18	3.37	13	-0.266	0.091
5. Authority	3.76	3	4.04	1	-0.280	0.032*
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.17	16	3.28	16	-0.110	0.449
7. Compensation	2.41	20	2.49	20	-0.077	0.648
8. Colleagues	3.48	8	3.55	5	-0.067	0.633
9. Creativity	3.75	4	3.47	7	0.277	0.058
10. Independence	3.28	15	3.26	18	0.025	0.871
11. Moral values	3.31	13	3.30	14	0.011	0.943
12. Recognition	3.00	19	3.02	19	-0.016	0.923
13. Responsibility	3.36	10	3.42	11	-0.061	0.683
14. Security	3.15	17	3.27	17	-0.121	0.471
15. Social services	3.93	2	3.76	4	0.176	0.175
16. Social status	3.56	7	3.47	7	0.086	0.501
17. Supervision: human relations	3.32	12	3.43	10	-0.109	0.446
18. Supervision : technical	3.31	13	3.41	12	-0.102	0.485
19. Variety	3.44	9	3.46	9	-0.017	0.904
20. Working conditions	3.36	10	3.30	14	0.056	0.727

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.7 reveals that respondents with more than five years' experience as principals (group 2) are afforded significantly more opportunities by their jobs to satisfy their value for authority than those with five or less years' experience (group 1). There is no other value where the difference between the two groups is statistically significant. Table 5.7 also shows that there is some similarities between the four top most values of groups 1 and 2 in terms of opportunities provided by the work environment for their satisfaction. Table 5.7 (a) shows these similarities.

Table 5.7 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4.00	3	3.89
Social Services	2	3.93	4	3.76
Authority	3	3.76	1	4.04
Activity	5	3.69	2	3.91

Table 5.7 also shows that there are some similarities between the five least ranked values of groups 1 and 2 with regard to the opportunities provided by the work environment for their satisfaction. Table 5.7 (b) shows this relationship.

Table 5.7 (b): Comparison between the least ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Department policies and practices	16	3.17	16	3.28
Security	17	3.15	17	3.27
Advancement	18	3.11	13	3.37
Recognition	19	3.00	19	3.02
Compensation	20	2.41	20	2.49

5.9 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS

Table 5.8 contains a comparison of the values of the respondents according to their age groups. Group 1 represents respondents who are 40 years old or younger. Group 2 represents those who are older than 40 years.

Table 5.8: Comparison of values of respondents according to age groups

Value description	Group 1 n=54		Group 2 n=268		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.13	1	4.43	1	-0.299	0.026*
2. Achievement	4.06	4	4.38	2	-0.329	0.007*
3. Activity	3.63	16	3.96	17	-0.326	0.029*
4. Advancement	4.09	2	4.22	5	-0.128	0.308
5. Authority	4.07	3	4.26	3	-0.187	0.134
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.81	6	4.07	14	-0.256	0.088
7. Compensation	3.78	9	4.00	15	-0.226	0.212
8. Colleagues	3.63	16	4.14	9	-0.508	0.000*
9. Creativity	3.98	5	4.22	5	-0.239	0.062
10. Independence	3.50	18	3.38	20	0.123	0.484
11. Moral values	3.76	13	4.10	11	-0.341	0.022*
12. Recognition	3.78	9	4.09	12	-0.312	0.035*
13. Responsibility	3.78	9	4.09	12	-0.316	0.022*
14. Security	3.74	14	4.25	4	-0.509	0.000*
15. Social services	3.80	8	4.00	15	-0.204	0.165
16. Social status	3.48	19	3.84	19	-0.358	0.028*
17. Supervision: human relations	3.81	6	4.13	10	-0.316	0.021*
18. Supervision : technical	3.67	15	4.15	8	-0.479	0.000*
19. Variety	3.43	20	3.85	18	-0.421	0.005*
20. Working conditions	3.78	9	4.20	7	-0.424	0.003*

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.8 clearly indicates that respondents who are older than 40 years (group 2) regard 19 of the 20 described work values as more important than those who are 40 years old or younger (group 1). This finding is further supported by the revelation that in 13 of the 20 described work values the differences between the means of groups 1 and 2 are statistically significant.

Table 5.8 also shows some correspondence between the five most important values of group 1 and group 2. Table 5.8 (a) indicates this similarity.

Table 5.8 (a): Comparison between the five top most important needs of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4,13	1	4,43
Advancement	2	4.09	5	4.22
Authority	3	4.07	3	4.26
Achievement	4	4.06	2	4.38
Creativity	5	3.98	5	4.22

Table 5.8 further shows a certain degree of similarity between the five least important values of the two groups. This relationship is shown in table 5.8 (b).

Table 5.8 (b): Comparison between the four least important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Activity	16	3.63	17	3.96
Colleagues	16	3.63	9	4.14
Independence	18	3.50	20	3.38
Social status	19	3.48	19	3.84
Variety	20	3.43	18	3.85

The scenario in Table 5.8 is vividly clear in Figure 5.6 where it is graphically illustrated.

Figure 5.6: Graphical representation of value importance according to age
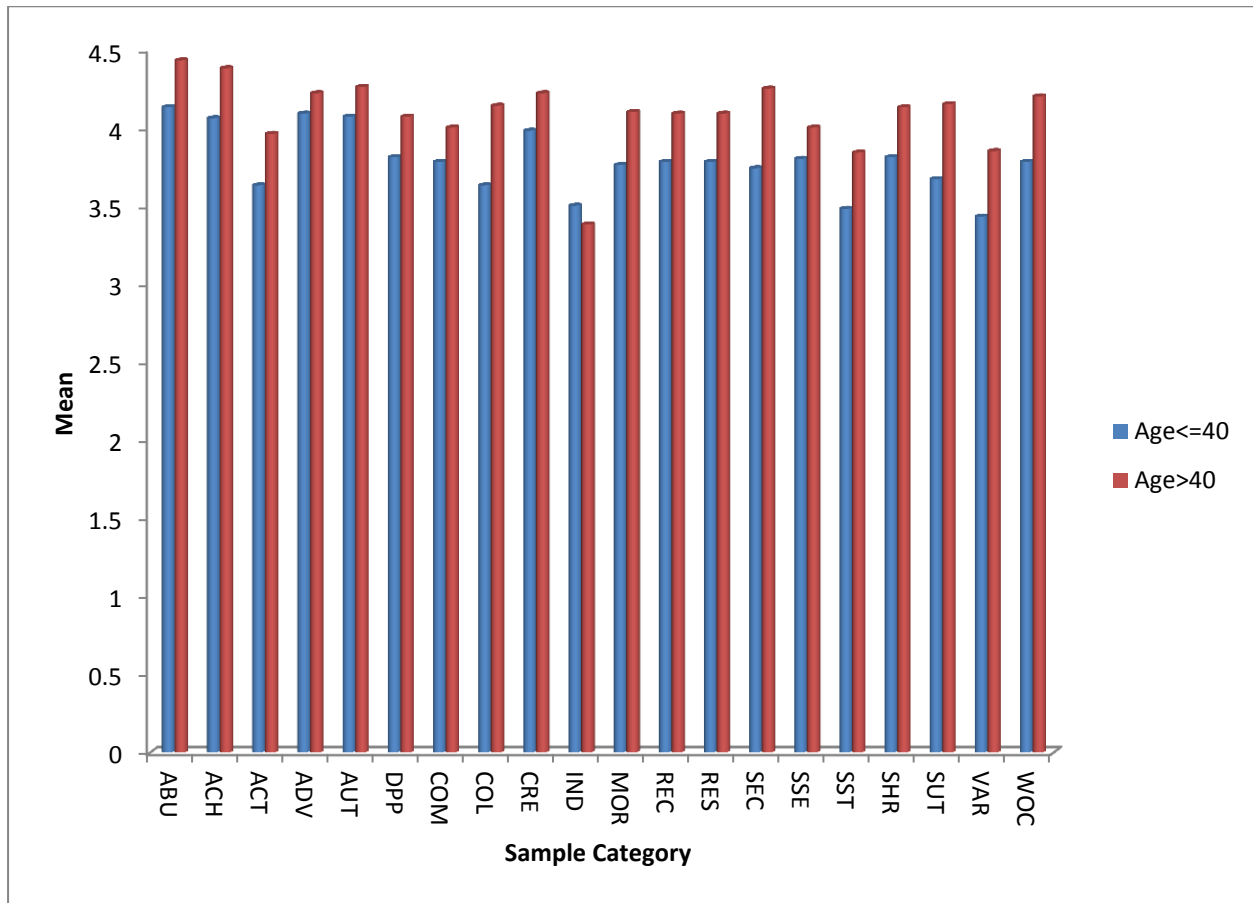
5.10 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES ACCORDING TO AGE GROUP

Table 5.9 contains a comparison of the opportunities of respondents of different age groups which satisfy their values. Group 1 represents respondents who are 40 years old or younger, while group 2 represents those who are older than 40 years.

Table 5.9: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy values according to age groups

Value description	Group 1 n=54		Group 2 n=268		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	**Rank Order**	**Mean**	**Rank Order**		
1. Ability utilization	3.70	2	3.96	2	-0.255	0.113
2. Achievement	3.39	5	3.59	6	-0.204	0.192
3. Activity	3.41	4	3.96	2	-0.548	0.000*
4. Advancement	3.28	12	3.32	15	-0.039	0.825
5. Authority	3.78	1	4.01	1	-0.237	0.109
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.31	10	3.25	18	0.069	0.677
7. Compensation	2.63	20	2.44	20	0.189	0.319
8. Colleagues	3.07	17	3.62	5	-0.549	0.000*
9. Creativity	3.33	7	3.57	7	-0.241	0.145
10. Independence	3.19	14	3.28	17	-0.091	0.600
11. Moral values	3.06	18	3.35	13	-0.291	0.099
12. Recognition	3.17	16	2.98	19	0.185	0.331
13. Responsibility	3.28	12	3.43	10	-0.155	0.358
14. Security	2.98	19	3.29	16	-0.310	0.101
15. Social services	3.54	3	3.85	4	-0.314	0.033*
16. Social status	3.35	6	3.52	8	-0.171	0.239
17. Supervision: human relations	3.31	10	3.42	11	-0.107	0.510
18. Supervision : technical	3.33	7	3.40	12	-0.062	0.707
19. Variety	3.33	7	3.48	9	-0.144	0.380
20. Working conditions	3.19	14	3.34	14	-0.158	0.387

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.9 shows a strong similarity between the five top most important values of groups 1 and 2 with regard to opportunities provided by their present jobs for their fulfillment. This relationship is displayed in Table 5.9 (a).

Table 5.9 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Authority	1	3.78	1	4.01
Ability Utilization	2	3.70	2	3.96
Social Services	3	3.54	4	3.85
Activity	4	3.41	2	3.96
Achievement	5	3.39	5	3.59

It is also clear from Table 5.9 (a) that respondents older than 40 years (group 2) seem to enjoy more opportunities for the satisfaction of their top most values than those who are 40 years old or younger. It can also be discerned from Table 5.9 that, in general, respondents who are older than 40 years enjoy more opportunities to satisfy their work values than those who are 40 years old or younger. This seems to be the case in 17 of the 20 described values. Furthermore, the differences between the means in three of the 17 values are statistically significant. A comparison between Table 5.9 (a) and Table 5.8 (a) further shows that three of the two groups top most values, namely, ability utilization, authority and achievement are also ranked high with regard to the opportunities provided for their satisfaction by the respondents' work environments. However, it is evident from comparing the two tables that a disparity still exists between the importance of these needs to the respondents and the opportunities provided for their gratification by the respondents' present jobs. Additionally, Table 5.9 reveals that compensation receives the least attention in terms of opportunities provided by the work environment for value satisfaction.

Table 5.9 further reveals that there is little similarity between the five least ranked values of the two groups in terms of opportunities provided by the environment for their gratification. Table 5.9 (b) illustrates this relationship.

Table 5.9 (b): Comparison between the lowest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Recognition	16	3.17	19	2.98
Colleagues	17	3.07	5	3.62
Moral Values	18	3.06	13	3.35
Security	19	2.98	16	3.29
Compensation	20	2.63	20	2.44

5.11 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO SCHOOL CATEGORY

Table 5.10 shows a comparison of the values of the respondents according to school category. Group 1 represents respondents who are Primary School principals, while group 2 represents those who are Secondary School principals.

Table 5.10: Comparison of values of respondents according to school category

Value description	Group 1 n=181		Group 2 n=141		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.25	1	4.55	1	-0.297	0.003*
2. Achievement	4.15	3	4.55	1	-0.398	0.000*
3. Activity	3.93	14	3.87	17	0.063	0.576
4. Advancement	4.04	8	4.40	3	-0.353	0.000*
5. Authority	4.22	2	4.25	6	-0.033	0.728
6. Departmental policies and practices	4.07	6	3.98	15	0.088	0.439
7. Compensation	3.88	17	4.07	14	-0.187	0.171
8. Colleagues	3.99	10	4.13	12	-0.133	0.197
9. Creativity	4.08	5	4.30	5	-0.222	0.021*
10. Independence	3.28	20	3.55	20	-0.277	0.036*
11. Moral values	3.97	13	4.14	11	-0.175	0.121
12. Recognition	3.93	14	4.18	8	-0.249	0.025*
13. Responsibility	3.93	14	4.18	8	-0.256	0.013*
14. Security	4.10	4	4.24	7	-0.136	0.167
15. Social services	4.02	9	3.89	16	0.128	0.246
16. Social status	3.77	18	3.79	19	-0.026	0.831
17. Supervision: human relations	4.06	7	4.10	13	-0.039	0.709
18. Supervision : technical	3.99	10	4.16	10	-0.162	0.107
19. Variety	3.72	19	3.84	18	-0.120	0.295
20. Working conditions	3.98	12	4.33	4	-0.348	0.001*

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.10 reveals that Secondary School principals (group 2) rate 17 of the 20 described work values more importantly than their Primary School counterparts (group 1). It is also clear from the table that the difference between the means in eight of the 18 identified values is statistically

significant. Nevertheless, Table 5.10 additionally indicates a correspondence between the five most important values of groups 1 and 2. This similarity is clearly evident in Table 5.10 (a).

Table 5.10 (a): Comparison between the five top most important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Ability utilization	1	4.25	1	4.55
Authority	2	4.22	6	4.25
Achievement	3	4.15	1	4.55
Security	4	4.10	7	4.24
Creativity	5	4.08	5	4.30

Table 5.10 (a) also reveals that Secondary School principals place a higher value on the five mentioned values than their counterparts in Primary Schools. Table 5.10 further indicates that the three least important values for both groups 1 and 2 are social status, variety and independence respectively. A comparison of importance of values according to school category is presented graphically in Figure 5.7. Figure 5.7 clearly illustrates how Primary School principals compare with their Secondary School counterparts in rating the 20 work values.

Figure 5.7: Graphical representation of value importance according to school category
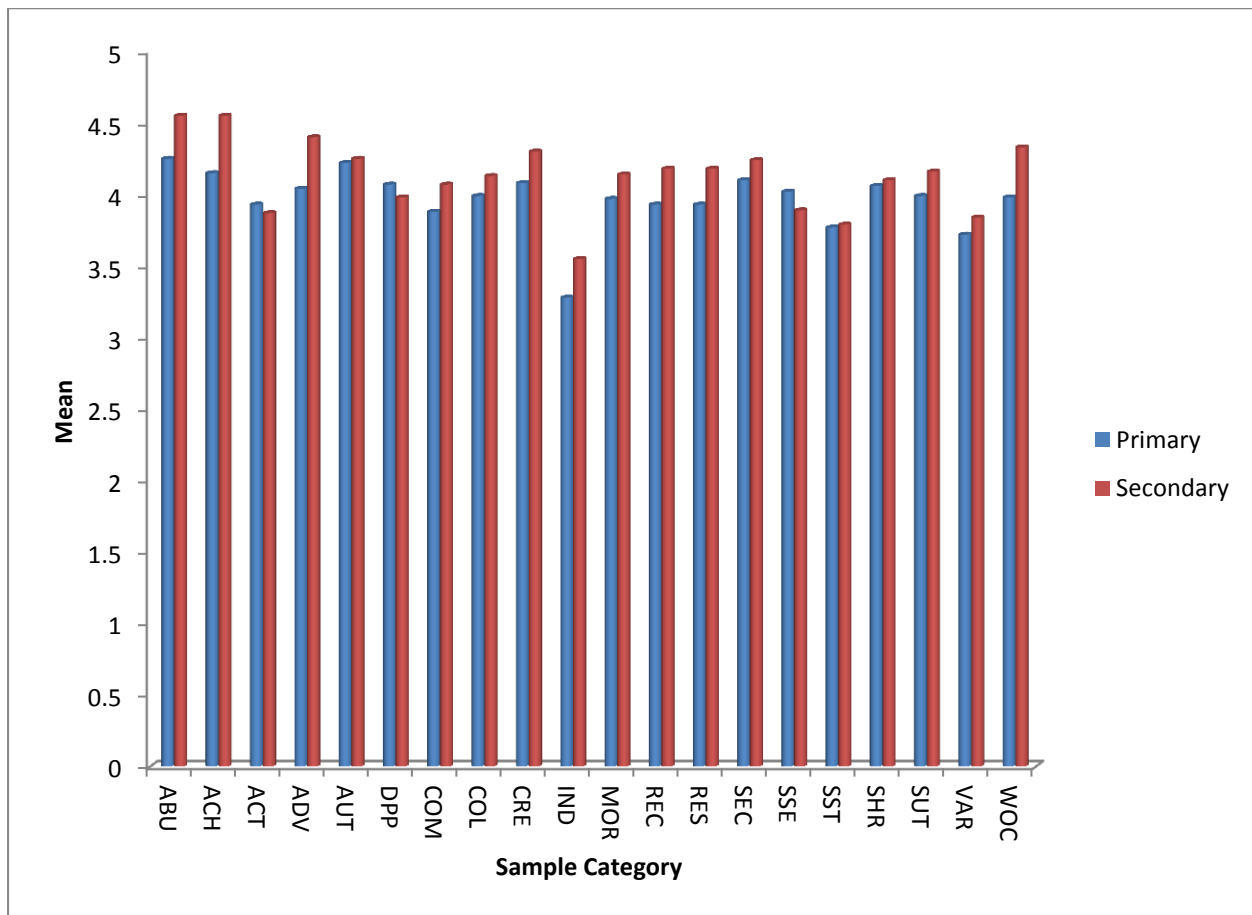
5.12 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY NEEDS OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO SCHOOL CATEGORY

Table 5.11 contains a comparison of the opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents according to school category. Group 1 represents Primary School principals, while group 2 represents Secondary School principals.

Table 5.11: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy values according to school category

Value description	Group 1 n=181		Group 2 n=141		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3.90	2	3.94	3	-0.048	0.692
2. Achievement	3.50	6	3.63	5	-0.128	0.276
3. Activity	3.75	4	4.01	2	-0.268	0.015*
4. Advancement	3.40	12	3.19	17	0.212	0.114
5. Authority	3.93	1	4.04	1	-0.107	0.336
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.33	14	3.16	18	0.168	0.174
7. Compensation	2.64	20	2,26	20	0.373	0.009*
8. Colleagues	3.50	6	3.57	7	-0.065	0.587
9. Creativity	3.46	10	3.63	5	-0.173	0.166
10. Independence	3.18	18	3.36	11	-0.179	0.169
11. Moral values	3.28	16	3.32	12	-0.037	0.779
12. Recognition	3.03	19	2.99	19	0.035	0.809
13. Responsibility	3.31	15	3.53	8	-0.223	0.079
14. Security	3.24	17	3.24	15	-0.004	0.980
15. Social services	3.76	3	3.84	4	-0.082	0.462
16. Social status	3.51	5	3.47	9	0.046	0.676
17. Supervision: human relations	3.49	8	3.30	13	0.188	0.122
18. Supervision : technical	3.45	11	3.30	13	0.143	0.253
19. Variety	3.48	9	3.43	10	0.050	0.688
20. Working conditions	3.38	13	3.23	16	0.147	0.284

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.11 shows that Secondary School principals (group 2) are afforded more opportunities (11 against 9) to satisfy their values than Primary School principals (group 1). There is only one value, namely, activity, in which the difference is statistically significant. However, the table further

indicates that Primary School principals enjoy more opportunities to satisfy their work values in nine cases than their counterparts in Secondary Schools. Of the nine cases, the difference between the means is statistically significant only in the value for compensation. Yet, Table 5.11 shows a similarity between the four top most values of groups 1 and 2 in terms of the opportunities provided by their present work environments for their satisfaction. This relationship is illustrated in Table 5.11 (a).

Table 5.11 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Authority	1	3.93	1	4.04
Ability utilization	2	3.90	3	3.94
Social services	3	3.76	4	3.84
Activity	4	3.75	2	4.01

Table 5.11(a) further reveals that Secondary School principals are provided with more opportunities to satisfy their four top most values than their Primary School colleagues. Table 5.11 also shows that recognition and compensation are the least satisfied values for both groups. Interestingly, the need for activity forms part of the four most satisfied values. However, Table 5.10 clearly shows that this value is not considered to be amongst the top 13 most important values of both groups.

5.13 COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS

Table 5.12 shows the values of respondents according to respondents' qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with a matric plus diploma while group 2 represents respondents with Bachelors' degrees and higher.

Table 5.12: Comparison of the values of respondents according to their qualifications

Value description	Group 1 n=57		Group 2 n=265		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	4.46	3	4.36	1	0.094	0.477
2. Achievement	4.56	1	4.28	2	0.282	0.018*
3. Activity	4.14	15	3.85	17	0.291	0.046*
4. Advancement	4.30	7	4.18	3	0.121	0.324
5. Authority	4.51	2	4.17	4	0.339	0.005*
6. Departmental policies and practices	4.16	14	4.00	11	0.158	0.283
7. Compensation	4.33	5	3.89	16	0.447	0.011*
8. Colleagues	4.37	4	3.98	14	0.384	0.004*
9. Creativity	4.32	6	4.15	5	0.165	0.188
10. Independence	3.54	20	3.37	20	0.178	0.302
11. Moral values	4.28	9	3.99	13	0.288	0.049*
12. Recognition	4.21	13	4.00	11	0.211	0.146
13. Responsibility	4.12	16	4.02	10	0.100	0.459
14. Security	4.30	7	4.14	6	0.162	0.205
15. Social services	4.02	17	3.95	15	0.063	0.622
16. Social status	3.63	19	3.81	18	-0.180	0.262
17. Supervision: human relations	4.25	11	4.04	8	0.204	0.127
18. Supervision : technical	4.23	12	4.03	9	0.198	0.129
19. Variety	3.96	18	3.74	19	0.229	0.124
20. Working conditions	4.28	9	4.10	7	0.183	0.189

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.12 indicates that principals whose qualifications are a matric plus a professional diploma only (group 1) rate 19 of the 20 work values more importantly than those holding Bachelors'

degrees (group 2) and higher. Moreover, in only six of these 19 work values the differences between the means are statistically significant. Still, table 5.12 shows some similarities between the top most important values of groups 1 and 2. Table 5.12 (a) displays these similarities.

Table 5.12 (a): Comparison between the three top most important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Achievement	1	4.56	2	4.28
Authority	2	4.51	4	4.17
Ability utilization	3	4.46	1	4.36

Table 5.12 also shows a correspondence between the least important values of groups 1 and 2. Table 5.12 (b) shows this relationship.

Table 5.12 (b): Comparison between the least important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Variety	18	3.96	19	3.74
Social status	19	3.63	18	3.81
Independence	20	3.54	20	3.37

5.14 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY THE VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS

Table 5.13 contains a comparison of opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents according to respondents' qualifications. Group 1 represents respondents with a matric and a diploma. Group 2 represents respondents with a Bachelor degree and higher qualification.

Table 5.13: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents according to respondents' qualifications

Value description	Group 1 n=57		Group 2 n=265		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3.93	2	3.91	2	0.017	0.916
2. Achievement	3.26	11	3.62	5	-0.359	0.019*
3. Activity	3.89	3	3.86	3	0.038	0.790
4. Advancement	3.21	13	3.33	15	-0.122	0.486
5. Authority	4.05	1	3.96	1	0.094	0.516
6. Departmental policies and practices	2.98	17	3.32	16	-0.335	0.037*
7. Compensation	2.42	20	2.48	20	-0.062	0.739
8. Colleagues	3.40	7	3.56	7	-0.155	0.316
9. Creativity	3.35	9	3.57	6	-0.223	0.169
10. Independence	3.02	16	3.31	18	-0.296	0.081
11. Moral values	3.12	14	3.34	14	-0.213	0.219
12. Recognition	2.84	18	3.05	19	-0.207	0.267
13. Responsibility	3.35	9	3.42	10	-0.068	0.681
14. Security	2.84	18	3.32	16	-0.482	0.009*
15. Social services	3.68	4	3.82	4	-0.138	0.337
16. Social status	3.54	5	3.48	8	0.061	0.668
17. Supervision: human relations	3.39	8	3.41	12	-0.022	0.892
18. Supervision : technical	3.25	12	3.42	10	-0.169	0.296
19. Variety	3.46	6	3.45	9	0.003	0.984
20. Working conditions	3.05	15	3.37	13	-0.321	0.072

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.13 reveals that principals holding degrees are provided more opportunities to gratify their values in 15 of the 20 values than those holding a matric certificate plus a professional qualification only. Additionally, the differences between the means of three of these values are statistically significant in each case. However, table 5.13 indicates a strong correspondence

between the four top most values of group 1 and group 2 with regard to opportunities provided for their satisfaction by the respondents' present jobs. This similarity is illustrated in Table 5.13 (a).

Table 5.13 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups l and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Authority	1	4.05	1	3.96
Ability utilization	2	3.93	2	3.91
Activity	3	3.89	3	3.86
Social services	4	3.68	4	3.82

Table 5.13 also shows a similarity between the five values that are least provided for gratification by the respondents present work environment. Table 5.13 (b) shows this similarity.

Table 5.13 (b): Comparison between the five lowest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Independence	16	3.02	18	3.31
Departmental policies and practices	17	2.98	16	3.32
Security	18	2.84	16	3.33
Recognition	18	2.84	19	3.05
Compensation	20	2.42	20	2.48

5.15　COMPARISON OF VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Table 5.14 shows the values of respondents according to their teaching experience. Group 1 represents respondents with 1 year to 15 years' teaching experience. Group 2 represents respondents with more than 15 years' teaching experience.

Table 5.14: Comparison of the values of respondents according to their teaching experience

Values description	Group 1 n=29		Group 2 n=293		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1.　Ability utilization	4.07	2	4.41	1	-0.341	0.053
2.　Achievement	3.83	13	4.38	2	-0.551	0.000*
3.　Activity	3.76	15	3.91	17	-0.156	0.423
4.　Advancement	4.17	1	4.20	4	-0.029	0.859
5.　Authority	4.00	6	4.25	3	-0.253	0.121
6.　Departmental policies and practices	3.93	11	4.04	12	-0.107	0.587
7.　Compensation	4.00	6	3.96	15	0.038	0.874
8.　Colleagues	3.76	15	4.08	10	-0.323	0.070
9.　Creativity	4.00	6	4.20	4	-0.198	0.236
10.　Independence	3.52	18	3.39	20	0.132	0.567
11.　Moral values	4.07	2	4.04	12	0.028	0.886
12.　Recognition	4.07	2	4.03	14	0.035	0.857
13.　Responsibility	3.97	9	4.05	11	-0.082	0.648
14.　Security	3.83	13	4.20	4	-0.370	0.030*
15.　Social services	4.03	5	3.96	15	0.075	0.694
16.　Social status	3.34	20	3.82	18	-0.478	0.025*
17.　Supervision: human relations	3.97	9	4.09	9	-0.123	0.490
18.　Supervision : technical	3.59	17	4.11	8	-0.526	0.002*
19.　Variety	3.41	19	3.81	19	-0.398	0.045*
20.　Working conditions	3.86	12	4.16	7	-0.295	0.111

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.14 indicates that principals with more than 15 years teaching experience rate 15 values more importantly than those with 1 year to 15 years' experience. Five of these work values, namely, achievement, security, social status, supervision: technical and variety are noted because the difference between their means in each case is statistically significant. However, Table 5.14 also shows a little similarity between the four most important values of groups 1 and 2. This is evident in Table 5.14 (a).

Table 5.14 (a): Comparison between the four top most important values of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value importance Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value importance Group 2)	Mean
Advancement	1	4.17	4	4.20
Ability utilization	2	4.07	1	4.41
Moral values	2	4.07	12	4.04
Recognition	2	4.07	14	4.03
Social services	5	4.03	15	3.96

Table 5.14 also shows that the three least important values for groups 1 and 2 are independence, variety and social status.

5.16 COMPARISON OF OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY THE VALUES OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Table 5.15 shows a comparison of opportunities to satisfy the values of respondents according to respondents' teaching experience. Group 1 represents respondents with 1 year to 15 years' teaching experience, while group 2 represents those with more than 15 years' teaching experience.

Table 5.15: Comparison of opportunities to satisfy values of respondents according to their teaching experience

Value description	Group 1 n=29		Group 2 n=293		Differences of means	Significance (p)
	Mean	Rank Order	Mean	Rank Order		
1. Ability utilization	3.86	1	3.92	2	-0.059	0.778
2. Achievement	3.24	10	3.59	5	-0.349	0.087
3. Activity	3.41	5	3.91	3	-0.494	0.009*
4. Advancement	2.97	18	3.34	13	-0.379	0.103
5. Authority	3.86	1	3.99	1	-0.124	0.521
6. Departmental policies and practices	3.07	16	3.28	16	-0.207	0.334
7. Compensation	2.72	20	2.45	20	0.277	0.263
8. Colleagues	3.14	14	3.57	6	-0.432	0.035*
9. Creativity	3.41	5	3.55	7	-0.132	0.541
10. Independence	3.21	11	3.27	17	-0.059	0.793
11. Moral values	3.31	7	3.30	15	0.013	0.954
12. Recognition	2.97	18	3.02	19	-0.052	0.836
13. Responsibility	3.21	11	3.43	10	-0.220	0.319
14. Security	3.03	17	3.26	18	-0.225	0.362
15. Social services	3.45	3	3.83	4	-0.384	0.045*
16. Social status	3.21	11	3.52	8	-0.315	0.095
17. Supervision: human relations	3.45	3	3.40	11	0.049	0.817
18. Supervision : technical	3.28	9	3.40	11	-0.120	0.579
19. Variety	3.10	15	3.49	9	-0.385	0.072
20. Working conditions	3.31	7	3.32	14	-0.007	0.976

*If p is less than 0.05, the difference is statistically significant.

It is evident from table 5.15 that principals with more than 15 years' teaching experience have 17 of their 20 described work values more gratified than those of principals with one year to 15

years' teaching experience. However, the difference between the means of values is significant only in three cases, namely, activity, colleagues and social services. Table 5.15 also indicates a similarity between the four most important values of groups 1 and 2 with regard to the opportunities provided for their satisfaction by the respondents' present work environments. Table 5.10 (a) explains this relationship.

Table 5.15 (a): Comparison between the highest ranked opportunities of groups 1 and 2

Value description	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 1)	Mean	Rank Order (Value satisfaction opportunity Group 2)	Mean
Authority	1	3.86	1	3.99
Ability utilization	1	3.86	2	3.92
Social services	3	3.45	4	3.83
Supervision: human relations	3	3.45	11	3.40
Activity	5	3.41	3	3.91

Table 5.15 also shows that, with the exception of the value for supervision: human relations, respondents with more than 15 years' teaching experience seem to enjoy more opportunities with regard to having their 14 top most important values being satisfied by their work environment.

Table 5.15 further indicates that the needs for advancement, compensation and recognition do not only form part of the needs that are least provided with opportunities for fulfillment for principals with 15 years' or less teaching experience, but that the means for these needs are each below 3,00. This implies that these principals experience dissatisfaction in the way their jobs are providing opportunities to satisfy these needs. Additionally, a comparison between Table 5.14 (a) and Table 5.15 clearly shows that, while the need for advancement is the most important need (mean=4.17) for principals with 15 years' or less teaching experience, yet it is one of those that are least gratified by their work environments (mean=2.97).

The study also investigated and analysed the relationship between the respondents' six clusters of work values and the opportunities provided by respondents' present jobs to satisfy these clusters. The clusters represent a regrouping of the 20 work values into the following six clusters:

achievement, independence, recognition, relationships, support and working conditions (cf. 4.3.2.1 Table 4.1).

5.17 COMPARISON BETWEEN THE SIX CLUSTERS OF WORK VALUES AND OPPORTUNITIES TO SATISFY VALUES OF RESPONDENTS

Table 5.16 shows the six important clusters of work values of the target group in comparison with the degree to which their present work environments provide opportunities to satisfy these values.

Table 5.16: Comparison of work value clusters and opportunities to satisfy work values of respondents

Value cluster description	Value importance n=322	Opportunity provided n=322	Difference of means	Significance (p)*
	Mean	Mean		
1. Achievement	8.7081	7.4752	1.2329	0.000*
2. Independence	8.2205	6.9410	1.2795	0.000*
3. Recognition	16.2453	13.7919	2.4534	0.000*
4. Relationships	11.8758	10.3230	1.5528	0.000*
5. Support	12.1708	10.0466	2.1242	0.000*
6. Working conditions	23.3354	19.6056	3.7298	0.000*

*If p is less than 0. 05, the difference is statistically significant.

Table 5.16 clearly indicates the discrepancy between respondents' important work value clusters and the opportunities provided for their fulfillment by their present jobs. This observation is supported by the fact that the differences between work value importance and opportunities provided for value satisfaction by the work environment is statistically significant. From the table it is evident that the opportunities provided by the respondents' work environment for satisfaction of their clusters of work values are significantly less than what they aspire for as employees. This situation may contribute towards dissatisfaction in respondents and may, in turn, adversely affect their job satisfaction.

A cursory examination of Table 5.16 may lead one to wrongly conclude that the most important work value for the respondents is working conditions (means=23.3354). However, this is not the case. The fact is that the working conditions cluster consists of six specific needs, namely, activity, independence, variety, compensation, security and working conditions. (cf. 4.3.2.1 Table 4.1) The mean 23.3354, is therefore, actually the total of the means of the individual needs constituting the working conditions cluster. A closer scrutiny and comparison of Table 5.16 and Table 5.1 clearly shows that the most important work value for the respondents is the one for achievement, which is constituted by two specific needs namely, the need for ability utilization and the need for achievement.

A comparison of Tables 5.1 and 5.16 indicates that there is an overall disharmony between what the respondents need and value as important in their ideal jobs, and what their present jobs provide in a bid to satisfy employees' needs and work values. It can therefore be deduced that although there is a clear indication that most of the needs and values of the respondents are being catered for by their work environment, the respondents are, however, not satisfied with what their jobs have to offer for adequate gratification and realization of their desires.

The scenario in Table 5.16 may also be represented graphically. Figure 5.8 below clearly indicates the relationship between the importance of value clusters and the opportunities provided by the work environment to satisfactorily address these work values.

Figure 5.8: Comparison between respondents' work value clusters and the opportunities for them to be provided for by the work environment expressed as a percentage
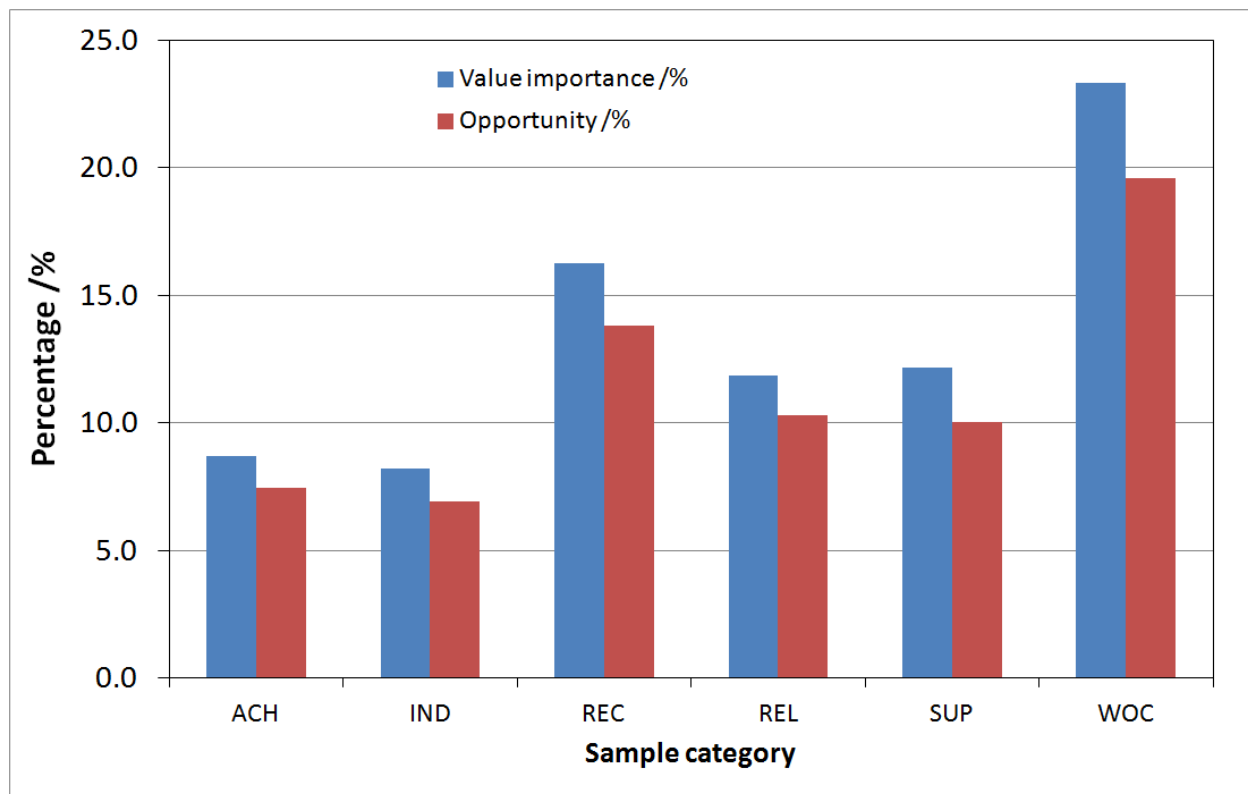
It is again vividly clear from Figure 5.8 that what principals want from their jobs and what they receive in return are not matching. Even when individual values are clustered together, the disharmony persists. The extent of the discrepancy between what principals value and what their jobs offer them can be shown by means of a graph. Figure 5.9 clearly shows this difference.

Figure 5.9: Extent of differences between work value clusters and their opportunity to be satisfied
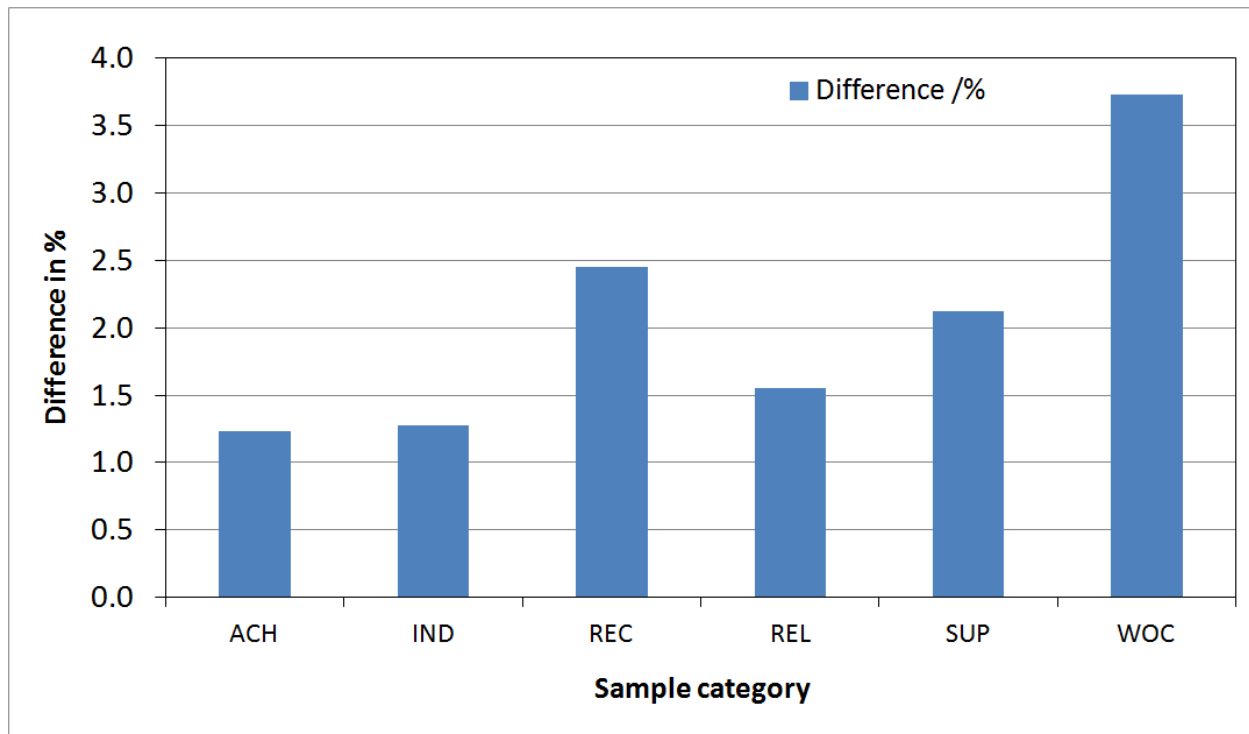
Once more, Figure 5.9 indicates that the respondents' working conditions are not satisfying and could affect their job satisfaction if not attended to. Figure 5.9 also shows that the other two work values that need to be improved as priorities are recognition and support respectively.

In the next chapter, a qualitative investigation will be done in order to gain an in-depth understanding of some of the indicators of dissatisfaction that have been highlighted by the findings in this chapter. Questions on work values such as working conditions, recognition and support will form part of the interviews that will be conducted.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with an analysis of the qualitative data, which also includes the last open-ended question of the quantitative survey questionnaire. A semi-structured interview was employed by the researcher to investigate some aspects of the work environment that were found to be contributing a great deal to the job dissatisfaction of selected principals in the previous chapter. As indicated in Chapter Four, the researcher believes that conducting interviews on work aspects that were identified as sources of respondents' dissatisfaction with their work situation, may result in a better understanding of some of the challenges facing school principals in the Free State. These work aspects included salary, recognition, security, advancement, departmental policies and practices, and other aspects of the work that could be a cause for dissatisfaction of the principals.

Specifically, in the main, the following questions were asked during the interviews:

1. In your work situation does the amount of work you do compare favourably with the salary that you earn? Please support your response.

2. Does your present work environment recognise your overall contribution to the education of school children? Please support your response.

3. To what extent do you feel secured as a principal in your present work environment? Please explain.

4. Do you feel that you as a principal are provided with any opportunities for advancement in your present work environment? Support your response.

5. Are you happy with the working conditions of your present job? Please explain.

6. What is your assessment of departmental policies and practices in your present job?

7. Is there any other aspect of your work that could be a cause for dissatisfaction?

A good analysis of qualitative data largely depends on the researcher's understanding of the information before him/her. Mouton (2001:108) states that analysis involves condensing or reducing of data "into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships". Therefore, understanding the data calls for the reading and re-reading of the text in a bid to make sense of the patterns and themes emerging from the data (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 493). Reducing data in turn includes selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data

from transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994: 10). In this study, transcriptions were made from audio recoded data collected during the interviews.

Categorizing of information is also important in analysing qualitative data. This process of classifying information is known as *coding the data.* Babbie and Mouton (2001: 492) explain that the researcher may establish a code set by perusing the relevant literature review on the topic, and then deciding which key terms arising from the literature review could be indexed or coded. A similar approach has been used in this study. Having perused the literature on aspects of the work that impact negatively or positively on employees, the researcher was able to develop a code set that would enable him to analyse the data.

The researcher also decided to organise the data by question with a view to look at and check how all the ten participants responded to each of the seven questions. This would help the researcher to identify consistencies and differences in the participants' responses (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:2).

6.2. PARTICIPANTS IN THE INTERVIEW

In this study, as indicated in chapter four (cf. 4.4.2), convenience sampling was used as a strategy for selecting the ten participants to the interviews. The strategy was necessitated by factors such as availability and accessibility of participants. Furthermore, the primary purpose of the interviews was to gain an understanding of how principals feel about certain aspects of their work environment and the possible reasons behind their feelings about such aspects (cf. 4.4.2).

Participant 1 (Female)

Participant 1 is the principal of an intermediate school. She is the national deputy president of the South African Principals Association (SAPA). She has attended several international principals' conferences and workshops. She holds a post-graduate degree and is very knowledgeable about various educational issues. She has been a principal for more than ten years. The interview was held in her office.

Participant 2 (Female)

Participant 2 is a principal of a secondary school. She is due for retirement in 2012. She holds a post graduate degree in education and offers English for Grade 12 learners in her school. She has vast teaching experience and her school is one of the better performing schools in the Maluti-a-Phofung municipality. The interview was conducted in her office.

Participant 3 (Male)

Participant 3 is a principal of one of the best performing secondary schools in the Thabo-Mofutsanyana district. He is a vastly knowledgeable and dependable principal who holds a post graduate degree in education. The interview was held in his office.

Participant 4 (Female)

Participant 4 is a principal of a primary school in the Maluti-a-Phofung municipality. She is a highly knowledgeable and committed individual whose school has won many awards. Her school is regarded as one of the best primary schools in the Thabo-Mofutsanyana district. As a SAPA member she has attended many international and national conferences. She holds a post graduated degree in education and has been a principal for more than fifteen years. The interview was held in her office.

Participant 5 (Male)

Participant 5 is a principal of an intermediate school in the Maluti-a-Phofung municipality. He is a high ranking officer in the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU). As an active unionist, he is abreast with developments and issues in the South African education system. He has been invited to make presentations in many workshops and conferences both in his capacity as a principal and a unionist. He holds a post-graduate degree in education.

Participant 6 (Male)

Participant 6 is an acting principal in an intermediate school in the Maluti-a-Phofung municipality. He has now been acting for more than a year at his school as a principal. His acting capacity is brought about by the fact that there is currently an ongoing dispute around the position of the principal in the school. He has been a deputy principal for more than ten years and holds a post-graduate degree in education. The interview was held in his office.

Participant 7 (Male)

Participant 7 is a principal of a secondary school in the Maluti-a-Phufong municipality. He holds a Masters degree in Education (M.Ed). He is very conversant with current educational issues and is highly involved in community development programmes. He has participated in many workshops and conferences involving educational issues around the country. He has been a principal for more than ten years. The interview was held in his home.

Participant 8 (Male)

Participant 8 is a newly appointed principal in an agricultural secondary school in the Maluti-a-Phofung municipality. His outstanding skills in managing agricultural schools has led to his deployment to the present school. Before his appointment at this school, the standards in the school were declining. However, since his arrival, the school's matric results have significantly improved. His school is very big and involves aspects of farming such as crop cultivation, cattle and sheep breeding and hotel management. He holds a post graduate degree. The interview was held in his office.

Participant 9 (Male)

Participant 9 is a principal of a well known, best performing secondary school in the Maluti-a-Phofung area. He is a very knowledgeable, respectable and competent principal who has been producing good matric results even in the secondary school where he was previously before moving on to the present school. His school has won many academic awards. He holds a post-graduate degree.

Participant 10 (Male)

Participant 10 is a principal of a secondary school located in the Maluti-a-Phofung area. He holds a Masters Degree in Education and is highly knowledgeable in education matters. He is a staunch member of SAPA and has been extensively attending conferences and workshops organised by SAPA and the Aloe Learning Centre. He has more than five years' experience as a principal and has been a deputy principal for ten years.

6.3. REPORT ON MAIN THEMES AND EMERGING THEMES

6.3.1   Salary

 It seems all ten participants are of the opinion that their salaries are not commensurate with the amount of work they do. Below are some of the responses:

Participant 4:"I will say no because the amount of work I do does not compare with the salary I earn. The salary is far less than what I am doing."

Participant 5:"The answer is no. The salary is far less because the principal's work is multifaceted. The principal is virtually managing everything."

Participant 3: "However, I sometimes feel that the money that I earn is too little for the work I am doing presently."

Participant 1: "No, I would say it does not all. It does not compare favourably with the salary that I earn."

Participant 2: "I will not say it does compare favourably with my salary. I work nine hours instead of the regular seven hours."

Participant 6: "According to me, the salary does not satisfy my needs because I am doing a double job here."

Most participants asserted that the discrepancy between what they earn and the amount of work they do was brought about by work overload. They explained their situation as follows:

Participant 1: "As principals, we are trained as teachers and some of us are teaching. But we do more of administration work, we do more of financial work, we do more of policing, we do more of social work. Sometimes you have to be a principal, an administration clerk and teacher at the same time. There are too many meetings to attend. So, that is too much..."

Participant 2: "I work eight hours on Saturdays and Sundays. There is a lot of paper work too. I am also teaching Grade 12 learners, managing finances and the feeding scheme. It's quite a lot for one."

Participant 4: "I have a lot of responsibilities that go with risk taking: managing finances, procurement, a big staff, attending meetings, dealing with problematic learners and educators, managing curriculum changes...so the responsibilities are very complex."

Participant 10: "... the workload and responsibilities of principals have been increased by the Department of Education. However, this increase has not been accompanied by an increase in salary."

Therefore, it appears that most participants are not satisfied with the salary they earn. They claim that it is too little for the work that they are doing. They also seem to be perturbed by the many disruptions caused by the frequent meetings that they have to hold with different stakeholders.

6.3.2   Recognition

It appears that most participants regard their work environment as not recognising their contribution to the education of learners at their schools. Of the ten participants interviewed, only two affirm recognition of their contribution by the work environment. Some of their comments are as follows:

Participant 1: "I would say it does not support us at all, it does not recognise our contributions in the sense that, with all your efforts, all that you are doing as a principal, you stand alone in most cases."

Participant 2: "The work environment does not. We are surrounded by shebeens. We teach with noise in the background... as long the learners pass, you will think there is recognition... but I have never seen any official come to check how many shebeens surround our school. Even calling the police is not helpful. They never respond."

Participant 3: "I think yes, it does because I have support structures from different organisations. So I think what we are doing is important because people are taking us seriously and they are helping because they want to see our learners succeeding."

Participant 8: "Yes the environment supports our learners hundred percent. The department also supports the school hundred percent. Department officials thank me for the work that is done here and the parents are coming to school to thank me."

Participant 9: "I would say no it does not because... we have been producing good results in this school but you will never see department officials coming to praise us. We only see them when things are not going right; then they will come and fight you."

Participant 10: "No, I don't think that my contribution is recognised. We seldom get praises for the good that we do as the school. But we are often chided by Department officials for any mistake that we do."

Participant 7: "The environment does not recognise my contribution because if the outcome of education activities is good, praise goes to the learners. But if the outcome is not good, obviously it is the principal's fault."

Participant 5: "My answer is no. Principals are demoralized because they are doing things on their own."

Participant 6: "No, the work environment does not support me. Its only stress because everything comes to me and everything must be done by me."

Participant 4: "No, it does not because it's rare that you are acknowledged for what you are doing. Your contribution can be ignored and some may not even support your endeavours."

Therefore, it appears that most of the principals who participated in the study regard their work environment as not appreciating their efforts and the contribution they make towards the education of the children. It seems that some of the discontent stems from principals perceiving other stakeholders such as departmental officials, police and community members as not being supportive. For this reason, they believe that their efforts and contribution go unnoticed. Others even believe that this lack of recognition can lead to dissatisfaction, stress and resignation from work. For example, participant 4 comments that: "The efforts we are making are not being recognised. So there is a high rate of dissatisfaction and stress among our colleagues, including principals. That is why most of them retire early or even resign from work because of stress."

6.3.3 Security

It seems the majority of the participants do not feel safe and protected in their present work environment. Seven of the participants assert that they do not feel safe in their work, while only three claim to be relatively safe. Some of their remarks are as follows:

Participant 1: "I don't feel secure at all. For example, during educator strike departmental officials do not give you any kind of support. You may be attacked and the department does nothing."

Participant 2: "I don't feel secure. This year during electricity blackout strike we had to be escorted out of the school yard by the police. In fact, when teachers go on strike we as principals are targeted and we are not given any security by the department or even by the police."

Participant 3: "One may feel insecure sometimes, especially when taking unpopular decisions. But when one aligns himself with government policies, one is secured in one's job."

Participant 4: "I don't feel secure because... most educators do not like principals and have a negative attitude towards them. They dislike discipline. Your colleagues can reject you, especially if they are not committed to their work. Learners are also ill-disciplined; they don't take instructions from the principal or educators. Therefore, we are in danger because nowadays learners can easily kill principals and educators. When the department comes, it will be too late because many people will be dead by then."

Participant 5: "I feel insecure because ... the department is not doing enough to ensure our safety. The redeployment of principals is out of order and engenders insecurity in the principals involved. I also feel insecure because... there is no protection when you collect money at school or when depositing it at the bank."

Participant 6: "I don't feel secure because I was not trained for the job. There was no training, no support. I need training."

Participant 7: "We are not secure because we do not get any support, any employment, any development skill or anything that will make us feel secure. There is no security in our schools. The school buildings are dilapidated and learners are doing hard drugs."

Participant 8: "I feel secure because I know that our school will not be closed because it is the only one with a farm section, hospitality and hotel section, and the government wants to promote agriculture. So I'm very secure here."

Participant 9: "Sometimes as a government worker, you feel secure because of the labour laws that protect us as workers. However, there is insecurity during learner riots and even during educator strikes."

Participant 10: "I don't feel secure because every time Grade 12 learners fail, we secondary school principals are threatened with dismissal. But when learners in lower grades fail, no one threatens you. I feel insecure because of parents who threaten me whenever their children fail in school. I live in fear of learners who take hard drugs in our school and who associate with dangerous criminals."

From the comments above, it is evident that some principals experience insecurity in their workplace due to factors such as the following:

- Labour strikes by educators, learners or/and community members.
- Lack of relevant training for their jobs.
- Lack of support.
- Dilapidated buildings.
- Ill-disciplined, drug-abusing and killer learners.
- Ill-disciplined and uncommitted educators.
- Rude parents
- Fear of dismissal for underperformance.

Nevertheless, one principal's experience is that labour laws make it difficult for departmental officials to dismiss principals as they wish. Due legal processes should be followed before a dismissal can be effected.

6.3.4   Advancement

The participants seem to have differing views over whether there are opportunities for advancement or not in their work environment. The majority of the participants share the view that there are no opportunities for advancement in their present work situation and they comment as follows:

Participant 5: "As a principal, there are no opportunities for advancement in the Department of Education. Principals become stagnant. They are not promoted because of prevailing corruption. It does not matter how good your performance is... that's why people are migrating to greener pastures."

Participant 7: "Unfortunately, now of late principals are not given any opportunities for advancement. Chances are very slim for you to be promoted, especially if you are educated. You'll never be promoted."

Participant 9: "As a principal, I do not think there are enough opportunities in our department. It is very difficult to move beyond the present position... Principals who work hard and produce quality results are in most cases overlooked. People are promoted because they are connected to so and so or because they belong to a particular organisation."

Participant 10: "I think the opportunities are very limited. And the problem is compounded by the fact that higher posts seem to be reserved for individuals supporting certain organisations or political parties. There is absolutely no fairness in the promotion processes. There is too much corruption among education officials..."

Participant 2: "I think I do have opportunities. However, I don't have any opportunity for promotion."

Participant 4: "The opportunities are few. One may only be promoted to the position of SMGD. And the salary of the SMGD post is lower than that of some principals. We are also denied the opportunity to attend principals' development conferences that are conducted outside the country."

Clearly, the participants in this group have a dim view about opportunities for advancement within the education department. They attribute problems with promotion to the following factors:

- Corruption within the department.
- Affiliation to popular organisations and political parties.
- Negative attitudes towards highly educated principals.
- Denying principal opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills.

The minority of participants belongs to those who are of the view that there are opportunities for advancement in their work environment. Below are some of their comments:

Participant 1: "Yes, there are opportunities. Not for promotion only, but for school management development programmes as well. We have the MEC's promise that when promotions are due, they will consider those who underwent training."

Participant 3: "Yes I get the kind of training I need because I've registered for a government sponsored leadership and management programme. I also attend workshops, so I come back being a better and bigger person."

Participant 6: "... if you are principal it is easy to get better promotions."

Participant 8: "I suppose if I'm doing well there will be other opportunities for me to advance. So I do not feel like I'm stuck here."

Therefore, it seems that, the latter group is positive about advancement opportunities in their work environment. They argue that the Department of Education has set up development programmes in partnership with higher institutions of learning that are aimed at improving the leadership and management skills of principals. The successful completion of these programmes could open doors for promotions. One participant feels that if he does perform his job well, he is likely to be promoted.

Therefore, the majority of participants foresee a bleak future in education. In contrast, the minority is optimistic that there is a bright future for them in the education sector.

6.3.5 Working conditions

The participants seem to have different feelings about the working conditions of their present jobs. Six of the participants indicated that they are unhappy with their working conditions. Two remarked that they were unhappy about certain factors of their jobs, while they were quite happy with other factors. One participant claimed that he was entirely satisfied with the work conditions of his job. The last participant did not provide a clear, definite answer. They commented as follows:

Participant 2: "Definitely not. The criminal factor is the first reason. The safety for my health is another one. My office does not have curtains, so I can't work in it in the afternoon when it's hot and the sun rays are coming in. I don't even have funds to buy curtains."

Participant 4: "No I'm unhappy with my working conditions because at times they are not fair, they are not open enough for us to bring some changes, and some improvements. Privileges and incentives that used to be there in the past have now been removed. There is no consistency."

Participant 5: "One is unhappy with the working conditions because... even your office does not look like that of a CEO. Offices are dilapidated and we are expected to beautify our school with the limited funds that we receive from the department."

Participant 6: "No, I' m unhappy because I'm in the dark about what is going on here. There is no communication, no feedback from meetings held by the department with the SGB."

Participant 7: "I think I'm unhappy. The work conditions are such that they are determined by someone else, but not you. I do what I do just to please the master who is controlling everything. I am unhappy about my workload. I am unhappy about the hasty decisions that are taken. I'm unhappy that I have to deal with incompetent members of the SGB who hardly contribute anything significant towards the attainment of our school goals. You are never happy as a principal."

Participant 10: "No, I'm unhappy with my working conditions. We are a section 21 school, yet the department buys LTSM for us claiming mismanagement of LTSM money by principals. The question is: Why does the department not punish the culprits? Our buildings are dilapidated. Our library and laboratory are empty. We teach dangerous learners."

Participant 9: "I would say yes and no. But it is very difficult for me to work... when you do not get any sufficient support.... You don't even have furniture to accommodate your

educators... and you don't have the power or resources to ensure that the conditions are conducive to learning and teaching."

Participant 1: "I have two answers. Yes, I am happy that we are provided with opportunities to attend management and leadership programmes. But I am unhappy that I'm not involved in decision- making on issues affecting my school. Decisions taken by the department on recruitment and redeployment are unilateral. Another problem is that of infrastructure."

Participant 8: "Yes, because I love farming. It is wonderful when you see progress on the farm because you can see that your school does make a difference in the community. We do not have stock theft or crop theft."

Participant 3: "Happiness is a situational thing. Sometimes you rub people the wrong way when you take unpopular decisions."

The above comments indicate that the majority of the principals interviewed, are unhappy with certain aspects of their working conditions. These include the following factors:

- Dilapidated buildings and furniture.
- Criminal activities in and around the school.
- Insufficient funds.
- Lack of control over one's work.
- Work overload.
- Non-involvement in decision-making and school improvement processes.
- Inconsistencies in the allocation of funds to section 21 schools.
- Lack of resources.
- Problems around recruitment and redeployment of educators.
- Lack of communication.
- Withdrawal of incentives for achievement.

However, some principals also commented about positive aspects of their work such as working in an environment free of theft and vandalism. One participant felt that being happy at the workplace, depends on the situation prevailing at that time.

6.3.6 Departmental policies and practices

Some participants seem to share the view that most policies of the department are good. However, they also opine that the problem with these good policies lies in their implementation. They commented as follows:

Participant 1: "Some of the policies are excellent. But the problem lies in their implementation."

Participant 4: "I would say there are departmental policies which are very good but, also have shortcomings here and there. There is room for improvement."

Participant 7: "The problem with policies lies in how they are being implemented."

Participant 9: "The Department of Education has a lot of policies that are very good. But having policies and implementing policies are two different things."

Participant 10: "Most policies of the department are good. The problem lies in their implementation."

However, some of the remaining participants indicated that departmental policies are sometimes confusing. Participant 6 feels that "these policies are giving us headaches" while participant 2 remarks that "they are more enterprising than serving the purpose."

Some participants also feel that the other dissatisfying factor pertaining to departmental policies is that they are being formulated without the involvement of principals. In this regard, participants comment as follows:

Participant 1: "The department needs to adequately consult and involve principals before finalising policies meant for schools."

Participant 5: "Principals did not contribute in existing departmental policies. Non-involvement of principals in the making of policies aimed at governing their schools is problematic."

Most participants claim that they experience serious problems when dealing with some departmental policies. These problems include the following:

- Learner pregnancy policy.
- Policies around school finances.
- Policies relating to the curriculum (CAPS).
- Policies relating to learner and educator misconduct.

- Policies on promotion of learners.
- Policies governing learning facilitators' visits to schools.

A brief discussion of these problematic policies is given below.

6.3.6.1 Learner pregnancy policy

The participants claim that they experience problems when dealing with learner pregnancy in schools. They decry the interventions of departmental officials as these interventions are perceived as being effectively preventing principals from implementing the policy regarding learner pregnancy in their schools. Below are some of the comments:

Participant 3: "The biggest challenge that I have is that of learner pregnancy. And the policy around pregnancy is contradictory. It has different interpretations."

Participant 2: "It is the government that causes learners to come to school being pregnant. Their interest is that the learner must be given an opportunity to write examinations irrespective of their health condition."

Participant 9: "The policy around pregnancy is one of those in which the department hinders progress in its implementation. When you implement this policy, there will be intervention from above to say you cannot take this child out of school when she is pregnant. Then you begin to wonder why in the first place there are such policies when you cannot even implement them."

Participant 10: "Policies around pregnancy, drug abuse, discipline and promotion of learners are difficult to implement because they are abused by departmental officials."

However, one participant comments that while teenage pregnancy and drug abuse remain problematic in Secondary Schools, it should be borne in mind that both are the result of abject poverty that prevails in many black communities where most learners reside.

6.3.6.2 Policies around school finances

Policies around school finances are also said to delay optimal performance in some schools because of lengthy procedures that need to be followed before payments can be done. They remark as follows:

Participant 8: "I have a problem with the policies and procedures that have to be followed before payments can be made at school level. One finds that SGB members and Finance Committee members are not readily available for urgent meetings in order to authorise payments or to agree on buying something that can benefit both educators and learners alike."

Participant 10: "We always submit our quarterly income and expenditure statements as well as our compliance certificates at the District office as required. However, very often we receive threatening calls from the Head Office officials claiming that we have failed to submit these documents as expected. This is very frustrating as it translates into the school receiving funds late and the principal being blamed for the delay."

6.3.6.3 Policies relating to the curriculum

Participants are also concerned about policies relating to the curriculum. They feel that the ever-changing position of government when it comes to the national curriculum is worrying. They indicate that for policies such as curriculum and assessment policy statements (CAPS) to be effectively and correctly implemented, proper training of educators within reasonable time frames should be done. Participant 4 puts it this way: "So we must be given time to understand the new policy, to internalise it, discuss it and the policy should not be changed regularly as this only leads to confusion and disgruntlement in us. Do not bring a new policy while we are still struggling to understand the existing one. So it is the department that is confusing educators."

In supporting the above comment, Participant 5 remarks thus: "It is very difficult to sort of implement something that you don't have clear knowledge of. Principals must also be taken on board so that, at least, they implement something that they know."

6.3.6.4 Policies relating to learner and educator misconduct

Participants are also not satisfied with the way the department is handling cases of misconduct by learners and educators. They claim it seems futile to charge the bad behaviour of some educators as the department mainly does nothing to follow up the cases to their fruitful conclusion.

Participant 3 describes the situation this way: "I have teachers coming to school drunk. I have invited the district manager. I have also been to the labour department many times about the issue of drunken educators. But no one has ever come to our school. Therefore, these are really things that hamper progress in our schools."

6.3.6.5 Policies on promotion of learners

Participants also expressed concern about the policy on the promotion of learners. They comment that they are not able to effectively implement the policy because departmental officials instruct them to promote learners who have actually failed. Participant 10 comments as follows: "SMGDs should carry the blame for the high failure rate in Grade 12 because they tend to force principals and their SMTs to condone learners who have clearly failed to meet the pass requirements at lower Grades. In this way, they are able to hide the fact that they are not doing enough to assist the schools for which they are in charge."

In supporting the above allegation Participant 5 remarks thus: "Principals are likely to be charged with misconduct if they continue to illegally condone learners who have failed just because they want to please their SMGDs."

6.3.6.6 Policies governing learning facilitators' visits to schools

Some participants share the view that another problem related to curriculum management is the policy governing learning facilitators' visits to schools. Participants are concerned that learning facilitators take a long time before visiting their schools, with the result that it is difficult to implement the new curriculum properly and effectively due to the lack of support and proper guidance by learning facilitators. One participant points out that, learning facilitators only come to his school when they have to check the final School Based Assessment (SBA) marks.

6.3.7   Other aspects of work that cause dissatisfaction

6.3.7.1 Politics

Some participants feel that there is too much politics in our education. Participant 1 remarks that: "Our education is in trouble. Education should be divorced from politics. We have too many people having a say in education but who know nothing about education. Many experts in education are overlooked because of political affiliation."

6.3.7.2 Corruption

Other participants consider corruption to be endemic in the education system. They remark as follows:

Participant 2: "I suspect there could be some corruption in the processing of leave forms at the district office. I remember I had to fill other leave forms for the teacher's salary to be deducted because the leave forms that I filled and submitted initially had vanished."

Participant 10: "It is not wholly true that departmental officials are worried that principals in section 21 schools do not buy LTSM for learners. The truth is that department officials at a very high level, want to give tenders to their friends. Now, that's corruption."

6.3.7.3   Absenteeism

A high rate of absenteeism by both educators and learners at school seem to be a serious source of dissatisfaction to principals. Moreover, the issue of absenteeism appears to be aggravated by the fact that nothing is done to punish the culprits. Participant 2 comment as follows: "You charge a teacher, but no action is ever taken. You recommend leave without pay, but the teacher keeps on getting his salary. So you are doing a futile exercise when you give a teacher leave without pay because the teacher laughs at you at the end of the month when he gets his pay intact."

6.3.7.4 Relationship with educators

Participants seem to perceive educators as another source of dissatisfaction at their present work environment. Participants complain that educators frustrate principals. This is what participant 6 had to say about educators in his school: "I encounter a problem of discipline on the side of educators. They are not disciplined, they do not behave like adults, and they do not respect the position that I am holding. They even try to blackmail me."

Participant 2 also mentions the problem of educators who come intoxicated at work, while participant 5 seems to blame the department for deviant educator conduct. He remarks as follows: "Educators also frustrate principals and when principals attempt to implement labour policies the department does not support them. That is why teachers are out of order. That's why principals are not respected."

Participant 1 further states that: "…educators in our country are only interested in themselves."

6.3.7.5 Relationship with learners

Some participants appear to be encountering grave problems with regard to learner conduct. Some learners, especially in Secondary Schools, take drugs. Participant 2 remarks thus: "Just yesterday a child was found in class rolling his dagga cigarette.... You could see that the child was beyond help. There was also a child who could not write Grade 12 exams last year because he was literally mad from dagga."

Participant 6 also explains the relationship with his learners as follows: "The learners also give me a headache regarding discipline. There are some who are using drugs. We even called the police to come and help. Our learners are very problematic." Participant 9 even bemoans the fact that he cannot even expel a learner who threatens the life of a teacher. Other participants also lament the fact that "there is a lot of drug trafficking in our schools and there is nothing that you can do."

6.3.7.6 Relationship with supervisors

Some participants express the view that their supervisors are not supportive. Some of their comments are noted below:

Participant 3: "Sometimes our SMGDs do not render support. They seem to be confused. Maybe they supervise too many people. We need support from them to show us direction."

Participant 10: "We receive minimal support from our SMGD. He seldom comes to our school."

Participant 7: "The structure of the SMGDs should be done away with because that is where wasteful expenditure is exercised. The SMGDs do not support, develop or monitor schools. They do nothing. They only come to the school when they have something to deliver to the school."

6.3.7.7 Relationship with the SGB

Some participants raise concerns regarding the incompetence of SGB members during recruitment processes. Others claim that SGB members are not supportive and delay service delivery in the school. Some of their remarks are as follows:

Participant 1: "Decision-making at school is difficult – especially when it comes to recruitment – because in most cases you are working with incompetent and semi-illiterate SGB members who are not familiar with the recruitment process. They are therefore, likely to recommend candidates who are not suitable for the advertised post."

Participant 10: "Our working conditions are not conducive to effective teaching and learning because sometimes we have to cope with members of the SGB who are prone to bribes and who do not have the interest of the learners at heart."

6.4 RESPONSES TO THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTION

Table 6.1 shows the themes that emerged in responses to the last question (open-ended question) where respondents were required to describe any other aspects of their ideal job that are not provided for by their present job.

Table 6.1: Themes that emerged in response to the open-ended question

OPEN-ENDED QUESTION	EMERGING THEMES
Please describe any other aspect of your ideal job that is not provided for by your present job	Implementation of outcomes based education (OBE)
	Effective school governing body (SGB)
	Involvement in decision-making
	Reasonable workload
	Departmental policies
	Financial assistance and availability of resources
	Proper and effective supervision by department officials
	Salary
	Recognition

6.4.1 Implementation of OBE

Respondents had differing views about OBE. Some felt that for OBE to be correctly understood and implemented, principals needed to undergo re-skilling programmes. On the contrary, others felt that OBE should simply be scrapped because principals and educators were not involved in its formulation as government's new educational policy (cf. 6.3.6; 1.1; 1.2).

6.4.2 Effective school governing body (SGB)

Some respondents raised concern about the election of incompetent, illiterate and corrupt SGB members who were easily manipulated by "rotten principals." This, they claim, resulted in a situation where the SGB effectively becomes dysfunctional and rubber-stamped all decisions taken by the principal unquestionably. Others felt that the SGBs needed to be "revived as they are the umbrella of corruption." Still, others strongly loathed the fact that SGBs are "given too much power to control schools." Some respondents were also not satisfied with the inclusion of educators in the SGB as they allege that it is the teacher component that causes conflicts and create confusion within the SGB. One respondent remarked as follows: "The inclusion of the educator component in the SGB is undesirable as elected educator representatives usually sow division, cause unnecessary conflicts and create confusion and mistrust within the SGB" (cf. 6.3.5).

6.4.3 Involvement in decision-making

Most respondents resented the fact that they were not involved in decision-making processes on issues directly affecting their schools. Below are some of their responses:

"Departmental officials must engage with principals, in order to find out more about the latter's work, so that the life-blood of our education can be nurtured to new heights of productivity."

"Principals are not tasked to appoint educators of their choice...." It seems that some principals are unhappy with the fact that they are only accorded the role of resource persons in the appointment of educators. They would rather be directly involved in the selection of the educators. For these reasons, some respondents argue that "many badly planned education programmes" are the result of a prevailing culture of non-involvement of other stakeholders in important decision-making processes (cf. 6.3.6). Respondents were also not satisfied with the non-involvement of parents in the education of their children. They contended that parents must take full responsibility of their children. One respondent

comments thus: "Parents must be accountable for their own failures. I will not be held accountable for the failure of learners who do not receive any support from their parents. The school is not a dumping ground!"

6.4.4 Fringe benefits

Efficient transport to work ensures meaningful productivity on the part of the workers. Most respondents are unhappy with the fact that their conditions of service do not provide for a subsidised car or a car allowance. Some of their responses were as follows: "The department should provide a car allowance for principals so that we can be able to run our schools efficiently and further be able to attend the numerous departmental meetings that we are expected to attend during the course of the year. The distance between our school and the district office is too great. I would be grateful if the department could provide me with a car allowance. Providing subsidised cars to office-based officials only, does not help schools as these officials seldom visit our schools."

6.4.5 Reasonable workload

Most respondents complained about heavy workloads and responsibilities of principals. These include having to be a subject educator with its attendant responsibilities and having to deal with a lot of administrative paperwork.

6.4.6 Departmental policies (cf. 6.3.6)

Most respondents seemed to be gravely concerned about controversial departmental policies such as that of learner pregnancy (cf. 6.3.6). Their view is that this policy encourages pregnancy in learners as it is not consistently implemented because of:

- Undue interference by departmental officials.
- Different interpretations of the policy by departmental officials.

Another policy that is a source of discontent to principals relates to the allocation of section 21 status to schools. Some principals detest the fact that in those schools that were allocated section 21 status recently, the Free State Department of Education has decided to buy such schools Learning and Teaching Support Material (LTSM) as if they were still allocated section 20 status. Respondents are concerned that there is a contradiction on this issue. Firstly, section 21 status allows a school to manage its affairs. Therefore, intrusion and interference by departmental officials seem to defeat the purpose of allocating them section 21 status namely: self-management. Secondly, if some principals' misuse funds that are

allocated for LTSM, then the department should charge and punish such principals. Unfortunately, the principals who usually commit this crime are never charged. For these reasons, some respondents are unhappy as they do not understand the logic behind the department's actions regarding the misuse of the LTSM funds.

Other respondents have a problem with policies around recruitment. In this regard, they complain about the time taken by the department to replace educators. One respondent says that "it takes up to three months before an appointment is finally made." Still on the issue of recruitment, one comments that "the policies we have do not allow you to employ the type of people you feel as a principal will advance the learners' education…" Furthermore, some respondents blame the policies around school staff establishment and the redeployment of educators for poor performance at some schools. They urge the department to seriously revise the present Post Provisioning Model utilized for recruitment as it fails to address the needs of schools. One respondent raises the concern that "the Peter Morkel Model used to determine staff provisioning underestimates our school needs, especially in the light of the newly introduced National Curriculum Statement (NCS) policy."

It is also the view of some respondents that "principals are stifled by the rules and laws that leave no room for creativity or innovations because they are expected to strictly adhere to departmental policies."

Respondents also raised concerns about the department's leniency towards criminally inclined learners. They claim that it does not matter how dangerous these learners may be to staff and other committed learners. "At the end of day they are unreasonably protected by the departmental policies," said one respondent. Another respondent went further to explain that "it is unfortunate that corporal punishment was abolished and nothing was introduced in its place. My job disempowers me, for it gives learners rights and deprives me the authority to exercise discipline." In addition, respondents bitterly complain about departmental policies around ill-disciplined educators who are "bent on hampering progress in schools." In concurring with the above statements, one principal responds thus: "I do not have authority and power to change things that negatively affect my job as prescriptions of the laws and policies of the department are degrading the moral fibre of our society and the youth." From these observations, most respondents seem to be appalled and dismayed by the frequent and rapid changes in departmental policies governing curriculum matters.

6.4.7 Financial assistance and availability of resources

The majority of respondents expressed their discontent for the "limited resources" that they have in their school and the adverse impact this situation has on the performance of learners. Some responded as follows: "The lack of science and mathematics teachers is a great fiasco. Why did you close down the colleges of education?" And "more laboratories please, for a brighter future of our kids!" Furthermore, "the lack of facilities in our black community schools is a complete disaster." Respondents also remark that a lack of resources in schools emanates from the little financial assistance that schools receive from the department. One respondent puts it this way: "The meagre financial assistance we get from the Department of Education gradually degrades what has been achieved over a long period of time. Things fall apart."

6.4.8 Proper and effective supervision by department officials

Most respondents claim that they are demotivated by the lack of necessary support from their circuit managers. They complain that SMGDs seldom visit schools and fail to follow proper channels when communicating with their schools. For example, one respondent comments thus: "my colleagues / subordinates underestimate my authority and communicate every happening to my supervisor, who in turn responds by throwing his weight around and attempts to run the school for me with a view to please my subordinates. "Another puts it this way: "non-support by SMGDs also creates problems sometimes because you may feel you are alone when you need them, but when an educator complains to them, they come running ". In concurring with the above two comments, one respondent observes that "treatment from supervisors tends to lean favourably forwards particular individuals at the expense of others." Yet another respondent is distressed by the realization that "SMGDs suffer from acute paralysis when they must act to support us with regard to the discipline of learners."

However, a few respondents feel that there is too much interference in their daily activities by support staff (SMGDs, directors and deputy directors, and administrative clerks at district level) from all structures. They, therefore, conclude that "every person seems to have some authority over principals." Still, other claims that there seem to be an "apparent lack of vision by the department."

6.4.9 Salary (cf. 6.3.1)

The majority of respondents are unhappy with the fact that their salaries do not compare well with those of chief executive officers (CEOs) in the private sector or big companies. Others complain that their salaries do not justify their workloads.

6.4.10 Recognition (cf. 6.3.2)

Some principals strongly feel that the Department of Education as well as the communities they serve do not seem to appreciate and acknowledge the good work that they are doing. Therefore, they comment that they are not satisfied because in their present jobs, "there are no incentives at hand for those whose schools are performing well and promotions are not considered on merit or performance."

Respondents complain and allege that the appointments of principals are not based on sound track record or performance, but on the teacher organisation or union to which the applicant belongs. Others feel disgruntled because of the scoring method used during the short listing and interviewing of applicants in which applicants are allocated more scores if they are considered to be belonging to a particular target group (cf. 6.3.5).

One respondent asked this question: "How can you recruit the best of the best for the learners… if politics is the main role player and the best interests of learners are compromised?" Therefore, it seems evident that the way promotion matters are handled by the Department of Education is of grave concern to some principals. Implied in some of their comments, is the inevitable conclusion that the education of the children is undermined by the alleged controversial appointments and promotions of applicants who are not suitable for certain posts.

6.5 SUMMARY

In general, the results from the interviews and open-ended question in the questionnaire largely confirm the argument that job satisfaction may be explained in terms of content and process theories (Section 1.1). The lower-order needs of Maslow and Herzeberg's maintenance or hygiene factors (Sections 1.1 and 2.3.2.2) seem to feature prominently in the outcome of this investigation. For example, a comparison of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor theory reveals that Maslow's lower-order needs correspond with Herzberg's motivators. Lower-order needs or hygiene factors that seem to mainly contribute to the dissatisfaction and frustrations of principals in this study include salary and

fringe benefits, departmental policies, safety and security, supervision, working conditions and relationships with supervisors, learners, educators and the SGBs.

Higher-order needs or motivators that seem to contribute towards increasing dissatisfaction to principals because they are not being adequately fulfilled include recognition, advancement and creativity (Sections 1.1 and 2.3.2.2). The investigation also seems to be in agreement with process theories in terms of the inequity that principals perceive to exist in the way benefits are allocated to them by the Department of Education. The discrepancies that exist between what principals actually earn in their present jobs and their expectation of what they believe they should earn in their ideal jobs leads to their frustration and discontent. As mentioned in Chapter 1 the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) posits that job satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between the employee's vocational needs or values and reinforcer system of the work environment. The results of the present study seem to indicate that much still needs to be done to ensure and increase the level of job satisfaction of principals in the Free State province. Importantly, the findings of the investigation confirm recent studies conducted by other researchers on job satisfaction of educators and principals. However, more details on this issue will be given in the next chapter.

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the analysis and findings of the qualitative data and the open-ended question of the questionnaire were dealt with. An attempt was also made to link the findings with known theories on job satisfaction such as content and process theories, and the TWA. In the next and final chapter, the results, conclusions and recommendations will be dealt with. The final chapter will also highlight the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ON IMPROVING THE LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION OF URBAN SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE FREE STATE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the correspondence of occupational reinforcers to the individual needs of urban school principals in the Free State, as determined by the fit between their values and the opportunities to satisfy these values. In order to attain this overarching aim, the researcher explored and examined the literature on job satisfaction of employees in general, and that of educators and principals in particular. Therefore, by delving into the literature review the researcher was able to provide a theoretical perspective and background of the nature of job satisfaction and what job satisfaction of principals entails. Subsequently, the researcher embarked upon employing empirical investigations, in the form of integrating quantitative and qualitative methods to examine the current level of job satisfaction of the selected principals.

In this final chapter, the summary of findings and conclusions arrived at are based on the results from the quantitative survey, the qualitative semi- structured interviews, as well as information gained from the literature study. Similarly, the recommendations are based on the findings and conclusions made from the study. These recommendations will be aimed at enhancing the job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Chapter 1 served the purpose of providing a general orientation to the study in the form of a background and rationale for the investigation. Emanating from the rationale for the investigation, the statement of the problem was explained, followed by the purpose of the study, methods of enquiry, delimitation of the study, operational definitions as well as an overview of the chapter layout.

In Chapter 2 an attempt was made to explain the meaning of job satisfaction in accordance with the views of different researchers who have investigated the topic. The various perspectives and definitions proposed by researchers also indicated why job satisfaction is such a nebulous social concept. The relationship between job satisfaction, motivation and morale was presented, with the result that it becomes easier for one to understand why job

satisfaction can be explained in terms of motivational theories. The chapter also dealt with some aspects of the work environment that could lead to satisfaction/ dissatisfaction of principals in their workplace.

Chapter 3 focused on highlighting the importance of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in influencing organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism, employee counter- productive behaviour, productivity and burnout. It was also shown in the chapter that job satisfaction remains an important determinant of employee behaviour.

Chapter 4 dealt with the research methodology used in this study. Philosophical assumptions underlying quantitative and qualitative research approaches were described and contrasted. It was also indicated how the two research approaches could complement each other if carefully combined. The types of data collecting instruments utilized were also described. Furthermore, research processes and procedures followed were discussed. It was also emphasized that the major research design used in the study was the quantitative survey.

Chapter 5 presented, analysed and interpreted the quantitative data. This was done with a view to explain on the prevailing relationship between principals' work values and the opportunities provided by their work environment to satisfy these values. The results indicated a significant difference between principals' work values and the opportunities provided by their present work environment to satisfy these work values. This discrepancy between worker values and work environment reinforcers was interpreted as an indication that principals are not entirely satisfied with their jobs.

Chapter 6 focused on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data. In this chapter semi-structured interviews were used to deeply explore work values that were identified as needing more attention during the quantitative phase in Chapter 5. In this way a deeper understanding regarding how and why principals perceived certain aspects of their work environment in a particular way was gained. It also became possible to understand how the identified work values impacted on the overall job satisfaction of the selected principals. Additionally, the information gathered during this phase complemented the one gained in the quantitative phase and confirmed some theories and aspects of job satisfaction that were revealed through the literature review.

7.3 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

In this section the knowledge acquired from the literature review which served to provide a theoretical background of job satisfaction is condensed and presented (see chapters 1 to 3). This knowledge is also integrated with the findings of the empirical investigation as presented in chapters 4 to 6.

7.3.1 Objective 1: Findings and conclusions regarding a theoretical background of the nature of job satisfaction and what job satisfaction of the principals entails

Job satisfaction, being a nebulous concept, is considered to be the most frequently studied concept in organisational behaviour. Researchers' interest in the concept derives from the assumption that gaining a deeper insight into job satisfaction may enlighten leaders and managers in organisations on what makes employees happy or unhappy with their jobs. Job satisfaction is also a multi-faceted phenomenon, which has been differently defined by various experts. On the one hand, it has been defined as a positive emotional state resulting from employees' perceptions about how well their jobs afford them those things that they regard as important. On the other, it has been defined as an attitude or an internal state that could be associated with a personal feeling of achievement. Still, others define it as an attitude that employees have about factors of their jobs such as monetary benefit, supervision style, policies and procedures, relationship with colleagues and working conditions. Yet, others define it as a function of the fit between an employees' values or needs and reinforcer systems of the work environment (Gruneberg, 1979; Locke, 1997; Arnold *et al.,*1998; Rue & Byars, 2001; Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002; Hellriegel *et al.* 2004). Based on the above definitions of job satisfaction, in this study, job satisfaction is defined as a positive or pleasant emotional state that principals and educators experience when their work is in harmony with their needs and values (cf. 1.1; 2.2).

The literature review reveals that although motivation, job satisfaction and morale are three distinct concepts, nevertheless, they are frequently associated because, on the one hand, motivation is a process that may result in job satisfaction (cf. 2.3). On the other hand, job satisfaction can influence morale and morale, in turn, may contribute towards job satisfaction. In education, positive motivation, that is likely to increase principals' job satisfaction, involves using merit awards, promotions, commendation, recognition of achievement and empowerment through delegation of increased authority and responsibility. Positive motivation inspires principals to yearn for greater achievement of goals because they

experience greater satisfaction. Principals also derive job satisfaction from achieving a task or attaining specific standards of performance. However, continuous negative motivation from supervisors including dismissals, suspensions, written warnings and threats, invariably impact adversely on the job satisfaction of principals and educators alike (cf. 2.3.2; 2.4.1). Furthermore, the literature review reveals that job dissatisfaction in principals contributes to counter-productive conduct such as frequent absenteeism, burnout, turnover, aggression and psychological withdrawal (cf. 1.1).

Motivational theories indicate that the ability of the work environment to satisfy the needs or values of principals may contribute to the latter's job satisfaction. Moreover, it is important to identify and gratify the values that principals perceive as important (cf. 2.3.2). Need theories reveal that principals' extrinsic needs or values such as security can be fulfilled by, among others, ensuring that they work in an environment that is free of violence, humiliation, harassment, threats and intimidation. These theories further suggest that educational leaders can satisfy principals' intrinsic needs or values by acknowledging and recognising the latter's achievements, according them opportunities to effectively participate in decision-making processes that affect their schools, increasing their autonomy and enriching their jobs. Importantly, need theories suggest that giving attention to all levels of needs simultaneously is likely to enhance principals' job satisfaction and performance. Needs theories also highlight the reality that the fulfilment of principals' values for power (autonomy) may result in them experiencing more job satisfaction resulting from experiencing a sense of being in full control in their work environment. However, they experience frustration and dissatisfaction when they are subjected to situational powerlessness such as non-involvement in decision-making processes and ambiguous role authority (cf. 2.3.2.2; 2.4.1).

Process theories suggest that the work environment reinforcers or rewards should be aimed at satisfying employees' important values. Furthermore, rewards should be linked to the desired performance. For principals to achieve the desired performance and organisational goals, they need development and training. Proper training of principals reduces dissatisfaction, a sense of inefficacy and helps to improve their self-concepts and self-esteem. These theories also suggest that salaries or rewards that are perceived as fair are likely to result in increased job satisfaction and motivation. Principals should not only be afforded opportunities to participate in decision-making processes, but should also be afforded opportunities to appeal decisions that adversely affect their well-being as this will improve their perception that they are being fairly treated. Therefore, principals should not be blamed for everything that goes

wrong in their schools without first giving them an opportunity to present their side of the story (cf. 2.4.1).

Emanating from the literature study in Chapter 2, it seems that goal-setting is important as it is more likely to lead to success at work. Moreover, when goals are clear, realistic and attainable, they tend to motivate principals to perform optimally - regardless of obstacles and impediments - and to derive job satisfaction from their success. The literature review further reveals that some researchers suggest that there exists a positive relationship between job satisfaction and both school effectiveness and leadership effectiveness. Effective leaders use positive reinforcement to enhance their subordinates' performance and job satisfaction. Therefore, they engage in motivating activities such as, giving continuous praise and recognition of subordinates' good performance and providing these subordinates with ongoing feedback on how well they are progressing towards the achievement of their organisational goals. Effective leaders are aware of the fact that negative reinforcement from superiors such as continuous threats, written warnings and public verbal abuse for mistakes committed may result in job dissatisfaction of principals, which may, in turn, lead to principals quitting the teaching profession (cf. 2.4.1).

The literature review indicates that there exists a relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. In bureaucratic organisations where leaders are prone to direct others and make decisions for others to implement, the potential for employee job dissatisfaction is high. In contrast, employees experience increased job satisfaction in organisations where the leadership recognizes the importance of empowering followers and giving them authority to participate freely in decision- making processes. Employee job satisfaction is also enhanced in organisations where the leadership encourages the development of trust, respect and communication channels that are essential to collaborative team effort (cf. 2.5.1). Furthermore, principals are likely to display organisational citizenship behaviours if they perceive their employment relationship to be founded on trust, shared values and commitment. Such principals, who display organisational citizenship behaviour and experience job satisfaction, are less likely to quit the teaching profession (cf. 3.2.1; 3.2.2.3).

The literature review indicates that other factors such as role tensions and locus of control can influence principals' job satisfaction. At work, differences between expectations may result in role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload on the part of principals. Unfortunately, protracted role ambiguity is likely to promote job dissatisfaction, undermine principals' self-confidence and impede their job performance. Principals may experience role conflict if their

work environment makes conflicting, excessive and frustrating demands on them. Therefore, work overload in principals often leads to personal turmoil, interpersonal conflict, inefficacy, burnout, lowered job satisfaction and quitting behaviour. Consequently, it is important for educational leaders to clearly define principals' roles in order to enhance the latter's job satisfaction and improve their job performance (cf. 2.5.1). The literature review also shows that the burned out principals no longer espouse the aims and ideals that attracted them to their profession (cf. 3.2.6; 2.5.1). Instead, they experience emotional exhaustion, reduced satisfaction and a diminished sense of competence. Therefore, burnout in principals is likely to yield disastrous learner achievements (cf. 2.5.1; 3.2.6).

The literature review further reveals that principals who possess an internal locus of control are generally more satisfied and are likely to experience more job satisfaction than those with an external locus of control. Furthermore, internals are likely to involve others in decision-making while externals are likely to be more alienated from their jobs. Externals are also prone to high incidents of illness and absenteeism from work and are likely to experience more anxiety, mental health problems and burnout (cf. 2.5.2; 3.2.6). Therefore, principals who are externals are likely to suffer from stress related illnesses such as peptic ulcers, headaches, arthritis, hypertension, diabetes and strokes. Furthermore, stress is positively related to job dissatisfaction, employee absenteeism and turnover (cf. 2.5.2; 3.2.5; 3.2.2.2; 3.2.2.3; 3.2.2.4).

The literature review suggests that managers and leaders may enhance their employee's job satisfaction by satisfying employees' basic needs through adequate provision of Herzberg's hygiene factors and then using motivators to gratify their higher order needs (cf. 2.4.1). Nevertheless, the literature review also reveals that pay has both psychological and social importance because it can satisfy personal needs or values by providing an escape from insecurity, creating a feeling of competence, and opening up opportunities for self-fulfilment. It also provides feedback on how well an employee is performing and acts as an indicator of that employee's relative position in the organisation. Furthermore, the literature review indicates that while people may say that they place little value on monetary rewards *per se*, they still need things that can be bought with money (cf. 2.4.2). This implies that pay, in the form of a monetary reward, can enable employees such as principals to be recognised and to attain and realise their goals. Such principals are likely to be satisfied with their jobs (cf. 1.1).

In conclusion, the literature review reveals that the following factors are major sources of principals' job dissatisfaction:

- Inadequate salaries and fringe benefits (cf. 3.2.2.4).

- Frequent absence of educators and learners (cf. 3.2.2.4).

- Lack of opportunities for professional growth (cf. 3.2.2.4).

- Politics (cf. 3.2.2.4).

- Educators' sexual relationships with learners (cf. 3.2.2.4).

- Substance abuse (cf. 1.1.; 3.2.4).

- Fraud and theft of LTSM (cf. 3.2.4).

- Lack of autonomy (cf. 2.4.1).

In the next sections, it will be shown that some of the above mentioned sources of principals' job satisfaction, also apply in this study.

7.3.2 Objective 2: Findings and conclusions regarding the current level of job satisfaction of urban schools principals in the Free State

In this section the results of the quantitative survey as explained in Chapter 5 will be summarised with a view to reveal the current level of job satisfaction of urban schools principals in the Free State. Furthermore, a synopsis of the results of the qualitative semi-interviews as elucidated in Chapter 6 will also be given in order to present a more meaningful and accurate account of the job satisfaction of urban schools principals in the Free State. The findings of the quantitative survey will first be discussed.

7.3.2.1 Although the respondents' job environments do provide opportunities for the satisfaction of their values, the extent of the provision is significantly less than the importance of the values

A comparison of the importance of the principals' work values and the ability of their work environment to adequately respond to their expectations, clearly indicates that the principals' work situations are significantly not able to meet their demands (cf. Table 5.1). This is confirmed by the reality that Table 5.1 reveals that the differences of the means between the importance of values and the opportunities provided to satisfy them are in 18 of 20 cases statistically significant. Furthermore, it is evident from Table 5.1 that in all of the 20 work values, the means for value satisfaction are less than those for value importance. This implies that principals do not experience job satisfaction because their work is not in harmony with their needs and values. Therefore, the Free State Department of Education has to significantly improve the provision of opportunities to satisfy all the principals' described work values in order to keep the latter happy with their work and to prevent them from quitting the teaching profession (cf. 7.4 and 7.5) . The priority of the 20 work values to be addressed according to the differences of means as listed in Table 5.1 is as follows:

Priority rank order	Value	Difference of means
1	Compensation	1.494
2	Recognition	1.025
3	Security	0.925
4	Advancement	0.888
5	Working Conditions	0.814
6	Departmental policies	0.770
6	Achievement	0.770
8	Moral values	0.745
9	Supervision: Technical	0.680
10	Supervision: Human Relations	0.674
11	Creativity	0.646
12	Responsibility	0.634
13	Colleagues	0.522
14	Ability Utilization	0.463
15	Variety	0.323
16	Social Status	0.286
17	Authority	0.255

18	Social Service	0.168
19	Independence	0.137 (Not Significant)
20	Activity	0.037 (Not Significant)

The above findings are confirmed by the results of an investigation of the relationship between the importance of the principals' six work value clusters and the opportunities provided by their work environment to satisfy these values. In this regard, the results clearly indicate that there is no correspondence between what principals seek from their ideal jobs and what they actually receive from their present jobs. As can be discerned in Table 5.16, the differences between the means for work value importance and opportunities provided for value satisfaction by the work environment is statistically significant. The table also shows that principals are earning few rewards from their present jobs than what they would expect from their ideal jobs (cf. 5.17; Table 5.16). Once more, it seems crucial that the Free State Department of Education should strive to improve the reinforcers and rewards available at the workplace with a view to close the gap between what the principals want from their ideal jobs and what they actually receive from their present jobs (cf. 7.4 & 7.5). If the priority of values listed above, is linked to the differences of means of clusters of values (cf. Table 4.1 & Table 5.17), the priority of cluster to be addressed is as follows:

Priority of cluster	Cluster	Values in cluster	Priority of values
1	**Working conditions:**	Compensation	1
		Security	3
		Working conditions	5
		Variety	15
		Independence	19
		Activity	20
2	**Recognition:**	Recognition	2
		Advancement	4
		Social status	16
		Authority	17
3	**Support:**	Departmental policies	6
		Supervision: Technical	9

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		Supervision: Human relations	10
4	**Relationships:**	Moral values	8
		Colleagues	13
		Social service	18
5	**Independence:**	Creativity	11
		Responsibility	12
6	**Advancement:**	Achievement	6
		Ability utilization	14

An analysis of the last open-ended item of the questionnaire also indicates that apart from the 20 work values that are described in the questionnaire, there are other work values that principals regard as important in their ideal jobs which are, nevertheless, not provided for by their present jobs. These values included the following:

(i) Involvement in decision-making

The majority of respondents resented the fact that they were not involved in decision-making processes on matters pertinent to their schools. They begrudged the fact that they were not directly involved in the selection and appointment of educators. They further raised their frustrations about the non-involvement of parents in the education of their children (cf. 6.4.3). The literature review has shown that employees' motivation and job satisfaction can be improved if employees are involved in decision-making processes (cf. 2.3.2.2 (iv); 2.5.1; 1.2).

(ii) Financial assistance and availability of resources

The majority of respondents were unhappy with the limited resources that they have in their schools. They decry the fact that their schools were not provided with either laboratories or laboratory equipment for the effective teaching of science subjects. The respondents maintained that a scarcity of resources in their schools adversely impacted on the performance of their learners, which, in turn, affected the principals' job satisfaction. The literature review reveals that lack of resources such as shortage of learning and teaching support material is one of the major sources of principals' job dissatisfaction (cf. 3.2.4).

(iii) Implementation of OBE

Respondents had divergent views about OBE. Some were of the view that OBE was likely to fail because, most principals, although being change agents in their schools, did not understand OBE. This was attributed to the fact that these principals were not properly trained about OBE as a new government policy. For this reasons, correct implementation of OBE in schools was likely to fail. Other respondents argued that OBE should be scrapped because principals and educators were not involved in its formulation as a government policy (cf. 6.3.6; 1.1; 1.2). The literature review also revealed that the continuous change in educational methodology was a source of educators' low morale (cf.1.2).

(iv) Ineffective SGBs

Some respondents raised concerns that members of their SGBs were incompetent, illiterate, corrupt and prone to being manipulated by dishonest principals. Other respondents felt that SGBs were given too much power to control schools. Still, others had problems with the constitution or composition of SGBs. They perceived some components of the SGBs as causing conflicts, sowing divisions, creating confusion and mistrust within the SGBs and, in general, being the champions of corruption (cf. 6.4.2; 6.3.7.7).

The other remaining work values that were mentioned by the respondents in response to the open-ended question of the questionnaire will be discussed in the next section (Section 7.3.2.2) as they mainly form part of the work values that were identified in the questionnaire and further probed in the interviews. These work values include departmental policies, salary and fringe benefits, recognition, supervision and reasonable workloads (working conditions).

7.3.2.2 The current level of job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State can also be determined by assessing their responses to interview questions during the qualitative phase of the study

The majority of the ten conveniently selected school principals expressed the view that they were not happy or satisfied with the extent to which their work environment was providing opportunities for the satisfaction of all the selected work values. Furthermore, the participants included their own work aspects that they regarded as other major sources of job dissatisfaction. A summary of the findings pertinent to the interview questions will be given below.

(i) Salary

The qualitative data revealed that most principals considered their salaries to be not commensurate with the amount of work they do (cf. 6.3.1). Principals expressed their dissatisfaction over the multiple roles they play (cf. 6.3.1). These roles included being class educators, managing finances and procurement issues, managing curriculum changes, dealing with problematic educators and learners, attending numerous meetings, being counsellors and a police at the same time. For these reasons, principals felt that the salaries they earn are too little for the amount of work they do. Principals were also perturbed by the fact that their fringe benefits do not include a car allowance (cf. 6.3.1; 6.4.4; 6.4.5). The literature review indicates that aspects of the job such as role tension, do not only adversely affect principals' job satisfaction, but also contribute to principals' burnout. Unfortunately, burnt-out principals no longer espouse the aims and ideals that attracted them to the teaching profession and are therefore likely to quit the teaching profession (cf. 3.2.6).

(ii) Recognition

It also became clear from the analysis of the qualitative data that principals were of the view that their work environment does not recognise their contribution to the education of learners at their schools. Principals argue that the fact that other stakeholders such as departmental officials, police and community members are not supportive is indicative of the reality that their (principals') efforts and contributions go unnoticed. Some maintain that this lack of recognition for their efforts is likely to lead to discontent, stress and resignation from work (cf. 6.3.2). Principals' dissatisfaction over the lack of recognition accorded their contribution towards the education of learners can also be discerned from their responses to the open-ended question of the questionnaire. In this respect, they complain that they do not receive

incentives for good performance and that their promotions are not based on merit or performance but on other considerations not related to quality education delivery. Some even feel that politics plays a major role in the promotion of employees in the Free State Department of Education. These controversial appointments and promotions of applicants, they argue, inevitably affect the quality of the education of learners adversely (cf. 6.4.10). However, the literature review indicates that promotion of high employee job satisfaction and performance can only be attained when managers employ effective motivators such as recognition and praise for work well done, challenging tasks, increasing responsibility and opportunities for personal growth (cf. 2.4.1; 3.2.2.4).

(iii) Security

The qualitative data reveals that security and protection of principals is another area that negatively affects the majority of principals. Principals point out that the following aspects affect their job satisfaction negatively: dilapidated buildings, labour strikes both by educators and learners or community members, rude parents, ill-disciplined and drugs-abusing learners, ill-disciplined and uncommitted educators and fear of dismissal for underperformance (cf. 6.3.3). The literature review confirms that anxiety, uncertainty and insecurity are likely to negatively affect employees' level of job satisfaction (cf. 1.2). The literature review also reveals that principals' and educators' security needs can improve when they are working in an environment that is free of violence, humiliation, harassment and intimidation (cf. 2.3.2.2. (i)).

(iv) Advancement

The qualitative data additionally indicates that the majority of principals have dim views about opportunities for advancement within the Education Department. They attribute problems with promotions to corruption within the department, affiliation to popular organisations and political parties, negative attitudes towards highly educated principals and denying principals opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills (cf. 6.3.7.2; 6.3.2;. 6.3.7.1).

(v) Working conditions

Stemming from the qualitative data, it can be detected that the majority of the principals are unhappy with the following aspects of their working conditions: dilapidated buildings and furniture, criminal activities in and around the schools, insufficient funds, lack of control over one's work, work overload, non-involvement in decision-making and school improvement processes, inconsistencies in the allocation of funds to Section 21 schools, lack of resources, problems around recruitment and redeployment of educators, lack of communication and withdrawal of incentives for achievement. However, a few principals considered their work environment to be free of theft and vandalism (cf. 6.3.5). However, the literature review clearly indicates that principals experience frustration and dissatisfaction if they perceive themselves as having no control over important aspects of their working life. In contrast, they experience job satisfaction when they experience a sense of being in full control in the workplace. This implies that their job satisfaction is likely to improve if they experience a sense of autonomy and of being effectively involved in decision-making processes that directly affect their schools (cf. 2.4.1). The literature review further reveals that criminal activities occurring at schools such as fraud, theft, substance abuse and educators' sexual relationships with learners may negatively impact on principals' job satisfaction (cf. 3.2.4). Additionally, it is evident from the literature review that open communication channels and regular feedback are essential as they inform principals about what has been achieved thus far and what still needs to be done in order to achieve desired goals (cf. 2.3.2.3 (vii); 2.4.1).

(vi) Departmental policies

Another finding that emanates from the qualitative data relates to the principals' majority view that while most education policies of the department are good or excellent, their implementation leads to frustrations and discontent on the part of principals. The implementation of the following policies is particularly problematic for the majority of principals: learner pregnancy policy, school finances policies, policies relating to the curriculum, policies relating to learner and educator conduct, and policies on promotion of learner and educator misconduct, policies on promotion of learners and policies governing learning facilitators' visits to schools (cf. 6.3.6). Some principals are unhappy because they detest the fact that departmental policies are being formulated without the involvement of principals. Yet, the literature review reveals that principals' job satisfaction is likely to be enhanced if the employment relationship is founded on trust, shared values and commitment. Therefore, continuous interventions by educational leaders that are perceived to be aimed at

effectively preventing principals from implementing departmental policies could somehow undermine the trust that exists between principals and their leaders and managers (cf. 3.2.1).

(vii) Other aspects that cause dissatisfaction

The qualitative data further reveals that principals also mentioned other aspects of their work that they regard as causes of their job dissatisfaction. These aspects included politics, corruption in the education system, high rates of absenteeism by both learners and educators, relationships with educators, learners, supervisors and SGBs (cf. 6.3.7.1- 6.3.7.7). The literature review indicates that a major problem in most countries where deviant behaviours occur relates to the fact that principals lack the necessary authority to be able to discipline educators effectively (cf. 3.2.4; 3.2.6). The literature review also indicates that one of the major causes of principals' job dissatisfaction is the quality of educators with whom they have to work (cf. 3.2.10.1). Furthermore, the literature review reveals that some of the factors that contribute towards educators and principals quitting the teaching profession includes favouritism and nepotism at school governance level (cf. 3.2.5).

The scenario depicted above, regarding the findings on the current level of job satisfaction of urban schools principals in the Free State seems to suggest that principals are experiencing low levels of job satisfaction in their workplace. This conclusion is informed by, firstly, the revelation from the quantitative data that the 20 identified work values significantly exceeded the opportunities provided by the work environment for their satisfaction in 18 of the 20 cases. Secondly, the findings from the qualitative data seem to significantly support, verify and complement the data gathered through the questionnaires.

7.3.3 Objective 3: Findings and conclusions regarding the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by the respondents

Although their job environments provide opportunities for the satisfaction of the respondents' work values, the extent of the provision is significantly less than the importance of the values. The findings of the quantitative survey reveal that principals regard all the described work values as their personal values which are important for their daily survival and well-being in their workplace. This is confirmed by the finding that the mean for each of the 20 described values is above 3.00 with 14 of these means above 4.00 (cf. Table 5.1). It can also be seen from Table 5.1 that the most important value for the principals is the need to be given a chance to do something that makes use of their abilities (mean = 4.38). Table 5.1 also reveals that the four other important values following the need for ability utilization are respectively

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the need to: achieve (mean = 4.33), give directions to others (mean = 4.23), be provided with an opportunity for advancement (mean = 4.20) and be creative (mean = 4.18). It can, therefore, be deduced that adequate satisfaction of these values by the work environment is likely to increase principals' job satisfaction.

Table 5.1 also reveals that two of principals' most important values, namely, the value for advancement (rank = 4) and security (rank = 6) are lowly ranked with regard to opportunities to be gratified. Moreover, it is clear from the table that principals lowly rate their values for compensation and recognition. However, the two values are the least provided for with regard to opportunities to satisfy. The above findings imply that principals are not satisfied with the way their work environment provides for the fulfilment of these four work values. This is confirmed by the fact that although the values for recognition and compensation are lowly ranked in terms of importance, their mean values for importance are high (recognition = 4.04, compensation = 3.97). However, with regard to the extent of their fulfilment by the work environment, the means are very low (recognition = 3.01, compensation = 2.47). An examination of Figures 5.2 and 5.3 clearly reveals this situation (cf. 5.2). It can, therefore be reasonably concluded that although principals regard each of the identified the work values as important, they are however unhappy with the manner in which they are being gratified by their work environment. This finding is further supported by the principals' responses to the interview questions as well as to the last open-ended question of the questionnaire.

7.3.4 Objective 4: Findings and conclusions regarding the current level of job satisfaction of the sub-groups of the respondents

7.3.4.1 Male respondents enjoy higher opportunities to satisfy their values than their female colleagues

With regard to opportunities to satisfy each of the individual work values, the mean scores of males are higher than those of females in 14 of the 20 cases. Moreover, in five of the 14 cases, the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant. The five work values are achievement, compensation, moral values, recognition and working conditions. Importantly, male respondents rate the work value for achievement as one of the top five that are afforded opportunities for satisfaction. However, for female respondents, the value for achievement is lowly ranked (cf. Table 5.3(a)). This implies that whereas female respondents regard the value for achievement as their topmost value, the work environment provides them few opportunities to satisfy it. It is also important to observe that there is a similarity between the first four work values that are provided with most opportunities for the gratification of the

two groups. These values are authority, ability utilization, activity and social services respectively.

A comparison of Tables 5.2(a) and 5.3(a) clearly indicates that the work environment provides most opportunities to respondents' two very important values, namely, ability utilisation and authority. This finding is significant as the satisfaction of the two work values may improve the respondents' self-esteem needs, which could in turn result in an increase in their job satisfaction. However, the mean scores for the importance of these work values are higher than the mean scores for opportunities to satisfy them for both groups. This implies that both males and females perceive the opportunities provided by the employer for their most important values as inadequate. Furthermore, the findings reveal that recognition and compensation are the least provided for in terms of opportunities to satisfy. However, a comparison of Tables 5.2 and 5.3 clearly shows that both male and female respondents do not place a high value on compensation. It is also clear that whereas male respondents lowly rate the work value for recognition; their female counterparts place a relatively high value on it. This implies that failure to satisfy the work value for recognition by the employer, will affect female respondents more adversely than their male colleagues.

A comparison of Tables 5.2 and 5.3 again shows that even though both male and female respondents rate the work value for activity low, it is afforded more opportunities for satisfaction by the work environment. This finding may be attributed to the fact that principals complain that they are being overloaded. Therefore, they are likely to rate the work value for activity low with regard to importance. However, they may proceed to rank it high in terms of opportunities to be satisfied as an indication of their frustration in what they perceive to be an excessive work load. Furthermore, a closer look at the rating of the activity work value by female respondents indicates that the mean score for opportunities provided for its satisfaction exceeds the mean score for its importance.

7.3.4.2 There is no significant difference in the extent of opportunities to satisfy values of respondents according to learner enrolment

Although respondents with high learner enrolment (650 or more learners) indicated more opportunities to satisfy their values in 12 of the 20 described values, only two of the differences in opportunities to satisfy are statistically significant. The two work values in which there is a statistically significant difference between the means are supervision in relation to human relations and technical skills. This implies that Secondary School principals perceive themselves as receiving inadequate support from their supervisors.

7.3.4.3 There is no significant difference according to experiences of respondents as principals in the extent of opportunities to satisfy values

Although the more experienced group (five or more years) recorded more opportunities to satisfy their values in 12 of the 20 described work values, there is only one case (authority) in which the difference in opportunities is statistically significant. However, this finding is important because it reveals that respondents with more experience in principalship command more authority in their schools than their inexperienced colleagues. This implies that educational leaders such as school management and governance developers should help new and inexperienced principals to manage and overcome this problem. Yet, work values that are accorded most opportunities for their satisfaction are similar for the two groups. These values are ability utilization, social services, authority and activity. Similarly, the two groups share common work values that are least provided for by the work environment, namely, security, recognition, department policies and practices, and compensation.

7.3.4.4 There is no significant difference according to the age group of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy values

Although the older age group (older than 40 years) indicated more opportunities to satisfy their work values in 17 of the 20 described needs, there are only three cases in which the differences in opportunities is statistically significant (cf. Table 5.9). Nevertheless, there is a similarity between the highest ranked opportunities of the two groups as well as their lowest ranked opportunities (cf. Table 5.9(a) & 5.9(b)).

7.3.4.5 There is no significant difference in the extent of opportunities to satisfy values of respondents according to school category

Even though Secondary School respondents recorded more opportunities to satisfy their values in 11 of the 20 described work values, there are only two cases (activity, compensation) in which the difference in the provision of opportunities is statistically significant. However, with regard to the work value for compensation, Primary School respondents enjoy significantly higher opportunities than those in Secondary Schools. This finding is remarkable in that it suggests that Secondary School principals are kept busier than their Primary Schools colleagues in their workplace. Yet, they seem to enjoy few opportunities for satisfaction in terms of remuneration (cf. Table 5.11). Notwithstanding, these disparities between the two groups, a similarity exists between their four topmost work values, namely, authority, ability, utilization, socials services and activity (cf. Table 5.11(a)). Furthermore, the work values for recognition and compensation are provided with the least opportunities for satisfaction in both groups (cf. Table 5.11). Another notable finding is in relation with how the two groups rate the work value for responsibility in terms of both importance and the provision of opportunities for its satisfaction. In this case, a comparison of Tables 5.10 and 5.11 shows that on the one hand, Primary School principals rate this work value low with regard to importance and, seemingly, it is also provided few opportunities for its satisfaction. On the other hand, Secondary School principals rate it high and seem to regard it as being provided with more opportunities for its gratification. This is an interesting and intriguing finding as it calls into question the differences, if any, between the responsibilities of Primary and Secondary schools principals.

7.3.4.6 There is no significant difference according to qualifications of respondents in the extent of opportunities to satisfy values

Although respondents holding Bachelors' and higher degrees recorded more opportunities to satisfy their work values in 15 of the 20 described values, there are only three cases (achievement, departmental policies and practices, and security) in which the differences in the opportunities are statistically significant (cf. Table 5.13). Notably, a comparison of Tables 5.12 and 5.13 reveals that less qualified respondents recorded their work value for achievement as significantly more important than their more qualified counterparts. However, with regards to the provision of opportunities to gratify this work value, the situation is reversed. Respondents with higher qualifications recorded significantly more opportunities to satisfy their achievement value than those with less qualification. This implies that highly

qualified principals enjoy more opportunities to satisfy their needs for self-actualisation and growth than their lowly qualified colleagues (cf. Figure 2.5; 2.3.2.2(v)). A similar finding is discerned with regard to the work value for security. In this case, a comparison of Tables 5.12 and 5.13 shows that respondents with few qualifications recorded their work value for security as more important than their more qualified colleagues. Yet, in terms of the provision of opportunities to satisfy the value, respondents with higher qualifications recorded significantly more opportunities than their lower qualified counterparts. Still, Table 5.13(a) indicates that there is a similarity between the four highest ranked opportunities for value satisfaction of the two groups, namely, authority, ability utilization, activity and social services. Furthermore, table 5.13(b) shows that there is some correspondence between their five lowest ranked opportunities, namely, independence, departmental policies and practices, security, recognition and compensation.

7.3.4.7 Respondents with more teaching experience enjoy higher opportunities to satisfy their needs than those with less teaching experience

Although the more experienced group (more than 15years) recorded more opportunities to satisfy their work values in 17 of the 20 described values, only three of the differences in opportunities are statistically significant. This significance in differences is found in the following work values: activity, colleagues and social services (cf. Table 5.15). A comparison of Tables 5.14 and 5.15 clearly shows that principals with less teaching experience recorded high the work values for compensation, advancement and recognition in terms of importance. However, these three work values are the least provided for in terms of opportunities to be satisfied. In addition, the mean scores for the three values regarding their satisfaction are each below 3, 00. This implies that principals with less teaching experience are not satisfied with the way the three work values are being reinforced by their work environment. However, even though recognition and compensation are ranked the lowest in terms of opportunities to be satisfied by principals with more teaching experience, the difference lies in the fact that this group (more than 15 years) also ranked the two-work values low in terms of importance. Therefore, it may be reasonably argued that the way the two work values are rewarded does not impact as adversely as it does to the former group. But with regard to the work value for advancement, it is evident that the more experienced principals also regard it as one of their topmost values. Yet, it is lowly ranked in terms of opportunities to satisfy. This implies that they are also not satisfied with promotion opportunities that are available at their workplace. Table 5.15(a) also reveals that there is a similarity between some of the topmost satisfied

values of the two groups, namely, authority, ability utilization and social services. It is also clear that recognition and compensation are the two least satisfied values for the two groups.

7.3.5 Objective 5: Findings and conclusions regarding the importance attached to each of the indicators of job satisfaction by each of the sub-groups of the respondents

7.3.5.1 Female respondents rate work values in their ideal jobs as more important than their male colleagues

Although both male and female respondents regard each of the 20 described work values as their personal values, the mean scores of females recorded more important values in 13 of the 20 described values. In addition, the difference between the mean scores in five of these 13 values is statistically significant. The five work values are following: recognition, security, social service and supervision in relation to human relations and technical skills. It is also important to note that female respondents rated security as their topmost important work value alongside achievement work value. Another significant point to note is that work values for achievement, ability utilisation and authority fall within the five topmost important values for both males and females. Additionally, the work value for independence is the least important for both groups. Therefore, it seems that both female and male principals prefer teamwork in their schools activities (cf. Tables 5.2 & 5.2(a)).

7.3.5.2 There is no significant difference between the work values of respondents according to learner enrolment

Respondents in both groups regard the 20 described work values as their personal values irrespective of the number of learners in their schools. Although there are differences in the individual mean values of the two groups, the differences are not statistically significant. The two groups have similar four topmost important values, namely, ability utilization, achievement, authority and advancement. Similarly, their three least important work values are activity, variety and independence for both groups.

7.3.5.3 There is no significant difference between the importance of respondents' work values according to their experiences as principals

Notwithstanding the fact that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, it is clear that those respondents with more experience as principals (five or more years) place more importance on the described work values than those with less experience as principals. This is confirmed by the fact that their mean scores are higher than those of their counterparts in 17 of the 20 cases. Nevertheless, their most important values, namely, ability utilization, achievement, creativity and advancement are similar and they are the following: social status, activity, variety and independence (cf. Table 5.6(b)).

7.3.5.4 There is a significant difference between the values of respondents according to age groups

Although both age groups experienced all 20 described values as personal needs, the mean scores of the older group (older than 40 years) recorded more important values in all of the 20 described values. Notably, 13 of these differences in mean scores are statistically significant (cf. Table 5.8). However, the topmost important values of the two groups, namely, ability utilization, advancement, authority, achievement and creativity are similar. Even the least important values of the two groups, namely, activity, independence, social status and variety are also similar (cf. Table 5.8(b)). This finding is important because it indicates that important work values for these respondents are identical even though they may differ in the extent of their usefulness or worthiness. Furthermore, it may be reasonably argued that older principals are likely to place more value on the importance of their work aspects because they feel that there is little hope for them to secure alternative employment elsewhere.

7.3.5.5 Secondary School respondents rate most work values higher than their Primary School colleagues

Although both Secondary and Primary Schools respondents experienced all 20 described values as their personal values, the mean scores of the Secondary Schools group recorded more important values in 17 of the 20 described values than their Primary Schools colleagues. Furthermore, eight of these differences in mean scores are statistically significant (cf. Table 5.10).There is also some similarity between their topmost and least important needs, namely, ability utilization, achievement, creativity (topmost needs) and social status, variety and independence (lowest needs). Interestingly, Secondary School respondents rate the work values for recognition, responsibility, and working conditions high, while their

Primary counterparts rate them low and the differences between the mean scores in each case are statistically significant.

7.3.5.6 Respondents with matric plus a diploma rate most work values higher than those with Bachelors and higher degrees

Whereas both academically and professionally qualified groups experienced all the 20 described work values as personal values, the mean scores of the less qualified group recorded more important values in 19 of the 20 described work values. Moreover, the differences in mean scores of six of the 19 work values are statistically significant (cf. Table 5.12). However, the three topmost values of the two groups, namely, achievement, authority and ability utilization as well as their least important values (variety, social status and independence) are similar (cf. Table 5.12(a)).

7.3.5.7 Respondents with more teaching experience rate most work values higher than those with less teaching experience

A comparison of work values of respondents according to their teaching experience revealed that both groups of principals experienced the 20 values as personal needs. Although principals with more than 15 years' teaching experience recorded more important values in 15 of the 20 described work values, only five of these differences in mean scores are statistically significant. The significance in differences is recorded in the following work values achievement, security, social status, supervision in relation to technical skills and variety (cf. Table 5.14). The comparison also revealed that the four topmost values of the two groups, namely, advancement, ability utilization, authority and creativity are similar (cf. Table 5.14(a)). Furthermore, their three least important values are also similar, namely, independence, variety and social status (cf. Table 5.14).

7.3.6 Objective 6: Findings and conclusions regarding the factors that impact negatively on the job satisfaction of the respondents

The results from the quantitative survey data reveal that principals are not satisfied with the extent to which their work environment is providing opportunities for the gratification of the 20 identified work values (cf. 5.2; 7.3.2.1). This implies that all the 20 described work aspects need to be improved in order to enhance the job satisfaction of principals. However, the following work values need urgent attention as they are likely to lead to job dissatisfaction and its attendant consequences: salary, recognition, security, advancement, working conditions and departmental policies. The decision that these work values need

urgent attention was necessitated by the results of the qualitative data collected during the semi-structured interview sessions. Other causes of dissatisfaction that were identified by the participants during the interviews included politics, work overload, corruption, high absenteeism rates for both learners and educators, relationship with educators, learners, supervisors and SGBs (cf. 7.3.2.1). Still, there were other causes of job dissatisfaction which emanated from the last open-ended item of the questionnaire. These causes included involvement in decision-making processes, financial assistance and availability of resources, implementation of OBE and ineffective SGBs.

A further analysis of the results indicates that most of the work aspects that impact negatively to principals' job satisfaction belong to what Herzberg refers to as hygiene factors. The hygiene factors of Herzberg include security, departmental policies and practices, working conditions and compensation (cf. 2.3.2.2(iii)). The literature review reveals that Herzberg's theory implies that managers should provide hygiene factors in order to remove or lessen employee dissatisfaction (cf. 2.4.1). However, the analysis also reveals that two of Herzberg's so-called motivators, namely, recognition and advancement also negatively contribute towards the job satisfaction of principals in this study. The literature review indicates, however, that satisfaction of motivators leads to employee job satisfaction (cf. 2.4.1). Therefore, in line with Herzberg's theory, it is hoped that the recommendations that follow will serve the purpose of lessening principals' job dissatisfaction through the provision of hygiene factors, while increasing their job satisfaction through the provision of motivators.

When a classification of factors leading to principals' job dissatisfaction is done in accordance with a clustering of work values (cf. Table 4.1), it becomes clear that most of the principals' discontent emanate from the working conditions, support, relationships and recognition work values clusters. It therefore, becomes relatively easy to contextualize and deal with them accordingly. For example, dissatisfying work aspects such as dilapidated buildings, salary and fringe benefits, theft, violence, insufficient funds, work overload, lack of resources, and rampant criminality would fall under the working conditions cluster. However, departmental policies and practices and supervision belong to the support cluster, while corruption, relationships with educators, SGBs and parents would constitute the relationships cluster. Lastly, recognition and advancement would fall under the recognition cluster. In the next section, recommendations on what may be done to improve the level of job satisfaction of principals, is dealt with.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS ON IMPROVING JOB SATISFACTION OF URBAN SCHOOLS PRINCIPALS

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the correspondence of occupational reinforcers to the individual needs of urban school principals in the Free State. The findings from both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that there was no correspondence between principals' individual needs or values and their work environment reinforcers. In fact, the results revealed that the work environment reinforcers were significantly inadequate to satisfy the principals' indentified work values. In line with the Theory of Work Adjustment, principals will not be satisfied with their jobs if their needs are not fulfilled by the reinforcer systems of the work environment (cf. 1.1). Therefore, a reasonable conclusion that can be drawn from the findings in this study is that urban school principals in the Free State are not entirely satisfied with their jobs. It is on the basis of the findings in this study and the conclusions arrived at, that the following recommendations are made to enhance the level of job satisfaction of urban schools' principals.

7.4.1 Recommendations pertinent to the leadership and management styles of principals

It is highly recommended that before principals can start apportioning blame to others for their frustrations and dissatisfaction in their workplace, they should first look at how they conduct themselves as leaders and managers of their institutions. The researcher firmly believes that principals can improve their own job satisfaction by ensuring that staff members are highly motivated and reasonably satisfied with their jobs. The researcher is also of the firm opinion that demotivated and dissatisfied staff members are likely to create serious problems for their principals. The literature review reveals that lowly motivated and dissatisfied employees are likely to be absent from work (cf. 3.2.2.3). In order to improve the job satisfaction of subordinates, the principal may do the following:

- Empower the staff by involving them in decision-making processes so that they can experience a sense of ownership and commitment to the school's goals (cf. 2.5.1; 2.3.2.2)
- Recognise staff members as valuable resources that are rich in ideas, knowledge creativity and high levels of untapped potential (cf. 2.5.1).
- Set clear, realistic and achievable goals that are motivating to staff members (cf. 2.4.1).
- Ensure that there exists a relationship founded on trust, shared values and commitment among the school community and encourage teamwork (cf. 2.4.1).

- Avoid the use of negative reinforcement, discriminatory and insulting behaviours and attitudes that relegate subordinates to the level of sub-humans (cf. 2.4.1).

- Open up proper communication channels in the school and be accessible to the staff members, offer them guidance, training and feedback where necessary (cf. 2.3.2.3).

- Recognise staff members as valuable, capable and responsible professionals who should be respected and treated in a manner befitting their status (cf. 2.3.2.2).

- Cultivate the boundless potential in subordinates by sharing knowledge and creating a spirit of collegiality amongst the staff members (cf. 2.5.1).

- Recognize achievement and give praise to deserving staff members, while encouraging others to be achievement oriented (cf. 3.2.10.1).

The above-mentioned recommendations are just a few inviting strategies that principals can utilize to foster good relations between themselves and their staff members in schools. Principals who effectively use these strategies are likely to reduce unnecessary conflicts that may undermine both the principals' and their subordinates' job satisfaction.

7.4.2 Recommendations regarding what educational leaders and other stakeholders should do to enhance principals' job satisfaction

Both the quantitative and qualitative data have revealed that the following work aspects negatively affect the job satisfaction of principals, and need to be urgently addressed: salary and fringe benefits, recognition, advancement, security, working conditions, and departmental policies. The following strategies may be used by the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders such as SGBs to enhance principals' job satisfaction in relation to the following work aspects: working conditions, recognition, support and relationships.

7.4.2.1 Recommendations regarding working conditions

(i) Salary and fringe benefits

- Continued negotiations between unions and the Minister for Public Service and Administration are encouraged as they are essential for equitable adjustments to the salaries of principals. Any reviews of the salary structures should, however, take into account the financial and fiscal realities of the country.

- Hardworking principals should be identified and rewarded by the Department of Basic Education in recognition of their good performance (cf. 2.3.2.2). This could be achieved by appointing them as mentors of principals of failing schools and duly rewarding them for their efforts. Effective principals could also be assigned and rewarded to conduct management and leadership workshops for their ineffective counterparts as well as newly appointed principals. By giving more responsibilities and accompanying rewards to effective principals, the Department of Basic Education could also be indirectly alleviating the problem of promotions.

- Principals should effectively share their workloads with their School Management Teams (SMTs), and with other senior and committed educators as this might help them reduce their perception that their salaries are not commensurate with the amount of work they do. SMGDs should also check whether principals are not overworking themselves by not delegating duties to other SMT members.

- It is recommended that principals be given car allowances in order to enable them to attend the numerous meetings that they are expected to attend. This may also help the SGBs to effectively use the school finances for other important purposes that directly benefit the quality of education that learners receive.

- SGBs should embark on serious fund-raising campaigns that will enable them to reward both educators and principals alike for excellent performance resulting from extensive and effective use of extra working hours.

- Increasing principals' salaries is likely to encourage serving principals and those who intend quitting to remain in the Education Department. Such increments may, in fact, motivate young educators to aspire to be principals and therefore remain committed to school goals.

(ii) Security

- Principals should regularly educate parents about the pass conditions for learners in order to minimize the number of parents who confront principals when their children fail at the end of the year. Educating parents about the pass conditions for the children will significantly reduce principals' anxiety and fear of angry and unruly parents.

- SGBs should assist the principals in helping parents understand the pass conditions and persuading them to avoid rudeness when seeking clarification on this matter from principals. This implies that the SGB should encourage and urge parents to regularly attend meetings organized by the school.

- Principals are tasked with instilling learner and educator discipline in their schools. Therefore, principals are obliged to thoroughly know the correct procedures that are to be followed in executing disciplinary measures in their schools. The failure by principals to adhere to the correct procedures is likely to result in them being charged with misconduct, which may, in turn, create feelings of frustrations and discontent among principals. Consequently, it is recommended that relevant departmental officials should conduct regular workshops regarding labour issues and alternative discipline strategies for principals.

- Disciplinary cases that have been referred to the District Office by principals should be attended to urgently in a bid to support principals in their mission to instil discipline in their schools. If these referrals are not timely attended to, they are likely to create the impression among principals that they are not being supported by the District Office and are likely to be ridiculed and harmed by these culprits who commit serious crimes in the school. The Department of Basic Education should investigate the real reasons behind the unlawful use of corporal punishment by principals in schools. They may well find that the lack of support from the department turns principals' frustration into anger, which may unfortunately result in rage and violence if not controlled.

- The Department should hire Security Guards to search learners on entering the school premises in order to effectively curb violent incidents at school. It seems unfair to expect principals to search for weapons and drugs from dangerous drug-abusing learners as most principals are presumably not trained on how to defend themselves in combat situations.

- Principals are encouraged to align themselves with all departmental guidelines for ensuring safety in their schools as these guidelines are likely to curb the serious problem of substance abuse by learners if properly implemented.

- SGBs should actively participate in ensuring that learners and educators are working in a crime-free environment. This could be attained by relentlessly encouraging parents to search their children for weapons and drugs before they leave for school.

- Taverns, bottle stores and shebeens should be barred from operating or doing business near schools as they encourage mischief among learners and even educators in some instances.

- The Department of Basic Education should renovate dilapidated buildings that may cause serious harm to both educators and learners. The SGB should also actively participate in this endeavour by seeking assistance from Non-Governmental Organisations, which are available and willing to improve the quality of learners' education in schools.

- Principals should be sensitive to the needs of their staff members. They should not be disrespectful towards their staff members as this is likely to engender feelings of animosity and hatred in the latter.

- The police staff adopted by schools should be encouraged by the principal and the SGB to frequently visit the school and to be part of the School Based Support Team (SBST). Police presence at schools may discourage deviant conduct by both learners and educators.

- The police should be encouraged to protect principals and other staff members during labour strikes. It is important that principals' safety is ensured during these trying times in order to reduce their fear, anxiety and stress levels.

- SMGDs and other departmental officials should refrain from continually threatening principals with written warnings and public verbal abuse for wrong-doing, before a proper investigation was done regarding possible wrong-doing by a principal (cf. 2.4.1).

7.4.2.2 Recommendations regarding recognition

(i) Recognition

- Recognition derives from successful performance. It is, therefore, critically important that educational managers give recognition for outstanding performance by principals. All stakeholders should be obliged to always give sincere praise and incentives if possible to principals who perform optimally.

- It is not a good practice to only give rewards to learners and educators who perform excellently while neglecting the principal who makes it possible for educators and learners to perform well by creating a climate conducive to teaching and learning in the school. Therefore, the Department of Basic Education should seriously consider rewarding optimally performing principals because when learners fail, it is the principal who carries the blame. Nevertheless, the rewards should be made contingent on performance and used to reinforce performance and effort.

(ii) Advancement

- Diligent principals should be afforded opportunities for promotion in the Department of Basic Education by utilizing available career opportunities.

- Only industrious, hard working and deserving principals should be promoted. There should be no room for appointments that are based on nepotism, affiliations with popular unions and political parties or bribery and corruption.

- The Department of Basic Education should seriously consider whether appointments made on the basis of affirmative action or other political considerations really benefit the society at large or whether they only benefit certain societal groups. The country's education system is faced with serious challenges that can be overcome by promoting only the best. Appointing the best includes ignoring sex, colour, ethnicity or creed in the process of selecting suitable candidates.

7.4.2.3 Recommendations regarding support

(i) Departmental policies and practices

- The involvement of principals and other stakeholders such as educators in policy making is important because they experience a sense of ownership and commitment to the policies.

- Commitment to departmental policies urges those who participated in their formation to accept responsibility for these policies and, therefore, increases the likelihood that the policies will be protected and implemented without any problems.

- The principals' participation in the formulation of policies could help them to experience a sense of achievement and recognition of their potential, which may, in turn, increase their levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

- It is critically important for principals to familiarise themselves fully with departmental policies affecting their schools in order to avoid unnecessary frustrations that are likely to lead to stress and dissatisfaction. Principals experience embarrassment during disciplinary hearings when challenged by union representatives about departmental policies that the principals seem to be hardly familiar with. However, the fact that the majority of principals in the study indicated that most departmental policies are good, implies that principals are familiar with the policies.

- The policy regarding learner pregnancy is a source of stress and frustration for many Secondary School principals. The policy is very clear on what steps should be followed when a learner becomes pregnant. However, departmental officials effectively prevent principals from implementing it by intervening when it is about to be effected. Therefore, the Department of Basic Education should either amend the policy or simply scrap it if it violates the rights of children.

- Principals are encouraged to timely submit documents required for the quarterly depositing of funds into their school accounts. This may effectively lessen the delays that schools experience in having the funds timely deposited and the accompanying challenges of having to run a school without funds. Departmental officials should also deposit school funds without any delay to schools that comply with the regulations.

- SGBs should be advised to devise strategies to deal with emergencies where payment needs to be done urgently without having to wait for the normal procedure that is usually followed. However, principals should refrain from treating trivial cases as emergencies, for this may result in finances maladministration.

- New curriculum policies are not known to most principals. Therefore, they can be very frustrating to most of them. It is for this reason that the Department of Basic Education is advised to train principals on how the policies should be effectively implemented. As the literature review indicates, principals are likely to experience feelings of inefficacy when they have to bring about change and implement curriculum policies that they are not familiar with in the first place. Feelings of inefficacy are likely to undermine their job satisfaction and result in burnout (cf. 3.2.6).

- SMGDs are encouraged to hold regular workshops to explain policies pertaining to misconduct of educators and learners. Labour officials during workshops highlight the fact that in most instances, principals lose cases of educators' misconduct because they (principals) do not follow the correct procedures. And losing cases in which educators were charged with serious misconduct, can be very frustrating to principals.

- SMGDs should refrain from encouraging or instructing principals to condone learners who have actually failed. This can be very frustrating to both principals and educators in Secondary Schools as learners who reach Grade 12 by way of condonation invariably fail the grade. Furthermore, principals are likely to be charged with misconduct for tampering with learners' results.

- Learning Facilitators are encouraged to visit schools regularly to assist educators to effectively deal with curriculum issues. Principals complain that Learning Facilitators only visit their schools when they come to check School Based Assessment marks. Therefore, the Department of Basic Education officials are encouraged to regulate Learning Facilitators' visits to schools. Principals also claim that Learning Facilitators rarely assist their staff to deal with problems pertaining to subject content. This can be very frustrating to some principals as in most cases they are also not familiar with the subject-content of some learning areas.

- The Department of Basic Education should also review the Post Provisioning Model as it does not cater for the individual needs of schools. Principals complain that the redeployment of educators remains a serious concern to them.

(ii) SGBs

The situation in South African schools is such that the majority of SGB members (parent component) are either illiterate or semi-illiterate because of their socio-economic backgrounds. Therefore, principals who have to deal with such SGB members find themselves faced with an enormous task of having to work with people who not only lack the necessary skills to govern the school, but who are also either illiterate or semi-illiterate. Such a situation can be very frustrating to some principals. However, some principals and educators also regard such a situation as an opportunity to manipulate those members who are ignorant about school governance.

With this background in mind, principals are advised to embark on the following actions to ensure that they secure support from SGB members:

- Principals should assist SMGDs in training SGBs in a way that ensures that they become competent in matters relating to the duties that they are expected to perform. When SGB members realize that their principals are willing to help them learn, then such SGB members are likely to support principals in achieving their school goals, Support from SGBs is critical in lessening stress levels of principals and improving their attitudes towards their schools.

- Issues pertaining to school finance should be openly debated without SGB members developing a sense that they are being used and manipulated by principals. Serious conflicts within the SGB, emanating from management of school finances, can result in principals not receiving the much needed support from their SGBs. When principals are faced with a situation where all their efforts are being thwarted by intransigent and uncooperative SGB members, they are likely to experience stress, frustrations and low levels of job satisfaction. Therefore, principals' attitudes towards their SGBs and the extent to which they are willing to support the latter, largely determine the kind and degree of support that they will receive from this relationship.

- Principals should assist SGB members to understand the dangers of compromising the education of their children by accepting bribes and favours from service providers and other interested parties. SGB members are likely to understand this problem if the principal constantly explains to them that many schools fail because SGBs readily accept bribes and nominate incompetent principals and educators in interviews. These incompetent educators, in turn, fail the affected communities.

Therefore, principals may effectively enhance their own job satisfaction by ensuring that they train their SGBs properly.

- It is the responsibility of the SMGDs to train SGBs. Therefore, SMGDs are obliged to guide SGBs on how to govern schools. During the training process, the SMGD should emphasize the importance of SGBs executing their tasks in a manner that supports the principal and the school at large. The SMGD should warn SGB members about the dangers of disunity within the SGB, and how this disunity eventually impacts on the performance of the learners. Therefore, there is a need for SGBs to work as teams and to support their principals.

- SGBs should encourage parents to actively participate in school activities and to support the principal and educators in their mission to realise the goals of the schools.

(iii) SMGDs

SMGDs are the immediate supervisors of principals. They are, therefore, expected to guide and support principals on how to manage schools effectively. In a bid to support principals in their mission to achieve excellent outcomes, SMGD may embark on the following actions:

- SMGDs should not force or encourage principals to condone learners who have failed, as these learners are likely to repeat the same performance in the next Grade. Educators tend to blame principals when learners who were condoned fail the next Grade, especially Grade 12.

- SMGDs should conduct regular workshops for principals. This is very important in an environment where departmental policies are rapidly changing. Principals have to be kept abreast of all developments that directly affect their schools. The failure to assist principals in coping with the continuous change in policies may result in principals experiencing feelings of inefficacy, helplessness and frustration that may further lead to stress and burnout. Unfortunately, burnout in principals is characterised by the presence of strain-inducing stressors that can overwhelm their coping abilities (cf. 3.2:6).

- Principals complain about work-overload. It seems necessary for SMGDs to train principals on how to effectively manage the delegation of duties during periods of change. The delegation of duties is necessary as it enables principals to effectively lessen their work-load and, therefore, cope with their other responsibilities. Furthermore, part of the duties of the SMGD is to guide principals and SMTs in the implementation of the NCS and CAPS in all phases.

- SMGDs may effectively reduce principals' frustrations by facilitating effective communication between schools and learners support sections within the district such as the District Based Support Team (DBST). These sections, in collaboration with the School Based Support Teams (SBSTs) can assist schools with programmes on matters related to child abuse and substance abuse. Functional SBSTs can significantly reduce frustration and stress among principals by identifying and supporting vulnerable learners, learners living in child-headed families and those who abuse drugs.

- Criminal activities by learners in schools are often committed by vulnerable learners who are abusing drugs. Therefore, SMGDs may support principals by encouraging DBSTs to regularly visit and support principals in those schools where serious learner behavioural problems are known to exist.

- SMGDs should refrain from ridiculing, harassing and embarrassing principals in the presence of the latter's subordinates. Instead, SMGDs should be very professional when reprimanding principals, and should do so in a manner that suggests development rather than condemnation. This may help to preserve principals' dignity and self-esteem.

7.4.2.4 Recommendations regarding relationships

(i) Educators

In addition to the recommendations in Section 7.4.1, principals may further embark on the following to improve relations between themselves and their colleagues:

- The principal should put more emphasis on individuals' contribution to the team than on a position that one holds within the institution. In doing so, the principal will be indicating to the staff members that leadership is something that many people can do. Therefore, it is not necessary to strictly differentiate people according to their positions at work. In this way, subordinates are likely to experience enhanced self-esteem; they are likely to feel that they form valuable resources that are rich in ideas, knowledge creativity and high levels of untapped human energy (cf. 2.5.1). A motivated and job satisfied staff member is likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours that are desperately and urgently needed by most schools. The literature review reveals that employees tend to exhibit OCBs when they perceive their employment relationship to be founded on trust, shared values and commitment (cf. 3.2.1). Furthermore, subordinates who display OCBs are unlikely to absent themselves from school. Instead they demonstrate care for their organisations (cf.

3.2.1). In such an environment, the principal's job satisfaction is likely to be improved.

(ii) Learners

In order for learners to experience a sense of belonging and ownership in their schools, principals should ensure that learners play a positive role in the school by ensuring that the Representative Council of Learners (RCL) represents the learner body in all important school committees such as the SGB as required. A well trained RCL is likely to play a major role in motivating other learners to achieve and to refrain from indulging in stupefying drugs. The involvement of the RCL in school committees implies that learners fully participate in decision-making processes of the school. Therefore, the principals' job satisfaction is likely to increase in an environment where learners feel that they are being treated like responsible people who have a role to play in their own education. Additionally, committees such as the SBST can play an important role in helping learners to overcome problems related to sexual abuse, drug and alcohol abuse, chronic absenteeism and HIV/Aids. This implies that for principals to enjoy incremental job satisfaction in their workplace, they need to ensure that all school structures are functional.

(iii) SMGDs

All the recommendations mentioned in Section 7.4.1 are equally applicable to SMGDs as immediate supervisors of principals. A relationship characterised by respect, trust, responsibility, involvement, shared mission and vision, motivation to achieve and commitment can effectively improve principals' perceptions and attitudes towards their SMGDs. Such a relationship is likely to yield positive outcomes that can help improve principals' job satisfaction. The ability of SMGDs to provide technical expertise that principals can effectively use to achieve the desired school goals may be critical in enhancing principals' job satisfaction.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS ACCORDING TO PRIORITY OF WORK VALUES

Based on the priority of values to be addressed, as set out under 7.3.2.1, specific recommendations regarding the first six top priorities are made. The rationale behind limiting the recommendations only to the first six top values emanates from the finding that these values were considered to contribute significantly towards principals' job dissatisfaction by the participants in the interviews conducted by the researcher.

Priority 1: Compensation

Recommendations regarding compensation

- The present pay structure which remunerates principals according to the number of learners and educators in their schools is unfair and worrisome to some principals as it is not based on critical factors such as performance and productivity. It seems unfair that principals whose schools are underperforming should earn more than those who are excelling in their schools simply because the former happen to have a bigger number of learners and educators in their schools than the latter. Therefore, it seems necessary that the Department of Basic Education should develop a job evaluation system along the lines of the Peromnes evaluation system. Peromnes is a widely used job evaluation system in South Africa which scores jobs on factors such as problem solving, pressure of work, job impact, consequence of judgement, educational training and experience required. The aggregate score is applied to a sliding scale to determine job grade (Peromnes http:with Answers.com, 2012:1). Peromnes also provides the basis for allocation of an appropriate remuneration package.

The Department of Basic Education, using the Peromnes evaluation system as a guideline, and in consultation with the Provincial Departments and other stakeholders should design a new dispensation system for educators, including principals, to effectively improve the current situation. With regard to principals, the system should provide for the following:

- A basic salary in line with the responsibilities of a principal, as well as the impact of the job on the life of the individual principal.
- Fringe benefits such as 13[th] cheque; medical aid; housing allowance, car allowance, pension fund as well as a merit reward system.

Priority 2: Recognition

Recommendations regarding recognition

Included in the remuneration system should be a merit reward system whereby principals are being rewarded for exceptional achievement. A system of performance measurement should therefore also be designed and applied. For this purpose, it is recommended that the current performance measurement, namely, IQMS be retained by the Department with the following modifications in respect of principals' performance evaluation:

- Principals should be exempted from teaching and should therefore not be assessed on the first four performance standards. However, principals should be assessed on the extent to which they, as instructional leaders, ensure that the four performance standards – which are dealing with classroom activities - are adequately met by their subordinates in their normal teaching activities. This could be attained by making it obligatory for principals to - at least once a quarter - pay each educator a visit in the classroom with the sole objective of ensuring that the first four performance standards are properly executed in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning encounter in their schools. This could help ensure that IQMS becomes a process as it is supposed to be and not a once off event. Furthermore, principals would at least be able to effectively moderate the scores of the individual staff members during the summative evaluation.

- Unions and other stakeholders should be consulted for their inputs with regard to the recommended modifications in the IQMS document. It is strongly believed that most schools fail to perform optimally because the first four performance standards are not properly evaluated and monitored. Consequently, educators do not receive proper assistance and development as required.

- Principals should also specifically be evaluated on the extent to which they are able to identify and deal with the barriers that hinder educators to perform optimally with regard to the first four performance standards. It is believed that effective principals will be able to identify barriers and constraints that lead to poor teaching and learning practices in class.

Priority 3: Security

Recommendations regarding the security work value (cf. 7.4.2.1(ii))

> Essential for a feeling of job security is an employment system that provides for secure employment including an appropriate remuneration package (see recommendation priority 1); recognition and rewards based on performance (see recommendation priority 2); advancement opportunities based on merit (see recommendation priority 4); pleasant working conditions (see recommendation priorities 5 and 6) and which is governed by fair staff regulations.

Priority 4: Advancement

Recommendations regarding advancement

- A system similar to the one that was used by the National Department of Basic Education to identify educators qualifying to be senior and master educators could be effectively used in the grading of principals' post. In this way principals could be categorised as say, ordinary principals, senior principals and master principals. Accordingly, the last two categories should represent a form of advancement for the principal while staying on as principal.

- The last two levels of principals - senior and master principals - should be accompanied by additional responsibilities and increased remuneration. This implies that senior principals will earn a higher salary than ordinary principals. However, senior principals may be assigned additional duties that may include mentoring those classified as ordinary principals. Similarly, master principals will earn more salary than both senior and ordinary principals. However, more duties will be assigned to them, including conducting workshops for the other two categories and executing duties that would normally be done by the SMGD.

- This promotion occurring within the principalship post should be based on performance which should include the results of learners at all levels within the school. Performance indicators should be put into place in order to differentiate between the three classes. For example, elementary principals could include those whose end-year results consistently range from 50% to 79%. Senior principals would be those who consistently perform between 79% and 90%. Therefore, master principals would be those whose end year learner results consistently range from 90% to100%.

- Principals who are inconsistent in terms of performance should be graded according to the average of their performance over a period of three years. The system should be able to upgrade or downgrade principals in line with their performance.

Priority 5: Working conditions

Recommendations regarding working conditions

- The Department of Basic Education should revise the present model used for allocation of teaching posts and administration posts to a school. The fundamental flaw with the present model lies in that it uses criteria that do not take into account all the school's needs when determining the school's staff establishment. As a result, a school may be said to be on norm, while in actual fact it is understaffed. For example it is common to find a school with a serious shortage of Mathematics educators being declared on norm by the model. The revised allocation model should be able to determine the school staff establishment in accordance with the subject allocation of educators, and not only on the basis of the number of educators and learners in the school.

- The Free State Department of Education should declare all public schools in predominantly black communities "no fee" schools because the majority of learners registered in these schools are from impoverished families. Accordingly, these schools should also be accorded Quintile 1 or Quintile 2 status. It is also recommended that the Free State Department of Education should increasingly accord all schools with consistent unqualified auditors' reports Section 21 status. In this way schools may be empowered and motivated to manage themselves effectively. Empowerment also results in principals experiencing an increased sense of autonomy, which may in turn result in enhanced job satisfaction. There should, however, be no inconsistencies in the funding of Section 21 schools. This implies that if the Free State Department of Education decides to buy learning and teaching support material for Section 21 schools, it should not be seen to be selective in executing this task.

Priority 6: Departmental policies and practices

Recommendations regarding departmental policies and practices

- With regard to departmental policies, principals should be allowed to participate in the formulation of policies affecting their schools (cf. 7.4.2.3). For example, Senior and Master principals should serve in policy committees or participate in policy formulation forums. Officials of principals' organisations such as the South African Principals Association should also be invited to serve in the above mentioned policy making structures. This is likely to instil a sense of empowerment and increased self-

esteem in principals which may in turn, result in enhanced motivation and job satisfaction of principals.

- With respect to departmental practices, all schools should be provided with annual timetables for official visits by departmental officials such as SMGDs and LFs. This is likely to help reduce the frustrations and insecurities that are experienced by principals emanating from unscheduled and "surprise" visits from departmental officials as well as unscheduled meetings to which principals are called. The annual timetables may also alleviate problems relating to last minutes requests to submit documentation which principals must prepare under tremendous pressure. Intervention plans that are intended to assist schools should also be communicated timely to principals so as to avoid the unintended disruptions that they often cause at schools. It is, therefore, recommended that a Departmental Year Programme be drafted that includes a programme of visits, dates of meetings and due dates for submission of documents such as school improvement plans, budgets and reports. The department should adhere to its own programme in a bid to eliminate or lessen frustrations of principals that invariably result in job dissatisfaction.

7.6 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

One major limitation of this study is that it was confined to Free State urban school principals only. It also excluded all principals from farm schools. However, the sample included principals from areas such as Qwaqwa and Botshabelo, which may not, strictly speaking, be classified as urban but semi-urban. Notwithstanding this fact, these areas were included because the quality of schools found in these areas is largely the same as that of most schools in urban areas. Another problem of the study relates to the fact that it did not investigate the reasons behind the significant differences in ratings and rankings of work values by some sub-groups such as those divided according to gender and age. It may be worthwhile for future research to investigate such factors.

It seems important that future research should divide principals into rural, sub-urban, semi-urban and urban in order to determine whether or not the different locations could influence the overall job satisfaction of principals in the region. Furthermore, future research could also investigate the level of job satisfaction among deputy principals in the Free State.

7.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the level of job satisfaction of urban school principals in the Free State with a view to identify those aspects of their work that deny them the opportunity to turn their schools into centres of excellence. The study has revealed that although the work environment attempts to provide opportunities to satisfy principals' important work needs or values, the extent of the satisfaction of needs does not correspond with their importance. The study has further shown that needs or value importance significantly exceeds opportunities provided for needs fulfilment. Although the selected groups ranked and rated needs importance differently, they, nevertheless, agreed to a large extent on the most important and least important needs. The same applied to their ranking and rating of opportunities provided for gratification of their needs.

The qualitative data complemented and further confirmed the results of the quantitative data. Notably, the study has revealed that most of the needs that contributed towards lowering principals' job satisfaction largely correspond with Herzberg's so-called hygiene and motivating factors. Furthermore, when the results from both the quantitative and qualitative data were classified by clustering them into six work values, they were found to mainly fall under the following categories: working conditions, recognition, support and relationships. The four categories have been identified as constituting negatively to the overall satisfaction of principals. Therefore, it seems important that the Free State Department of Education should attend to the identified principals' needs and address them accordingly.

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APPENDIX A

Enquiries: Prof. J.G. Van Staden
Phone: 051 401 2377
Fax: 051 448 0363

Bluegumbosch Secondary School
P.O. Box 5170
Phuthaditjhaba
9866
25 April 2009

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL.

RESEARCH TITLE: JOB SATISFACTION AMONG URBAN SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE FREE STATE

I hereby make a humble request to be granted permission to conduct research on the level of job satisfaction among urban school principals in your school. The results of the study will help me to successfully complete my PhD studies at the University of the Free State. In addition, the outcome of the research may assist the department of education to identify causes and consequences of job dissatisfaction among school principals, and to take appropriate action aimed at alleviating the situation if and when it is necessary.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would be so kind as to assist the researcher by responding candidly and without reservations to the attached questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers. Participation in the research is voluntary and completion of questionnaires should ideally take place outside normal tuition time of your school.

The responses to the questions will be used for research only. No individual or school will be identified and all information will be kept confidential. The results and summary of the research will be sent to each of the five (5) education district offices in the Free State. Consequently you may acquaint yourself with the research results through your district office if you so desire.

Please answer all items of Section A and B of the questionnaire.

Kindly return the complete questionnaire, in a sealed enveloped that has been supplied with the questionnaires. The researcher's address is indicated on the sealed envelope.

It will be highly appreciated if you could send the completed questionnaire within three days.

I thank you for your co-operation and assistance and further apologize for any inconvenience that the research may cause you.

Yours sincerely
A.M. Mosikidi (MR)

FREE STATE PROVINCE

Enquiries : Ms. Gaborone MMA
Reference no : 16/4/1/5-2006

Tel. (051) 404 8058
Fax (051) 447 7018

Mr. A.M. Mosikidi
Iphondle Secondary School
P.O. Box 17
Warden
9890

Dear Mr. Mosikidi

REGISTRATION OF RESEARCH PROJECT

1. This letter is in reply to your application for the registration of your research project.

2. Research topic: Job satisfaction among school principals in the Free State.

3. Your research project has been registered with the Free State Education Department and you may conduct research in the Free State Department of Education under the following conditions

   3.1 Educators and learners, participate voluntarily in the project.
   3.2 The names of all schools, educators, and learners involved remain confidential.
   3.3 The questionnaires are completed and the interviews are conducted outside normal tuition time.
   3.4 This letter is shown to all participating persons.

4. You are requested to donate a report on this study to the Free State Department of Education. It will be placed in the Education Library, Bloemfontein. It will be appreciated if you would also bring a summary of the report on a computer disc, so that it may be placed on the website of the Department.

5. Once your project is complete, you may be invited to present your findings to the relevant persons in the FS Department of Education. This will increase the possibility of implementing your findings wherever possible.

6. You are requested to confirm acceptance of the above conditions in writing to:

   The Head: Education, for attention:
   DIRECTOR : QUALITY ASSURANCE
   Room 401, Syfrets Building
   Private Bag X20565, BLOEMFONTEIN. 9301

We wish you every success with your research

Yours sincerely

FR SELLO
DIRECTOR : QUALITY ASSURANCE

Department of Education ∇ Departement van Onderwys ∇ Lefapha la Thuto

QUESTIONNAIRE: JOB SATISFACTION OF PRINCIPALS

SECTION A: PERSONAL INFORMATION

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY MARKING
THE APPROPRIATE BOX WITH AN X:

1. WHAT IS YOUR CURRENT POSITION
1.1. Acting Principal
1.2. Principal

1
2

2. YOUR GENDER
2.1. Male
2.2. Female

1
2

3. TOTAL LEARNER ENROLMENT

3.1. Less than 650
3.2. 650 and above

1
2

4. SCHOOL CATEGORY

4.1. Primary school (Grade R – 06)
4.2. Intermediate school (Grade 07 – 09)
4.3. Secondary school (Grade 08 – 12)
4.4. Senior Secondary school (Grade 10 – 12)
4.5. Combined school (Grade R – 12)
4.6. Any other category (specify)

1
2
3
4
5
6

5. TYPE OF SCHOOL
5.1. Public school.
5.2. Independent school

1
2

6. Experience as principal
6.1. Less than 5 years
6.2. Five or more years

1
2

7. YOUR HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION

7.1. Matric and Teacher Diploma
7.2. Matric and Baccalaureus Degree
7.3. Honneurs Degree
7.4. Masters Degree
7.5. Doctors Degree

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

8 YOUR AGE

8.1 40 year or younger
8.2 Older than 40

1	
2	

9. YOUR TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT

9.1. Temporary
9.2. Permanent

1	
2	

10. TEACHING EXPERIENCE

10.1 1 – 5 years
10.2 6 - 10 years
10.3 11 – 15 years
10.4 More than 15 years

1	
2	
3	
4	

SECTION B

JOB SATISFACTION/IMPORTANCE.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to give you a chance to tell us how you feel about your present job. First, what things are important to you in your ideal job (the kind of job you would most like to have) and those that are not important; secondly what things does your present job enable you to do in your work situation.

On the basis of your answers and those of principals like you, we hope to get a better understanding of things principals value in their jobs, and what opportunities are available to them to satisfy these values in their present jobs.

On the following page you will find two sets of statements about your ideal job and present job respectively.

- Read each statement of the first set carefully.

- Decide how important the aspect of your ideal job described by the statement is and mark the statement according ly.

- Read each statement of the second set carefully.

- Decide whether your present job enables you to satisfy the aspect of your job described by the statement and mark the statement accordingly

- Remember, keep the statement in mind when deciding how important the aspect of your ideal job is or whether your present job enables you to satisfy the aspect of the job described.

- Do this for all statements in both sets. Please answer every item.

- Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your ideal and present job.

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IMPORTANCE section

IMPORTANCE: Ask yourself; How important is this aspect of my ideal job?

VERY IMP: I regard this aspect of my ideal job as very important.

IMP: I regard this aspect of my ideal job as important.

N: I can't decide whether this aspect of my ideal job is important or unimportant.

UNIMP: I regard this aspect of my ideal job as unimportant.

VERY UNIMP: Means I regard this aspect of my ideal job as very unimportant

On my ideal job it is important that.....

		Very unimp	Unimp	N	Imp	Very imp
1	**Ability utilization:** .... I make use of my abilities					
2	**Achievement:** .... the work could give me a feeling of accomplishment					
3	**Activity:** .... I could be busy all the time					
4	**Advancement:** ....the job would provide an opportunity for advancement					
5	**Authority:** ....I could give directions to others.					
6	**Departmental policies and practices:** ....I would be treated fairly.					
7	**Compensation:** .... My pay would compare well with that of other employees.					
8	**Colleagues:** ....my colleagues would be easy to get along with.					
9	**Creativity:** ....I could try out my own ideas					
10	**Independence:** .... I could work alone					
11	**Moral values:** ....I would never be pressured to do things that go against my sense of right or wrong					
12	**Recognition:** ....I could receive recognition for the work I do					
13	**Responsibility:** ....I could make decisions on my own					
14	**Security:** ....the job would provide for steady security					
15	**Social service:** ....I would do things for other people					
16	**Social status:** I could be looked up to by others in my company and my community.					
17	**Supervision-human relations:** ....I have supervisors who would back up their subordinates with management					
18	**Supervision-technical:** ....I would have supervisors who train subordinates well					
19	**Variety:** ....I could do something different every day					
20	**Working conditions:** ....the job would have good working conditions					

OPPORTUNITY section

OPPORTUNITY: Ask yourself; To what extent does my present job provide opportunities to satisfy my needs?

DEF NO OPP: There is definitely no opportunity

NO OPP: There is any opportunity

UNCER: Uncertain, I can't decide whether there are or no opportunities.

OPP: There are opportunities to satisfy the need.

DEF OPP: There are definitely opportunities to satisfy the need

My present job provides me opportunities to.....

		Def No opp	No opp	Uncer	Opp	Def opp
1	**Ability utilization:** ....make use of my abilities					
2	**Achievement:** ....experience a feeling of accomplishment					
3	**Activity:** ....be busy all the time					
4	**Advancement:** ....advance myself					
5	**Authority:** ....give directions to others					
6	**Departmental policies and practices:** ....be treated fairly					
7	**Compensation:** ....earn pay that compares well with that of other employees					
8	**Colleagues:** ....easily get along with my colleagues					
9	**Creativity:** ....try out my own ideas					
10	**Independence:** ....to work alone					
11	**Moral values:** ....not to be pressured to do things that go against my sense of right or wrong					
12	**Recognition:** ....receive recognition for the work I do					
13	**Responsibility:** ....make decisions on my own					
14	**Security:** ....have steady security.					
15	**Social service:** ....do things for other people					
16	**Social status:** ....be looked up to by others in my company and my community					
17	**Supervision-human relations:** .... have supervisors who back up their subordinates with management					
18	**Supervision-technical:** ....have supervisors who train subordinates well.					
19	**Variety:** ....do something different every day					
20	**Working conditions:** ....to work in good working conditions					

Please describe any other aspect of your ideal job that is not provided for by your present job.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

JOB SATISFACTION INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPALS

Interview Questions:

1. In your work situation does the amount of work you do, compare favourably with the salary that you earn? Please support your response.

2. Does your present work environment recognize your overall contribution to the education of our children? Please support your response.

3. To what extent do you feel secure as a principal in your present work environment? Please explain.

4. Do you feel that you as a principal are provided any opportunities for advancement in your present work environment? Support your response.

5. Are you happy with the working conditions of your present job? Please explain.

6. What is your assessment of departmental policies and practices in your present job?

7. Is there any other aspect of your work that could be a cause for dissatisfaction?

SUMMARY

Job satisfaction, being a nebulous and multidimensional concept, is considered to be the most important and frequently studied social construct in organisational behaviour literature. This study investigated the level of job satisfaction among urban schools principals in the Free State. In order to attain the desired goals of the study, the congruence between principals' needs or values and the work environment reinforcers was examined. Two methods of investigation that complement each other, namely, the quantitative and qualitative methods, were used to collect the data. Furthermore, a literature review on job satisfaction and what job satisfaction of principals entails was explored. The literature review revealed the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction. It also revealed how motivational theories can be used to improve employees' job satisfaction. A further examination of the literature on job satisfaction revealed that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and the following organisational behaviours: organisational citizenship behaviours, withdrawal from work, absenteeism, turnover, union activity, counter-productive behaviours, physical and psychological health, burnout, productivity, occupational level, life satisfaction and achievement. It is clear from the literature review that increasing principals' job satisfaction may either increase or reduce some of the above-mentioned organisational behaviours.

The results from both the quantitative and qualitative data evidently indicated that there was no correspondence between principals' needs and the reinforcers of the work environment. The results revealed further that the opportunities provided by the work environment were very few and inadequate to satisfy principals' important needs. Additionally, the results showed that the following needs or work aspects of principals need urgent attention: compensation, recognition, advancement, security, working conditions, departmental policies and practices, and relationships with other stakeholders.

The following recommendations were among those that emanated from the literature review and the empirical data: principals should realise that their job satisfaction may be significantly improved if they first ensure that they effectively motivate and increase the level of job satisfaction of their subordinates in their institutions; they should also empower themselves by familiarising themselves and implementing the policies of the Department of Basic Education correctly. It is also recommended that the Department of Basic Education should revisit some of the policies that frustrate principals and impact negatively on their overall performance in the school. These policies include the learner pregnancy policy, the

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policy regarding the allocation of funds to Section 21 schools, and the Post Provisioning Model used for educator recruitment and redeployment. The limitations of this study and recommendations for further research are also mentioned.

Key terms:

Job satisfaction

Job dissatisfaction

Motivation

Morale

Work values/needs

Work environment reinforcers

Productivity

Achievement

Role conflict

Burnout

SAMEVATTING

Werkbevrediging is inderdaad 'n vae begrip met veelvuldige fasette. Die word egter beskou as 'n belangrike en die mees populêre studieveld in organisatoriese gedragliteratuur. Hierdie studie ondersoek die vlak van werkbevrediging by stedelike skoolhoofde in die Vrystaat. In navolging van die bereiking van die studie se doel, is ondersoek ingestel na die ooreenkomste tussen skoolhoofde se waardes en behoeftes en die faktore wat die werkomgewing aanvul. Twee komplimenterende metodes van ondersoek, naamlik die kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe metodes, is ingespan om data te versamel. Verder is 'n literatuuroorsig oor werkbevreding en wat die werkbevrediging van skoolhoofde behels, gedoen. Die literatuuroorsig het die verwantskap tussen werknemermotivering en werkbevrediging blootgelê. Dit het ook aangedui hoe motiveringteorieë ingespan kan word om werknemers se werkbevrediging te verbeter. Verdere ondersoek na die literatuur oor werkbevrediging het aangedui dat daar 'n verhouding tussen werkbevrediging en die volgende organisatoriese gedragspatrone bestaan: organisatoriese burgerlike gedrag, onttrekking van werk, afwesigheid, omset, vakbondbedrywighede, teenproduktiewe gedrag, fisiese en psigologiese gesondheid, uitbranding, produktiwiteit, werksvlak, lewensvreugde en sukses. Die literatuurstudie het duidelik bewys dat 'n toename in die werkbevrediging van skoolhoofde tot 'n toename of afname in sommige van die voorgenoemde gedragpatrone sal lei.

Die resultate van beide die kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe data het aangedui dat geen ooreenkoms tussen die behoeftes van skoolhoofde en die faktore wat die werkomgewing beïnvloed, bestaan nie. Die resultate het ook aangedui dat die werkomgewing weinig geleenthede bied, of ontoereikend is om in die belangrike behoeftes van skoolhoofde te voorsien. Dan het die resultate ook aangedui dat die volgende behoeftes of werkomstandighede van skoolhoofde dringend aandag moet geniet: vergoeding, erkenning, bevordering, werksekerheid, werkomstandighede, departementele beleidsrigtings en -toepassings en verhoudings met ander rolspelers.

'n Aantal van die volgende aanbevelings vloei voort uit die literatuuroorsig en empiriese data: skoolhoofde moet besef dat hul werkbevrediging betekenisvol kan verbeter indien hulle eers sorg dat hulle hul ondergeskiktes effektief motiveer en ook hul vlak van werbevrediging verhoog; hulle moet hulself ook bemagtig deur deeglike kennis van en korrekte implementering van die Departement van Basiese Onderwys se beleidsrigtings. Dit word ook aanbeveel dat die Departement van Basiese Onderwys sommige beleidsrigtings wat skoolhoofde frustreer en 'n negatiewe impak het op hulle werkverrigting by skole, hersien.

Hieronder ressorteer die beleid oor leerlingswangerskap, die beleid oor die toekenning van fondse aan Artikel 21-skole, asook die Posvoorsieningsmodel wat gebruik word vir die werwing en herallokering van opvoeders. Melding word ook gemaak van die beperkings van hierdie studie en voorstelle vir verdere navorsing.

Sleutelterme:

Werkbevrediging

Onbevredigende werk

Motivering

Moraal

Werkwaardes/behoeftes

Werkomgewing faktore

Produktiwiteit

Prestasie

Rolkonflik

Uitbranding