THE INFLUENCE OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP ON THE JOB SATISFACTION OF EDUCATORS IN FREE STATE SCHOOLS

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted by me for the Philosophiae Doctor degree at the University of the Free State is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another university/ faculty. I furthermore cede copyright of the thesis in favour of the University of the Free State.

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SUMMARY

Since the publication of Goleman's book '*Emotional Intelligence'* in 1995, the interest and research into EI has experienced a phenomenal growth, particularly in the commercial sector. Research by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee, Bar-On, Cooper and Sawaf, as well as many other researchers, indicates that EI is fundamental to successful leadership as it enhances intra- and interpersonal competencies that influence job satisfaction. This implies that EI may play a major role in retaining educators since research by the HSRC found a high level of dissatisfaction and an intention to leave the profession amongst educators in South Africa.

The EI domain of self-awareness allows leaders to accept themselves, thereby affording them the self-confidence to accept others for who they are. Self-awareness enables leaders to create a realistic and inspiring vision by enlisting the cooperation of others through the assertive and convincing communication of a positive vision when they believe in themselves and without being egotistic. EI furthermore allows leaders to become aware of the emotions and needs of others, which is very important to job satisfaction as positive attitudes are created through the fulfilment of these needs. This EI domain of social awareness is thus crucial to becoming considerate of others' preferences, their needs of affiliation, their achievement and recognition and their abilities and expectations. These may then be utilised in successful shared decision making and delegation so as to allow personal and professional growth, which may enhance the self-actualisation of educators.

EI additionally affords leaders the ability to understand emotions, as well as to manage their own and others' emotions. These EI domains allow leaders to create and sustain positive attitudes, motivate, encourage, empathetically support and trust educators to act autonomously and responsibly to achieve the success and growth required to enhance their self-esteem. Furthermore, EI assists leaders to accept diversity, be flexible and adaptable, to involve and consult educators in participative leadership and empower educators through delegation that inspires them to actualise their full potential by experiencing achievement, comfort, safety, autonomy and status. Moreover, it enables leaders to handle conflict, frustration and stress in ways that allow them to stand out as models to emulate.

The complexity of leadership, particularly in education where the vested authority is at odds with education leaders, who should be educator-centred, and the Department of

Education as a bureaucratic managerialistic system, complicates the study and the achievement of job satisfaction in the South African educational milieu.

The quantitative and qualitative data analysis revealed that although education leaders exhibit deficiencies, the majority of leaders are proficient in EI and leadership practices that allow educators to experience job satisfaction. The largest sources of dissatisfaction were identified to be a lack of educator compensation in relation to work done; little chance for advancement; being responsible for too many extra-curricula activities; and an overload of bureaucratic red-tape caused by departmental policies and practices mainly stemming from the Department of Education. Other sources of dissatisfaction which are the responsibility of education leaders were identified. These included ability utilisation and recognition which affected, in particular, the older, more experienced and better qualified educators.

Recommendations regarding areas that should be addressed were made. These recommendations include the scientific evaluation of education leaders to determine their EI and leadership abilities so as to appoint the most suitable leaders to enhance effective education and educator job satisfaction. Existing leaders should also be evaluated to address specific incapacitating deficiencies as EI may be learned through selective training, which includes active learning and the application of newly learned competencies.

Emotionally intelligent education leaders seem to possess the leadership qualities that enable them to enhance the lives of educators through their caring servant leadership, making possible personal growth towards an improvement in job satisfaction. This satisfaction is fundamental to successful education since only contented and passionate educators will produce positive results and achieve excellence in their respective schools.

SAMEVATTING

Sedert die verskyning van Goleman se boek *Emotional Intelligence* in 1995, het die belangstelling en navorsing in EI fenomenale groei beleef, veral in die handelswêreld. Navorsing deur Goleman, Boyatzis en McKee, Bar-on, Cooper en Sawaf, asook verskeie ander navorsers, het aangedui dat EI grondliggend is aan suksesvolle leierskap, omdat dit intra- en interpersoonlike vaardighede verhoog, wat werksbevrediging beïnvloed. Dit impliseer dat EI 'n belangrike rol in die behoud van opvoeders kan vertolk, aangesien navorsing deur die RGN bevind het dat daar hoë vlakke van ontevredenheid, asook die voorneme om die professie te verlaat, by opvoeders in Suid-Afrika is.

Die EI-domein van selfbewussyn stel leiers in staat om hulself te aanvaar, waardeur hulle die selfvertroue verkry om ander te aanvaar soos hulle is. Leiers het selfvertroue, soos deur laasgenoemde gevestig, nodig. Selfbewussyn stel leiers in staat om 'n realistiese en inspirerende visie te skep deur die samewerking van ander te verkry. Hulle kommunikeer met selfversekerdheid en oortuiging 'n positiewe visie, sonder om egoïsties te wees. Daarby stel EI leiers in staat om bewus te wees van die emosies en behoeftes van ander. Dit is baie belangrik vir werksbevrediging, aangesien positiewe houdings geskep word deur die vervulling van daardie behoeftes. Hierdie EI-domein van sosiale bewussyn is dus noodsaaklik vir bedagsaamheid teenoor ander se voorkeure, behoeftes aan affiliasie, prestasie en erkenning, vermoëns en verwagtinge. Laasgenoemde kan dan aangewend word in suksesvolle gesamentlike besluitneming en delegering, wat persoonlike en professionele groei meebring en die selfverwesenliking van opvoeders verhoog.

Daarby gee EI leiers die vermoë om emosies te verstaan en te gebruik, asook om hul eie en ander se emosies te bestuur. Hierdie EI-domeine stel leiers in staat om positiewe houdings te skep en onderhou, opvoeders te motiveer, aan te moedig, empaties te ondersteun en te vertrou om outonoom en verantwoordelik op te tree, sodat hulle sukses en groei kan behaal wat hul gevoel van eiewaarde sal verhoog. Boonop stel dit leiers in staat om verskeidenheid te aanvaar, buigsaam en aanpasbaar genoeg te wees om opvoeders te betrek en te raadpleeg in deelnemende bestuur. Delegering bemagtig opvoeders en inspireer hulle om hul volle potensiaal te verwesenlik deur prestasie, gemak, veiligheid, outonomie en status te beleef. Verder is dit vir leiers moontlik om konflik, frustrasie en spanning te hanteer op so 'n wyse dat dit hulle laat uitstaan as voorbeelde om na te volg.

Die kompleksiteit van leierskap, veral in onderwys waar die gesag berus by die onderwysleiers, wat opvoeder-gesentreerd behoort te wees, en die Departement van Onderwys as die burokratiese bestuurstelsel, bemoeilik die studie en verkryging van werksbevrediging in die Suid-Afrikaanse onderwysmilieu.

Die kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe ontleding van data het aan die lig gebring dat, alhoewel onderwysleiers tekortkominge vertoon, die meeste leiers bedrewe is ten opsigte van EI, asook leierskapuitvoering wat opvoeders in staat stel om werksbevrediging te beleef. Vergoeding vir opvoeders in verhouding tot die werk wat gedoen word, die uiters skraal kans vir bevordering en 'n werksoorlading, veroorsaak deur departementele beleid en –praktyke en dus die Departement van Onderwys se verantwoordelikheid, is geïdentifiseer as die belangrikste bronne van ontevredenheid. Ander bronne van ontevredenheid, wat meer die verantwoordelikheid van onderwysleiers is, is ook geïdentifiseer. Dit het aanwending van kundigheid asook erkenning ingesluit. Dit het veral ouer, meer ervare en beter gekwalifiseerde opvoeders geraak.

Aanbevelings is gemaak rakende areas wat behoort aangespreek te word. Hierdie aanbevelings sluit die wetenskaplike evaluering van onderwysleiers, om hulle EI en leierskapvermoëns vas te stel, in. Dit sal meebring dat die mees geskikte leiers, wat effektiewe onderwys en werksbevrediging vir onderwysers sal bevorder, aangestel kan word. Bestaande leiers behoort ook geëvalueer te word om spesifieke remmende tekortkominge aan te spreek, aangesien EI aangeleer kan word deur selektiewe opleiding, wat aktiewe leer en die aanwending van nuut aangeleerde vaardighede insluit.

Emosioneel-intelligente onderwysleiers skyn die leierseienskappe te besit wat hulle in staat stel om die lewens van opvoeders te verbeter deurdat hulle simpatieke dienskneg-leierskap persoonlike groei toelaat, wat op sy beurt verbeterde werksbevrediging meebring. Hierdie bevrediging is grondliggend aan suksesvolle onderwys, aangesien slegs gelukkige, geesdriftige opvoeders positiewe uitslae en uitnemendheid behaal.

Title: **The influence of the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and leadership on the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools**

According to a survey by the HSRC (2005) a high level of dissatisfaction exists among educators, resulting in large numbers of educators leaving the profession. Research by emotional intelligence (EI) experts, for instance Bar-On (2005) and Goleman (1995, 1998, 2002), indicated that in corporate settings, EI has a more significant influence on successful leadership than IQ or technical competencies. A study by Oosthuyse (2006) found that positive relationships exist between EI and the leadership practices of school principals. The latter implies that education leaders have to apply their EI competencies to their leadership approach in order to enhance the job satisfaction of their staff members. This paper will ultimately focus on the relationship between EI and the leadership practices of principals and the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools.

In addressing the above problem, this paper will briefly provide a grounding perspective on EI, leadership and job satisfaction as necessities for effective schools. The positivistic numerical outcomes, emerging from the EQ-Map, Leadership Practices Inventory and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, in a quantitative investigation of the EI-leadership-job satisfaction relationship, will be provided and discussed. Guidelines for enhancing the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools will also be provided.

The interrelatedness of the various dimensions was determined by means of correlational analyses and an analysis of variances (ANOVA).

This investigation found positive relationships to exist between dimensions of EI and leadership practices as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction which suggest that certain emotional and leadership competencies are crucial for enhancing job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1   BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

A media statement issued by the South African Teachers' Union (SATU, 2007: 2), highlighted the serious dissatisfaction among educators in public schools regarding the quality of their work life. This dissatisfaction and frustration regarding working conditions, workload and renumeration escalated into debilitating strikes by educators and other public sector employees during the first half of June 2007. Earlier research by the HSRC (2005: 1 – 3) additionally found that 55% of educators wanted to leave the teaching profession, resulting in a looming educator shortage (de Villiers, 2007: 3; Isaacs, 2005: 1, 3). In terms of job satisfaction, research by Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 292) contributed to the search for explanations for job satisfaction by revealing that up to 85% of leaders' success depends on their Emotional Intelligence (EI). The latter findings were clear indications that there seemed to be interrelatedness between the leadership of education leaders that reflects their EI, and the job satisfaction of their staff, implying a need for investigation.

EI was defined by Goleman (1998: 7) as self- and social awareness, understanding and the use of emotions in motivation. Mayer and Salovey (Hein, 2005: 7; Stone, Parker & Wood, 2005: 3, 9, 10) include emotional control in the definition of EI, while Bar-On emphasises intra- and interpersonal competencies, empathy, adaptability and coping with stress (Stone, Parker & Wood, 2005: 3, 9 – 11, 20 – 29; Bar-on 2005: 2, 3). Although school principals, as education leaders, may not do much about some aspects, for instance salary scales, they may curb dissatisfaction by creating an emotional environment that motivates staff which may again enhance job satisfaction and performance (Alexander, 2006: 198; Pii, 2003: 1, 3; Rantekoa, 2004: 6 – 11).

Notable problems also existed regarding a scientific base for the selection and appointment of education leaders who could exert a positive influence on the job

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satisfaction of their staff (Niemann & Kotze, 2006: 612; Fernández-Aráos, 2001: 187; McDowelle & Bell, 1997: 9).

According to Bar-on (2005: 7 – 17), Sterret (2000: 105) and Sosik and Megerian (1999: 368) relevant training may result in dramatic EI improvement, especially in people with a low EI and consequently improve social abilities; for instance relationships and leadership, which could in turn, improve employees' job satisfaction (Stone, Parker & Wood, 2005: 4; Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 184 – 191; Covey, 2004: 161 – 171, 241; Elias, Arnold & Hussey, 2003: 1; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 292; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001: 182 – 185).

Against the background of prevailing under-performance in schools and the high number of educators who want to leave the profession (Fourie, 2006a: 1; Isaacs, 2005: 1, 3; HSRC, 2005: 1), the reason could be a reflection of a low level of job satisfaction among South-African educators. Extensive research in business and industrial settings revealed that leaders who exhibited EI leadership behaviours achieved greater employee morale, performance, retention, satisfaction and consequently organisational effectiveness (Serio & Epperly, 2006: 52; Maxwell, 2005: 131; Moshavi, Brown & Dodd, 2003: 4).

From previous research and that of Oosthuyse (2006), a strong positive correlation between EI and leadership practices has been found. It appeared that the EI of leaders and their leadership practices could play an important role in the job satisfaction of educators. The latter indicated the necessity for investigating the relationship between EI leadership and job satisfaction, as it could not only influence educators, but could also have an impact on learners' performance and attitudes.

A preliminary analysis was then conducted among educators to determine their level of job satisfaction before this study could commence. The preliminary study attempted to explore:

- Whether educators experienced a sense of job satisfaction; and
- Whether they considered changing to another job?

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The results obtained showed that 80% of educators experience little to moderate satisfaction and that 65% seriously contemplated taking another job if available (cf. 4.2).

The aforementioned indicated particular problems in terms of leadership towards job satisfaction in South African education, which may cause stress, burnout and high attrition rates as verified in the literature by Evans (1998), Olivier and Venter (2003), Weare (2004) and Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005). In addition to the latter, previous research by Oosthuyse (2006) found a positive relationship between EI and leadership. The problem regarding the effect of leadership on job satisfaction may thus be extended to whether education leaders possess the necessary EI competencies to maintain interpersonal relationships and a culture that may motivate employees, consequently enhancing job satisfaction. In addressing the problem concerning the effect that EI and related leadership practices may have on the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools, the following problem questions should be answered:

- What is EI and what is the influence of EI on education leadership?
- What are the major determinants of educator job satisfaction in Free State schools?
- How is the EI level and leadership practices of Free State education leaders related to the job satisfaction of their staff?
- How can the job satisfaction of educators in the Free State be improved by developing the EI and leadership of education leaders?

1.2   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

With the relatively few studies regarding the relationship between EI and leadership in education, the general purpose of this study was to investigate and contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between EI and leadership and the job satisfaction of educators, with a view to establish a more satisfied workers' corps through a supportive and empowering environment in schools. Achieving the purpose of this study may enable the researcher to identify specific EI abilities and leadership practices that are necessary for the improvement of job satisfaction. Furthermore,

this study also aims to determine whether EI may be used as a predictor of job satisfaction. To realise the purpose of this study, the following specific objectives were set:

- To provide a grounding perspective on EI, leadership and job satisfaction as necessities towards effective schools;
- To review the major determinants that influence the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools;
- To empirically investigate the EI and related leadership practices of Free State education leaders with regard to the determinants that mediate job satisfaction in their schools;
- To make recommendation in view of enhancing the job satisfaction of educators.

1.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to achieve the stated objectives of this study, the research was conducted by means of a complementary mixed-method research approach, as stated by Thomas (2003: 6, 7) and Neuman (2000: 17). The researcher therefore made use of the following methods of investigation:

1.3.1   Literature study

A literature study of relevant primary and secondary sources was carried out to determine the scope of EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction. This included a study of national and international virtual and traditional literature sources relevant to the problem questions.

1.3.2   Empirical investigation

An empirical investigation was conducted, through purposive convenient sampling in 34 well-functioning primary and secondary schools in the Free State Province. The functionality of secondary schools was determined by their matric pass rate and for the primary schools, by their ranking on the list of best performing schools by the Free State Department of Education. The investigation included both quantitative and

qualitative data collection as method triangulation could probably lead to a deeper understanding of the issues at stake.

1.3.2.1   Quantitative investigation

To determine the relationship between the EI-related leadership of education leaders (principals and deputy principals) and the job satisfaction of their staff members, an exploratory quantitative study was conducted using the following questionnaires:

- The standardised self-report Cooper and Sawaf EQ-Map (1997) was used to measure the EI of the 34 participating Free State education leaders as sampled.

- The standardised Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was used to evaluate the leadership practices of education leaders as a self-report to rate themselves and to be rated by the sampled educators.

- The standardised Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to determine the level of job satisfaction of the educators in the sampled schools.

- A biographical questionnaire that was included to obtain information on the gender, age, years of experience in education, qualifications and the post level of the respondents.

The typical positivistic numerical outcomes of the above instruments were necessary to provide a base line for the further qualitative investigation.

1.3.2.2   Qualitative investigation

The aim of this interpretative, constructivist investigation, which may contribute in the development of new theory, was to investigate, describe and conceptualise educators' personal, lived experiences and perceptions regarding job satisfaction and the role education leaders played in fulfilling educators' psychological and emotional needs. To achieve the latter, qualitative data were gathered through semi-structured interviews and e-mailed texts as data collection techniques. A process of voluntary

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contribution and availability, using the snowball approach, was followed to clarify specific questions raised by the results of the quantitative investigation regarding job satisfaction and the dimensions that played a dominant role in securing the staff's job satisfaction.

The e-mailed texts entailed carefully developed open-ended questions, which emanated as sources of dissatisfaction from the quantitative investigation, e-mailed to and answered via e-mail by participants whom the researcher was unable to interview personally due to time and economic constraints. The same questions were e-mailed to the participants as used in the semi-structured interviews to prepare them for the interviews. Prior to the interviews, permission was asked from these participants to tape-record their responses for transcription and coding. Notes were also taken during the interviews. Uncertainties were, in both cases, investigated and cleared up by telephone calls and/or e-mails.

1.3.3   Population and sampling

A relatively homogenous group of functional schools, identified by the Free State Department of Education, was selected as a sample to limit factors that could influence the research. There are different views regarding the role of culture and ethnicity in EI and leadership practices (Goleman, 1998: 353). This study followed the findings of Craig and Hannum (2006: 1), as well as Wa Kivulu (2003: 251) who indicated that differences between cultures and language, the Simpson's paradox, could lead to the incorrect interpretation of data when data of heterogeneous cultural and language groups were combined.

For the purpose of this exploratory study, the education leaders were contacted personally or telephonically to obtain their informed consent before the distribution of the questionnaires. This procedure was followed to ensure that the collection of data would be ethical regarding informed consent, privacy and confidentiality, as well as avoiding any non-cooperation or feelings of exploitation. Non-cooperation could occur because of the possible sensitivity of education leaders to expose themselves regarding their EI, leadership practices and consequent ability to create an

environment that could enhance job satisfaction.

Six randomly selected educators per education leader (principals and deputy principals) of both genders, with three or more years of relevant experience, were asked to complete the LPI, MSQ and the bio- and demographical questionnaire to obtain the required data.

For the purpose of the qualitative semi-structured interviews which extended from the findings of the quantitative investigations, it was not possible to pre-determine the number of participants because the investigation employed a snowball approach which would continue until theoretical saturation was reached.

1.3.4   Analysis of data

The quantitative responses from each of the schools were kept together and analysed separately to determine the correlation between the EI domains and leadership practices of the education leaders. The total results of the sample were then used to compute the correlations, ANOVAs and t-tests of significance between sub-groups, for each of the EI domains, leadership practices and the clustered determinants of educator job satisfaction.

To compute the correlations in this exploratory study, the SPSS (version 16) program was used. Scatter plots, regression lines and inferential statistical interpretations were furthermore used to portray the inferences.

The qualitative data analysis comprised the transcribing and coding of the actual words of the participants and the text analysis of the e-mails, to reveal data that could be used to construct new theory that may contribute to the emerging theory and body of knowledge in education management and leadership.

1.4   FIELD OF STUDY

This is a study mainly in the sub-discipline of Education Management and Leadership, as the primary objective of the study was to enhance leadership practices that may improve job satisfaction among educators in Free State schools. Since people form the core of the organisation, the field of management and leadership is also influenced by Psychology as a science, particularly Industrial and Organisational Psychology (Prins, 2006). This implies that the study of EI may make a valuable contribution to the field of organisational management and leadership.

1.5   VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

As job satisfaction was (and still is) a critical problem in South African schools, this study may contribute to the enhancement of greater employee morale, performance, retention, satisfaction and, consequently, organisational effectiveness. If the EI competencies of the education leaders are developed, their management performance may be optimised and as such, make a valuable contribution to the improvement of leadership in schools.

1.6   OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

To reach the stated objectives, the research was reported in six chapters:

Chapter 1 gives a general orientation and overview of the relevant literature that underpinned this investigation. The problem statement, purpose and research design of the investigation is also included in this chapter.

In **Chapter 2** a grounding perspective of the emerging role of EI, its associated competencies, and the influence thereof on leadership are given. A short review of the influence of emotions on the brain functions, based on neurological research, that

explains education leader-educator behaviour, is also given.

Chapter 3 firstly deals with a grounding perspective regarding the nature and scope of job satisfaction from the current literature. Critical reflections on the plausibility of the different motivational theories regarding contemporary circumstances are given. The second part of the chapter address the level of job satisfaction in Free State schools and reveal areas in which problems are encountered as indicated by the results from the MSQ.

Chapter 4 comprises a quantitative empirical investigation on the influence of the relationship between EI and the related leadership practices on the major determinants of job satisfaction.

Chapter 5 focuses on the qualitative investigation in the form of semi-structured interviews and e-mailed texts regarding job satisfaction to elucidate tendencies revealed by the MSQ, so as to contribute to the emerging theory and the body of knowledge regarding leadership towards job satisfaction in education.

Chapter 6 contains a summary of the findings, conclusions and possible recommendations to provide a leadership framework that could enhance job satisfaction in Free State schools with the aim of improving education as a whole. Further research possibilities are also indicated.

1.7   CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to give a general orientation to what the study entailed, while providing enough evidence for the need for research regarding this topic as forwarded in the problem statement. The purpose, specific aims and the value of the study were also discussed. The research methods that were used to investigate the phenomena, the population and sampling, as well as the field of this

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study were also described. The outline of the study is presented by the overview of the chapters. The next chapter will focus on EI and the implications of EI on leadership.

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CHAPTER 2

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:
A GROUNDING PERSPECTIVE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets out a grounding perspective of the emerging role of EI regarding leadership and job satisfaction. A short review of neurological research that indicates the relationship between emotions, emotional contagion and behaviour will be addressed. The EI domains, its associated competencies and the influence thereof on leadership and job satisfaction will follow. A brief review on how EI may be learned and a conclusion concludes this chapter.

Leaders and managers have seen emotions at work as unprofessional and standing in the way of the rational operation of organisations (Prins, 2006: 46). Such an impersonal, functional focus fails today as Theodore Roosevelt, quoted by Maxwell (2005: 181), said: "The most important part of the formula for success is to know how to get along with people". Goleman (2006: 83) in addition, quotes the observation of Davidson, the director of the Laboratory for Affective Neuroscience at the University of Wisconsin: "You cannot separate the cause of an emotion from the world of relationships – our social interactions are what drive our emotions".

EI, as an emerging concept in educational management, has received more attention recently as researchers have realised that the emotional task of the education leader in managing relationships, in addition to cognitive abilities, is the most important act of leadership in improving effectiveness. Leaders' success currently depends on how they do it through driving emotions in the right direction by creating a caring, encouraging, positive, enthusiastic and compelling vision that is motivating and in so doing, releasing the full potential and best in people (Kuter, 2004: 20, Weare, 2004: 11, 40; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 3, 5, 6, 10, 225, 321).

The emotional obligation of the educational leader is of the utmost importance as the emotions, attitudes, commitment, motivation and well-being of educators are greatly influenced by those of the leader and the manner in which options are presented (Bailey, 2007: 2; Wong, Foo, Wang & Wong, 2007: 1; Stone, Parker & Wood, 2005: 3, 9, 11; Maxwell, 2003: 103, 200; Carmeli, 2003: 792; Goleman, 1998: 166). The latter could exert an immense influence on motivation and job satisfaction as emotional responses to job situations (Carmeli, 2003: 792) that will be discussed in chapter 3.

This influence of the principal's emotions on the performance and job satisfaction of educators is very effectively illustrated by the following figure.
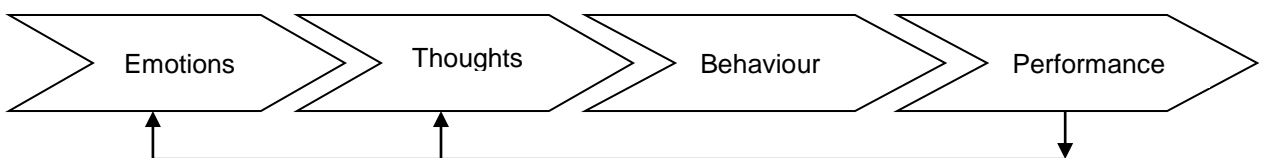
Figure 2.1: How EI may result in higher performance (Bipath, 2008: 59, 76, adapted from Hay group 2004)

Austin, Farrelly, Black and Moore (2007: 2), Prins (2006: 5), as well as Compton (2005: 3, 4) affirm that EI, as a separate construct of the multiple intelligences as proposed by Gardner in 1983, is part of a paradigm shift to a more positive psychology, particularly industrial and organisational psychology. This more positive approach accentuates life-enhancing competencies, strengths and their development in efficient and optimal functioning human beings, instead of deficiencies and mal-adaptations. The focus is therefore on positive emotions, positive behaviours and positive institutions. EI thus reveals a more summative approach to leadership and management (Maulding, 2002: 4; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000: 97), that is more "people-focussed" (Sterrett, 2000: 5). Heystek (2008: 5) suggested that the emphasis on EI could be a reaction to the dehumanisation of employees, in service to the organisation, to resources and therefore prefer the term "People leadership" in schools.

Moreover, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002: 307, 316) concluded that organisational behaviour in the 21st century is evolving to "embrace a more eclectic and holistic view

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of humans at work" and not only to the rational-cognitive, but as having lives and emotions. The latter is fundamental to achieving greatness by living a more satisfying, fulfilling and productive life (Bipath, 2008: 59; Compton, 2005: 6).

In addition to the above, Goleman (2006: 5) claims that EI "enlarges the picture beyond a one-person psychology," including multi-person interaction as found for instance in organisations. This implies that EI could be a critical factor regarding a more positive view towards educational leadership and management that focuses on personal and interpersonal needs, strengths and competencies. This approach could improve educational leadership in view of the fact that leaders are confronted by irrevocable, ever-accelerating changes in politics, social, economic and technological reform. This ongoing transformation calls for new leadership that can manage their and others' emotions (Chrusciel, 2006: 644, 645; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 319, 320). The latter could well result in positive outcomes by being more people-orientated and improve coping with diverse socio-emotional issues, particularly motivation and job satisfaction, in which EI leadership practices play an important part.

Research in education however, indicated that the abovementioned apparently has not been prevalent in South-African schools. As mentioned earlier the HSRC (2005: 1) reported that 55% of educators intended to leave the educational sector as soon as they could find another job. To exacerbate the latter, an educator shortage is imminent because of the negative image of education as a profession and the perception that South-African education is in crisis (SATU, 2009: 1). The former is an indication of resistance or withdrawal symptoms amongst educators because of working conditions, salaries and/or leadership problems – people after all, leave people not organisations. The aforesaid could be considerably lessened by EI since Carmeli (2003: 794) suggested that high EI individuals see themselves as part of solutions to problems in positive adaptive ways and without becoming pessimistic.

Before EI, its competencies and attributes, as well as critique against EI can be discussed, the concepts of emotions and EI should first be defined in order to see what it specifically entails.

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2.2   DEFINING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer, one of the pioneers of EI, defined EI in 1990 as consisting of five domains namely: knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognising emotions in others and handling relationships (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 34). The most uncomplicated definition of EI is however, given by Weisinger (1998: xvi): "EI is the intelligent use of emotions: You intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your ability to satisfy your basic needs and to obtain results".

Goleman (1998: 7) defined EI as the ability to be self-aware of intra-personal feelings and to cope with social relationships through social awareness as interpersonal feelings, information and perceptions of people and/or situations that may influence interpersonal actions to an individual's or groups' benefit. Hein (2005: 3, 4) again prefers to see EI as the inherent potential to feel, recognise, remember, communicate, effectively manage, understand, use and learn from emotions that should be developed into authentic emotional skills in order to influence interpersonal relationships positively. Furthermore, Mayer and Salovey's 1997 definition, according to Hein (2005: 7), as well as Stone, Parker and Wood (2005: 3, 9, 10) emphasised reflective thought as part of regulating emotions that stimulate emotional and intellectual development.

Bar-On (2005: 2, 3) elaborated on the aforementioned by defining of EI as intra- and interpersonal competencies, empathy, adaptability and being able to cope in stressful situations. Salovey, Mayer and Caruso Salovey (2002, in Kernbach & Schutte, 2005: 438), as well as Compton (2005: 28), proposed that EI consisted of the ability to: perceive one's own and others' emotions and to accurately express one's own emotions; facilitate thought and problem solving through the use of emotion; understand the causes of emotion and relationships between emotional experiences; and manage one's own and others' emotions. Wong, Foo, Wang and Wong (2007: 3), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Eisenberg, Cumberland and Spinard (1998: 242, in Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 353 – 355), as well as Higgs and Dulewitz (1999) support the abovementioned identified scope of EI. However, Higgs and Aitken (2003: 815)

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identified only two aspects of EI on which consensus were reached among scientists: self-awareness and emotional management.

For the purpose of this study, EI could thus be defined as:

As awareness and communication of emotions in the self and in others, the understanding and the use of personal and others' emotions to integrate emotions in motivation and problem solving. EI moreover endows humans with the ability to manage emotions to inhibit or modulate experienced and expressed emotion and emotionally derived behaviours to facilitate relationships.

Emotion can therefore not be separated from the other vital activities of life: "Multiple intelligences are socially based and interrelated" (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 2). Emotions determine how we perform in life and determine the limits of our potential to use our inherent abilities. Perception, emotion and communication are the competencies that form the crux of EI. Creative and critical thinking also play a crucial role in EI when employed in interpersonal interactions (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 3, 40, 49). Since the word "emotions" is part of the different definitions of EI, it should also be defined.

Regarding emotions, Ashforth and Saks (2002: 344), Macdermid, Seery and Weis (2002: 407), as well as Bodine and Crawford (1999: 85), concluded that an emotion is a spontaneous response or affective state to the interpretation of an event that may convey important information about why we do what we do. Emotions therefore arise from cognitive processes, physiological arousal and behavioural predispositions (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 269) that are influenced by experience, expression, behaviour, cognition and physiological changes (Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002: 5). Emotions serve, according to Weis (2002: 23), to improve the individual's adaptation to situations and problems.

However, moods and emotions should be differentiated: moods are feelings that last a long time, can occur for no apparent reason and may also be part of one's body chemistry. Emotions, conversely, have a definite cause, help one to survive and maintain bonds, but irrelevant emotions could cause stress and fear of events. Fear,

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for example of rejection or failure, can prevent one from reaching one's goals. (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 11 – 13; Weis, 2002: 24).

From the previous discussion it seems that a clear-cut case could be made for EI as a separate identifiable construct. The critique against EI as a construct should thus be reviewed prior to the discussion of the neurological basis for EI and the EI domains, in order to grasp the full extent of the construct.

2.3   CRITIQUE ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Gannon and Ranzijn (2004: 1), as well as Bar-On and McRae (2000: xiv, 363), saw some of the EI competencies overlapping with social intelligence and personality traits, rather than as a separate construct. A construct is, according to Cooper and Schindler (2006: 37), an abstract idea invented for a given research and/or theory-building purpose and is built by combining concepts, particularly when the subject is not directly observable; for instance EI and job satisfaction. Bar-On prefers the term *emotional and social intelligence.* Although Gannon and Ranzijn (2004: 1) found a substantial conceptual overlap between personality and EI they suggested that EI offers important insights into personality. Schutte, Malouf, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim (1998: 168) are more accommodating in seeing these different views not as conflicting models, but as different perspectives of emotional intelligence that take diverse human intelligences into account and not only the cognitive dimension (IQ), as Piaget did. Taking the above said views into account, the scientific validity of EI as a separate construct could conversely be damaged by the inclusion of non-ability competencies, dispositions and traits (Wong, Foo, Wang & Wong, 2007: 3).

Regarding Bar-On's criticism, Goleman (2006: 43) regarded social intelligence as included in EI as social awareness that emphasises the awareness of others' emotions. Goleman (2006: 43, 100) moreover, perceived the "social cognition" school of Bar-On, Mayer and Salovey, as focused on impersonal cognitive abilities such as social knowledge, rules and norms in isolation, consequently reduces interpersonal talent to general intellect applied in a social setting. Furthermore, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005: 395) found significant correlations between EI and cognitive intelligence which refute Goleman's criticism of Bar-On. The latter is an indication that

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EI constitutes a cognitive ability that is seen in the potential to learn or improve EI abilities, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

According to Goleman (2006: 83, 101), the former criticism of Bar-On additionally, did not take evidence from neuroscience regarding spindle cells, mirror cells, synchronised behaviour, attuned listening and empathy at the non-cognitive and unconscious level into account. The latter interpersonal abilities are of particular value in forming and maintaining relationships in this anonymous and lonely technological and virtual era. Goleman furthermore maintained that it was problematic to determine which abilities were social and which were emotional as research confirmed that the domains and brain centres intermingle and overlap.

The critique raised by Hein (2005: 8) against the definitions of Goleman, Mayer and Salovey, as well as Elias and others, is that it emphasised and measured EI abilities as potential and not as actualised competencies. He additionally saw self-report pen and paper tests as not very reliable instruments, rightfully maintaining that people are born with inherited potential to act emotionally intelligently, but it could only be of practical value if it is actualised through experience, growth and development in real-life situations and when under stress. However, the problem with the latter is that it is not that easy to recreate the exact situation twice for practical evaluation.

This critique by Hein is partially confirmed by Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004: 1 – 3) who found that particularly the MSCEIT, as a knowledge-based scale, reveals two distinct types of EI namely: firstly, trait or performance EI as inherent ability, that is best measured by self-report instruments and secondly, ability EI as actualised maximised emotional ability measured by real performance methods. Gannon and Ranzijn (2004: 2, 3) and other researchers, for example Wong, Foo, Wang and Wong (2007: 7, 10), additionally found strong correlations between EI based on the ability model and the Big Five personality dimensions of Contentiousness, Agreeableness, Extraversion, Openness and Neuroticism. This overlapping of EI with personality traits could be seen as a confirmation that EI is not a separate construct of intelligence, but alternatively, could also be interpreted as a predictor of behaviour that manifests as certain personality traits. Gannon and Ranzijn (2004: 11), Lyons and Schneider (2005: 695), as well as Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004: 88) furthermore found EI to be

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a better predictor of academic, management, teamwork, social success and performance than IQ or personality. Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal (2005: 945) also found EI to predict life satisfaction better than could be attributed to personality traits. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005: 388) opined that a higher EI was associated with higher leadership effectiveness and that EI explained variance in leadership that could not be explained by personality or IQ.

Contrary to Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004), research by Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005: 394) again found no significant correlations between the total EI score of the MSCEIT and the 16 personality factors. Only vigilance correlated significantly with emotional perception when separate domains were compared to individual personality factors. Further support for EI as a separate construct was found in the fact that Alexithemia, an inability to evaluate and verbally express emotions, was, as expected, significantly negatively correlated with EI after consideration of IQ and personality variables. The latter may be seen as further validation of EI as a separate construct of psychology and the different intelligences (Wong, Foo, Wang and Wong, 2007: 10). The latter and previously mentioned research thus confirms the validity of EI as a separate construct that is distinguishable from personality and IQ; nevertheless, the debate still continues.

Although there are differences, researchers can confirm the validity of EI as a separate construct. Further support for the latter that also served as a clarification for emotions and EI can be found in the neurological basis for EI, but in terms of the above criticism, it is however, necessary to account for certain concerns such as:

- The overlapping between EI, social intelligence and personality traits.
- The inclusion of non-ability competencies in instruments.
- Self-report instruments that may determine potential EI and not actualised EI competencies.

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2.4 NEUROLOGICAL BASIS OF EI

Notwithstanding our human evolutionary and social development, human brains are still wired for emotion. Emotions are essential as they have vital, healthy biological and psychological functions and whether we want them to or not, our primitive emotions and basic needs still play an integral part in our information processing activities and biology, due to emotion-related neuro-chemical changes (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: ix, 16; Critchley, 2004: 1; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 35). We should thus engage all parts of the brain for rational thought in order to process emotion. Emotions are absolutely necessary for making decisions, solving problems, and coping with change, so as to be a successful leader. According to neuroscientist Damatio, rational thinking (cognitive processes) could not occur without emotion as sometimes advocated by Western cultures. Behaviour, emotion and belief are interrelated and one cannot be changed without looking at the others. Furthermore, Damatio accentuates the interdependence of the higher order brain functions and the body's state of arousal as expressed through emotions (Weare, 2004: 31, 67, 68; Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002:1, 3).

In addition to the aforesaid, researchers agreed that the inherited predispositions, interaction and interrelatedness between needs, emotions, the brain and hormones are decisive for EI. There was furthermore, a positive correlation between people's EI and their physical and psychological health and performance at work (Bar-On, 2005: 1 – 12; Maulding, 2002: 7, 8; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997: 88, 229; Goleman, 1995: 208 – 210).

Research by Damatio, LeDoux, MacLean (Goleman, 2006), as well as Lane and McRae (2004: 87 – 122) used neuro-imaging techniques such as positron emission tomography (PET) and Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) which indicated that emotions are regulated by specific areas in the brain. These researchers also found neural pathways with unique characteristics that may cause automatic reflex reactions. The latter usually occur in the case of strong negative emotions where a response originated too quickly for cognitive processing to take place. Their research showed the interdependence between the limbic system, namely the amygdala, prefrontal cortex and emotion as the reason why impulse control forms the basis of

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character and empathy. In view of the latter fact, our brains are adaptable and we are not the victims of our ancestral inherited temperament, implying that behaviour and leadership can be learned. Furthermore, memorised experiences and culture also plays an important role in shaping who we are (Goleman, 1995: xii, xiii, 4, 5, 7, 312; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: ix, 17; Lord & Kanfer, 2002: 10; Weis & Lord, 2002: 50; Harvey, 143; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 35, 36, 111).

Bodine and Crawford (1999: 88, 89), Caruso and Salovey (2004: 10), as well as Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002: 34, 35) explained the above as the first reaction to an event being interpreted and controlled by our primitive emotional brain, the amygdala, which stores previous information and interprets current emotional information much faster than the rational mind. The emotional mind moreover, looks at events in a simplified and associative way from similar previous experiences and produces reactions that involve the whole body. Events are filtered through an appraisal process and their meanings are analysed insofar as they correspond with previously related incidents (Macdermid, Seery & Weis, 2002: 409). The initial reaction of the emotional brain, as well as needs, should thus be managed and balanced by the rational brain to be socially acceptable and appropriate in different situations, enabling individuals to reach their full potential.

Goleman (2006: 9 – 11, 64) pointed out new discoveries by neuroscientists that help to explain the former by shedding more light on the neural dynamics of the brain's facilitation of social behaviour and the influence of social experiences on the brain's biology:

- Spindle cells that guide quick social decisions are more prevalent in the human brain than in any other mammal, including primates. Neuroscientists suspect that these cells are responsible for social intuition when two people may sense intuitively that they like each other. This is why first impressions are so important and even long-lasting.
- Mirror neurons sense the next move of another person, as well as their emotions, and immediately prepare the observer to spontaneously mimic that move and experience the same emotion with them, as in empathy.

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- Repeated social experiences and relationships may reshape the brain's neural circuitry and if this circuitry tends to be negative, it may be repaired at any stage. This will be discussed in the learning of EI competencies.

The function of the brain regarding emotions should be understood as all sensory stimuli; for example facial expression, gesture or words that are perceived must first be interpreted by the brain and this interpretation may evoke emotions. Need fulfilment, such as motivation, determines emotions and emotions again may even influence 'rational' decision-making and self-perception. This implies that emotions and EI play an important role in job satisfaction, which is the purpose of this investigation.

The term 'social' or 'emotional brain' does not refer to a specific brain nodule, but to a set of circuitry that coordinates interpersonal relations and actions. Although different independent areas with different primary tasks may be distinguished in the brain, they cooperate and interact to perform a particular task (Goleman, 2006: 80, 353). This part of the investigation mainly focuses on the emotional and social brain processes that are predominantly involved in EI as manifested in leadership and job satisfaction. The following interconnected brain centres, as the anatomical origin and mediator of emotions and thus EI, as shown in Figure 2.2, play an important role in our emotions and social interactions.
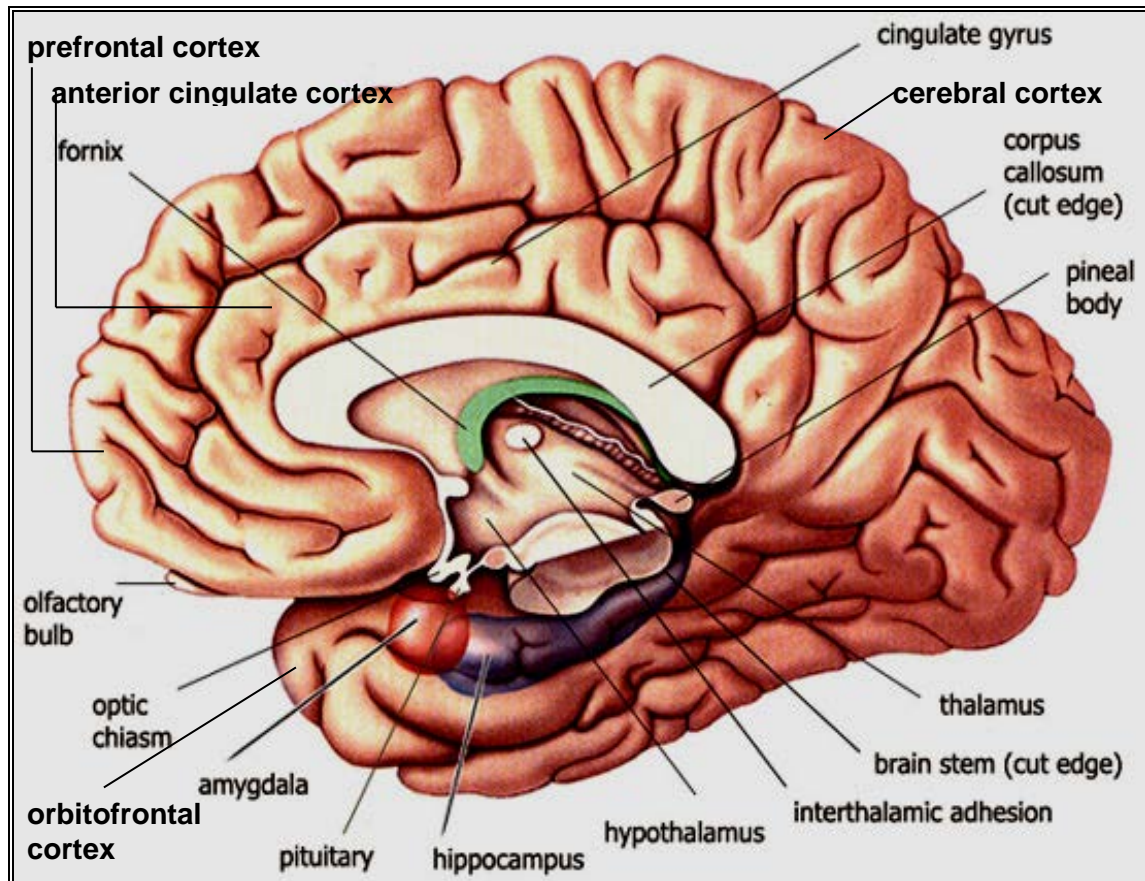
Figure 2. 2: Lateral view of the mid section of the brain (van der Dungen, 2007: 25; Goleman, 2006: 81, adapted)

2.4.1   Brainstem

The brainstem, also called the reptilian or primitive brain, is the oldest, most primal part of the brain where the automatic and semi-automatic responses reside. These responses are particularly the fight or flight responses and group coherence. The brainstem functions on an unconscious level to accommodate survival, basic emotional needs and store old memories. This part of the brain takes over under stress situations, anxiety, fear and raging anger (Weare, 2004: 30, 96; Goleman, 1995: 10).

The mesolimbic dopamine or reward system that plays an important role in motivation and job satisfaction originates in the brainstem and sends projections to the limbic system and to the frontal lobes of the cortex. This system initiates the release of the neurotransmitter dopamine which becomes activated when a person finds something

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pleasing. The brainstem therefore underlies our ability to learn to do things that lead to positive rewards and pleasure (Crichley, 2004: 1, 2; Freudenrich, sa: 1, 2).

2.4.2 Limbic system

The limbic system or middle brain which surrounds the brain stem, found in both humans and mammals, is sometimes also called the 'emotional brain' because it is the main regulator of emotions. Emotional learning takes place in the limbic system and is also the centre for long-term memory, but acts on the unconscious level. The limbic system governs emotional states, behaviour, as well as feelings, impulses and drives, and is therefore the primal motivation centre. The limbic system thus acts as the emotional gatekeeper by using the thalamus and amygdala to sort emotions and distribute them to the rest of the brain, including the neo cortex to be processed, commanding the body and hormonal system to react. For instance, endorphins are secreted when humans experience pleasure. The limbic system is the link between the conscious and subconscious brain since the thinking brain evolved from the limbic brain which still takes commands from the limbic brain when under stress. The latter may have the effect of subconscious feelings unconsciously surfacing as involuntary behaviour (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 34, 130; Weare, 2004: 96; Goleman, 1995: 10).

2.4.3 Thalamus

The thalamus receives all conscious sensory stimuli which stimulate emotions and acts on an unconscious level as a relay centre by routing afferent impulses to their proper destinations in the brain. It also codes the emotional information and sends that information through to the neo cortex for further processing. During events that are perceived as emergencies, it will send the information directly to the amygdala and elicit a fight or flight reaction even before we are consciously aware of it (van der Dungen 2007: 28; Weare, 2004: 96). Goleman (2006: 181) refers to research by Davidson, a neuroscientist, who found that distressing emotions activate mostly the amygdala and right prefrontal cortex, while part of the left prefrontal cortex is generally active during positive and joyful encounters.

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The simplified schematic view of the brain's circuitry (Actual Freedom Trust, sa: 2, 7, adapted), Figure 2.3, illustrates this interaction between the sensory receptors, the thalamus, amygdala and neo-cortex.

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                          ┌──────────────┐
                          │   Sensory    │
                          │    input     │
                          └──────────────┘
                                 ↓↓
                        ╭─────────────────╮
                        │    Thalamus     │
                        │  (Relay centre) │
                        ╰─────────────────╯
         ↙                                          ↘
Quick scan of information (12 milli-        Slower input (24 milliseconds),
seconds), less information                         more information

  ┌───────────────────────┐   Strong link →   ┌───────────────────────┐
  │       Amygdala        │                   │      Neo-cortex       │
  │   (Primitive brain)   │   ← Weak link     │  (Modern human brain) │
  │  Instinctual memory   │                   │   Cognitive awareness │
  │  Instinctive reaction │                   │ Rational decision-making │
  └───────────────────────┘                   └───────────────────────┘
             ↓                                           ↓
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Powerful instantaneous automatic response;   Rationally considered reaction;

Thoughtless instinctual-emotional response;   Thoughtful instinctual-emotional

Primes whole body mentally and physically   response based on morals,

to act.   ethics, values and beliefs to

                                                  control emotional impulses.

Figure 2.3: A simplified schematic view of the brains circuitry

2.4.4 Amygdala

The almond-sized amygdala is the centre of the limbic system with emotions as its single function, particularly if we feel threatened or experience fear and when judging a person as being trustworthy or not. It is the source of disorderly unconscious emotional urges and impulses since its reactions are automatic, instinctive (reflexive) and much faster than the neo cortex. The amygdala registers, extracts emotional meaning from non-verbal messages in microseconds, as seen in Figure 2.3, storing emotional memories and determining the emotional importance of an event. As the

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link from the amygdala to the neo-cortex is a good deal stronger than the other way round, it could take much longer to calm down than to get excited (Goleman, 2006: 9, 15, 22, 340; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 10).

The amygdala is sometimes imprecise as it may over-generalise when these memories are stored or when those memories are recalled and associated with new events. It is also central to fear, insofar that individuals with a damaged amygdala experience and show no emotional response. During anxiety or anger the thalamus gives a signal to the amygdala and directly communicates with the body which secretes corticotrophin releasing the hormone that causes the instinctive flight or fight reaction, as well as other hormones that may be the cause of an emotional hijacking. Norepinephrine, that enhances the sensory organs as well as the brain, is also secreted, which again causes physiological changes such as a higher heart rate, sweating and specific facial expressions. Dopamine, the pleasure-inducing hormone, is also secreted by the amygdala during pleasurable experiences and then creates a feeling of well-being. This secreted dopamine additionally helps to focus attention on the stimulus (Weare, 2004: 96; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 34, 35 Goleman, 1995: 14 – 16, 297 – 299).

2.4.5 Cerebral Cortex

The cortex is the executive centre of the brain (Crichley, 2004: 1, 2) as it is responsible for the conscious cognitive abilities such as intelligence, technical knowledge and expertise. It makes sense of incoming information, relationships, similarities, meaning, problem solving and long-term planning. It also regulates responses and unwanted contagion more logically than the limbic system through the prefrontal cortex that is critical for rational thought (Goleman, 1995: 11, 12, 313). More subtle and complex value- and norm-based responses are generated because of more neural connections with the rest of the brain, resulting in rational decisions based on emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 36; Weare, 2004: 96).

The frontal lobe of the cortex is involved with language abilities and a number of other important functions, for example: short-term memory, planning, reasoning, judgement and decision-making by shifting perspective beyond the present to the future, which

implies self-control and aspects of personality. Damatio and his colleagues, LeDoux, Beer and Lane found that there are two distinct regions involved in planning and decision-making (Goleman, 2006: 63, 68, 70, 171, 349; Crichley, 2004: 1, 2).

The orbitofrontal (OFC) area, anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), somatosensory areas and temporal lobe are connected to the amygdala and regulate a wide range of social behaviours and coordinate smooth social interactions. The OFC area is primarily responsible for the brain's relationship pathways, namely social aesthetics, self-monitoring, resisting impulses through more rational behaviour and an awareness of others' feelings about oneself. The OFC is furthermore responsible for the matching of emotions, as well as for empathy, social-emotional decision-making and for determining priorities. The OFC plays a crucial role in emotional management as it orchestrates the interaction between emotions and interpersonal actions by anticipating the consequences of social decisions by integrating cognitive and emotional inputs (Bailey, 2007: 2, 3; Buckner & Carroll, 2007: 50, 57).

The other regions of the cortex are also involved in emotional management as they facilitate more sensible general decision-making and planning of appropriate socially acceptable reactions. Empathy is, for example, possible when we see someone in need because of direct nerve projections from the eyes to the OFC area of the prefrontal cortex (Bailey, 2007: 3; Buckner & Carroll, 2007: 57).

Goleman (2006: 66, 77, 193, 349) furthermore refers to research by neuroscientists who indicated that the spindle cells found in the cortex are rich in receptors for serotonin, dopamine and vasopressin. These neurotransmitters are responsible for pleasurable feelings and could thus help to explain social intuition and why some people are more people-oriented than others. Spindle cells additionally form particularly thick connections between the OFC and the ACC, from where they extend into the rest of the brain. The ACC directs our attention and coordinates our thoughts, emotions and the body's response to emotions. Scientists hypothesise that the ACC acts as a crossing point between our thoughts and emotions and therefore acts as a 'social guidance system' in social awareness during social interaction and the reappraisal of events.

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The ACC furthermore registers social rejection in the same areas as activated by physical pain and it can therefore generate sensations of physical pain. Oxytocin, that is, an important hormone associated with care-giving and attachment is, as suspected, found more commonly in women's brains than in those of men. Vasopressin, related to oxytocin, is found in the spindle cells and plays a major role in social bonding (Goleman, 2006: 113, 202, 203).

According to Goleman (2006: 67, 68), the aforementioned which emphasises the special brain circuitry for perceiving other people, could also explain why first impressions are so important and may even influence and determine long-term relationships. Social judgements which are very spontaneous are, in many instances, based on the merest of perceptions and are often mulled over when the brain is not busy with an impersonal task.

A positive emotional state consequently increases prefrontal activities; for example creativity, flexible thinking and information processing. The prefrontal lobes furthermore control or veto impulsiveness and anxiety by muting the amygdala. They are additionally prevented from being overwhelmed by empathy through increasing emotional separation, so as to improve clear rational thinking. The prefrontal lobes may well accomplish rational thinking because as the active working memory, they take the consequences of decisions into account by balancing short- and long-term interests. Uncontrolled impulsiveness may be caused by deficient neurotransmitters GABA (gamma amino butyric acid) and serotonin or by damage to the prefrontal lobes (Goleman, 2006: 73, 76, 111, 270; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 35; Goleman, 1995: 254, 255).

The prefrontal areas are, in addition, the seat of attention and as a result, of self-awareness, as well as values. Our values are stored here as emotionally toned thoughts. The left prefrontal area furthermore helps to soothe feelings of frustration and worry and thus setbacks, by generating good moods. By mentally rehearsing a task, the prefrontal cortex can be activated to prepare in advance – above all, when leaders attempt to overcome habitual responses (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002:182, 183, 200, 201).

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The corpus callosum connects the two halves of the neo cortex to allow communication between them. The Nobel Prize winner Roger Sperry found, way back in 1968, that the two halves of the neo cortex process information differently. Research by Riding and Rayner (1998) indicated that individuals showed a preference for one half. They indicated that the analytical and rational left half is the centre of positive emotions such as optimism and calmness and is thus important in managing emotions. The right half, on the other hand, is more concerned with negative aspects. Communication between the two halves through the corpus callosum is therefore important for balanced inner dialogue (Weare, 2004: 96, 97).

Research has indicated that people show a natural inclination to and preference for a specific hemisphere and thus towards specific learning and thought processes. This implies that individuals use one hemisphere more than the other which causes the active part to develop more than the other. If the right half has developed more, the person will be more inclined to negative aspects such as withdrawal. The left frontal hemisphere, the approach area, is associated with anger, apathy and a lower threshold for the experiences of sadness and depression. Negative events and emotions are perceived more readily and remembered for longer than positive emotions as they are stored in the amygdala, sometimes as over-generalisations (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 19; Weare, 2004: 97; Weis & Glomb, 2002: 51, 52; Steel & Arvey, 2002: 243).

Research furthermore suggests that individuals with the trait-negative effect are more likely to be preoccupied with negative feedback, while those with the trait-positive effect focus primarily on positive experiences (Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 334). The former implies that negative perceptions are more accentuated by the brain which may seriously affect the 'self-fulfilling prophecy' – you get what you expect.

2.4.6 Hippocampus

The hippocampus, close to the amygdala, as shown in Figure 1, is also a part of the midbrain and is important in learning as it enables the brain to convert new information held in the prefrontal cortex to long-term memory. The hippocampus is thus responsible for remembering everything that happens to a person as it receives

processed sensory information from the neo cortex. The latter enables this part of the brain to then create its own intricate representations of experiences. Neural activity and the formation of neurons, is therefore at a very high level in this part of the brain and accordingly, very susceptible to the damaging effects of high cortisol levels caused by emotional distress (Prins, 2006: 29; Goleman, 2006: 273).

From this discussion of the anatomical foundation for EI and the interrelatedness between the emotional brain and the rational brain, it is obvious that there are areas of the brain that are specifically designed for emotion and for social interaction. Emotions should therefore be taken into account to form sound fulfilling relationships and leadership, seeing that emotions are also contagious because of perceptions and specific brain centres and –cells, as has been discussed.

2.5 EMOTIONAL CONTAGION

Emotional contagion, when we unconsciously experience the same emotions as other people, takes place through the brain's neural cells and pathways that cause our brains to interlock unconsciously and operate in parallel. The latter are very important in leadership for the reason that leader's emotions may affect the way in which they influence people and thus how effectively they influence people. Influence actually forms the core of leadership. The message and emotional tone conveyed, as well as the emotional culture and climate created by a leader as the most powerful person in the group, his confidence and optimism, are the most significant and particularly emotionally contagious (Goleman, 2006: 275 – 277). Every EI leader will apply this contagion strategically and match the emotion to the moment to facilitate a positive emotional atmosphere. Positive-mood groups show much less conflict and prejudice than their negative counterparts. Emotions at work could have an impact on judgment, problem solving, decision making, general well-being and job satisfaction as motivations that guide employees towards success (Goleman, 2006: 16, 18, 39, 300; Prins, 2006: 50; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 8, 9, 44; Weare, 2004: 36; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 21, 22).

What makes emotional contagion even more important is that if leaders fail to create a positive emotional environment, employees additionally recall these negative

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encounters or goal incongruent events more often and in more detail than positive ones (Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 344). This could be demotivating and erode the secure base, trust and cooperation needed for optimal performance and increases stress.

This transmission of affective information through the limbic open loops is outside conscious awareness, occurring very rapidly and independently from cognitive processes and is thus largely uncontrollable. Proper steps for emotional regulation may not be taken during the initial emotional perception by the emotional brain before the rational brain can modulate reactions (Goleman, 2006: 16, 39, 40). Pugh (2002: 161 – 165), as well as George (2002: 190) use the definition of Hatfield, Cacioppo and Rapson (1992: 153) of emotional contagion: "the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronise facial expression, vocalisations, postures and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally". In other words empathy facilitates interaction by producing corresponding affective states in individuals and groups. Consequently, positive, enthusiastic and passionate emotions in principals will create the same emotions in educators and learners (Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 340, 341: Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 9, 14).

Contagion could develop amongst almost any coordinated group of people, particularly amongst those who are in a close relationship as co-workers. Conflicting goals lead to tension and the toxic contagion of antagonism, apprehension, resentment, prejudice and distress, which spread through the group, as opposed to identical goals which cause positive shared emotions (Goleman, 2006: 49, 69, 300). Creating and maintaining positive emotions are essential as they broaden thought-action repertoires, attention, and cognition, while building physical, intellectual and social assets (Prins, 2006: 36, 37). It is thus important for education leaders to maintain positive relationships between them and educators, among educators and between educators and learners to motivate them and be effective.

Mirroring, because of the mirror cells, is very important in emotional contagion. Mirroring occurs where the physiological profiles of persons synchronise in less than fifteen minutes with those of others and for that reason are very important, particularly in a spiral of conflict. Even in nonverbal communication, emotions can be shared especially in cohesive groups (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 8, 9). According to Goleman (2006: 42, 43, 61), the mirror neurons cause emotions to be contagious as

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they are firstly responsible for emotional awareness, interpreting others' intentions and for the social implications of others' actions. Social skills are thus dependent on the mirror neurons' sensing of the other person's intentions and prepare us to respond appropriately through a shared emotional response without thinking. The moment we see an emotional expression on someone's face, we immediately experience that same emotion and mimic it. The aforementioned applies to the full range of emotions, from fear, anxiety and anger to happiness and joy. Emotional contagion is not only the spreading of emotions – it involuntarily prepares the brain for instantaneous action to help.

Contagion consequently plays an important role in the effective learning of the socio-emotional competencies and well-being of educators and learners. Their behaviour and attitudes are shaped by those with whom they come into contact. Leaders and educators need to be a model of good interpersonal behaviour – respect, calmness and rapport. To effect the latter, school principals should eradicate barriers involving workload, vision, funding, academic results, relationships and a focus on the failures of staff, rather making accomplishments the centre of their attention (Weare, 2004: 127, 128). Given that emotions are contagious, it is important to remember that a smile and laughter are the most contagious of all emotions. They indicate that people are relaxed, have open hearts and minds engaged, are trusting and comfortable (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 12, 13).

Employees in service-oriented jobs, in this instance education, are taught to suppress their feelings and display the emotions their employer demands; they act in order to control the outward expression of emotions to fit the situation (Lord & Harvey, 2002: 137). This in turn, helps to manage the emotions of others, since emotions are contagious. The former could however cause emotional labour (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 15). Surface acting, when somebody feels one way but displays another emotion, as well as emotional labour could cause stress, burnout and a high staff turnover. Pretence is not only stressful, but can be detrimental to achieving goals. In one workplace study it was found that 53% of workers expressed their anger, but only 19%, joy (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 279, 280; Macdermid, Seery & Weis, 2002: 416, 417). The expression of positive and joyous emotions can however create a favourable environment to motivate employees and enhance job satisfaction.

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The definitions of EI and the human brain functions should be kept in mind when the different domains of EI are explained to further elucidate EI.

2.6 THE DOMAINS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

When the different definitions of Bar-On (2005: 2, 3), Weisinger (1998: xvii, xviii), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000), as well as Salovey and Mayer (1994) as cited in Prins (2006: 87), Goleman (1995), Wong, Foo, Wang and Wong (2007: 3), together with Hein (2005: 5) are summarised, the hierarchical building blocks as mental abilities or domains of EI are:

- Emotional awareness that comprises first of all self-awareness which enables a person to accurately recognise, evaluate and express emotion in the self; and secondly, social awareness which is the ability to read others' emotions accurately.
- Understand and use emotions by accessing or generating feelings when they may facilitate understanding of yourself or others and facilitate thought and motivation from information derived from emotions.
- Emotional management as the self-management of internal emotional states and impulses to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Acting ethically and consistently, develops relationship management to manage the emotions of others.

These domains work together in mentally healthy individuals to generate a balanced psychological and physical life. In addition, those domains and their associated competencies are needed in order to be an Emotionally Intelligent leader (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 37, 46, 48; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: x, 19, 25, 26; Weare, 2004: 3 – 5). According to Prins (2006: 64), the former are possible because general intelligence includes both the cognitive and EI where EI includes the personal, emotional, social and survival abilities. EI thus facilitates intra- and interpersonal relations while managing immediate situations successfully.

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These domains are furthermore arranged from more basic universal psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated and complex processes. For example: the lowest undemanding abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion as seen in babies, to the highest level which concerns the conscious, reflective regulation of emotion (Hein, 2005: 7).

2.6.1 Emotional Awareness

Everybody, particularly leaders and managers, should be **self-aware** by being able to identify and understand emotional signals and their effect on the self, first as the basis of EI and then become **socially aware** by identifying and understanding the emotional cues from other people. In addition, leaders and managers should be able to convey and express emotions accurately to themselves and to others in effective communication and behaviour. The ability to become aware of emotions should be accurate and not obsessive, with leaders being aware of emotions since they enable them to monitor their behaviours and feelings, thus assisting them to formulate better decisions (Hein, 2005: 3, 4; Weare, 2004: 3 – 5, 32, 34; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 19, 25, 26, 36, 83, 87, 90, 159, 175; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 37, 38, 47, 327, 328; Stein & Book, 2001: 55). Not surprisingly, research by Caruso and Salovey (2004: 23), as well as Earley and Francis, (2002: 280) suggests that women may have a slight advantage in emotional awareness over males.

Emotional awareness is even more important in view of the fact that Moshavi, Brown and Dodd (2003: 3, 4) found that leaders who over-estimated their emotional and leadership abilities, showed the least concern towards employees while under-estimators showed the most concern toward others. Without awareness of the effect of their emotions and behaviours on others, leaders would not be able to motivate others or create and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships that are needed for effective leadership.

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2.6.1.1   Self-awareness

Self-awareness is the ability that enables individuals to be aware of their own emotions and behaviour by monitoring themselves for their own benefit (Weisinger, 1998: xix, 4). Self-awareness affords leaders accurate self-assessment and self-understanding that enables them to know their real inner selves so as to know who they are, their preferences and resources (Bipath, 2008: 77; Sosik & Megerian, 1999: 384). By knowing and accepting themselves, they should be able to be open-minded to accepting others. Self-awareness, as the foundation of EI, thus forms the underpinning of certain personality traits such as autonomy, psychological health and a positive outlook. As a result, EI nurtures self-confidence, as well as a sense of self-efficacy and optimism as essential components for success, and an accurate and positive self-concept, self-perception and outlook on others by comparing their own perceptions to others'. Self-awareness then forms the foundation for empathy (Compton, 2005: 122; Moshavi, Brown & Dodd, 2003: 2; Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 35, 36).

Self-awareness additionally affords leaders self-respect by knowing their strengths and limitations (Kuter, 2004: 5, 13), personal needs and emotions (Saarni, 1997: 48). Self-aware managers are generally more positive and effective leaders than over-estimators because self-awareness improves their emotional management, self-confidence, resilience, flexibility, effectiveness, the ability to take intuitive action by acting on their gut feelings by using accumulated resources from the unconscious mind, thus helping them find meaning in new information for generating creative and innovative solutions. Self-aware leaders are more adaptable in their relationships and able to be effective change agents. Self-awareness additionally allows leaders to be authentic, possessed of a convincing vision that conveys the bigger picture, while giving them a sense of humour about themselves and being able to trust others (Weare, 2004: 5, 24, 29, 32, 121, 122; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 52 – 55, 327, 328; le Roux & de Klerk, 2001: 54, 70, 74, 78; Sterrett. 2000: 3; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997: 42, 138, 201).

Self-confidence instilled by self-awareness, is an essential leadership competency as it allows leaders to regulate their emotions, be empathetic, thoughtful, self-reflecting, politically aware, honest and humble because they have a strong and accurate sense

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of self-worth (Bipath, 2008: 77; Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 335; Jacobs, 2001: 174, 177; Singh & Manser, 2000: 109). Warren (2003: 130, 131) suggested: "Humility does not mean that you think less of yourself; only that you think less often of yourself".

Furthermore, Lynch (1998: 139) contends that introspection or self-reflection as an attribute of self-awareness not commonly found in leaders and organisations, is an essential attribute of a culture of corporate compassion which should be developed. To achieve this, all stakeholders should be afforded the opportunity to be creative and compassionate thinkers, inspirers and achievers.

According to Bodine and Crawford (1999: 87) there seems to be a positive correlation between self-awareness of our behaviour, verbal and non-verbal, and the extent to which the behaviour is need-fulfilling and socially acceptable. Moreover, persons whose behaviour is generally perceived as negative are likely to be less self-aware and exhibit a 'failure identity'. These individuals are usually not aware of their own behaviour, while those associated with them are very aware of it. Leaders should therefore be aware of the influence of their behaviour on others and take control of how they act, think, and feel as well as of their verbal and non-verbal communication.

To become more self-aware, leaders should learn to listen effectively and critically to their internal thought processes through introspection; above all, to internal dialogue, defeating non-productive thoughts and attitudes. This could be the beginning of being more aware of why one feels and behaves as one does, thus improving one's understanding of the beliefs one has and of, being more assertive and confident. Self-awareness may help to prevent one from becoming one's own worst enemy, which may result in feelings of resentment, frustration, tension and feeling victimised. This may also give one more insight into what employees undergo while on the job (Burley-Allen, 1995: 82 - 84).

A person's beliefs, self-concept and self-image thus determine his/her internal thought processes and internal verbalisation, as presented to his-/herself and others, which again determine his/her attitudes and expectations. These may be negative and self-defeating or positive affirmations that may be reflected in his/her communication with others that influence motivation and job satisfaction (Burley-Allen, 1995: 91). The

aforesaid stresses the importance of self-awareness in the development of an effective leader or a satisfied employee. The same applies to a leader's awareness of his/her behaviour towards employees that may have an effect on their productivity and job satisfaction, given that emotions are very contagious, particularly negative emotions.

2.6.1.2   Social awareness

Social awareness is adeptness in 'reading' other people, by being able to recognise emotions in others and to distinguish between different emotions. Because the brain is wired to connect, it makes us sociable and gives us the ability to navigate through social encounters and power relationships by being able to read organisational currents, networks, politics and to modulate interactions. Social awareness thus facilitates the primary tasks of a leader which are to generate excitement, optimism, passion for a job and to cultivate cooperation and trust to reach goals. It additionally enables leaders to influence the outcomes of social and job interactions in order to create a high morale among employees by finding a balance between task and relationships (Bipath, 2008: 78; Goleman, 2006: 4, 5, 84; Hein 2005: 7; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 19, 37, 47).

Social awareness is of particular importance regarding job satisfaction since job satisfaction, as a positive emotional state and behaviour towards work, is the fulfilment of needs that should be recognised through social awareness. Leaders' actions, and their awareness of emotions reflected in those actions, play an important role in creating and fulfilling those needs (Bohloko, 1999: 11 – 14; Pii, 2003: 1, 3; Rantekoa, 2004: 6 – 11).

Weare (2004: 107 – 109, 110) mentions research that found that in a school each person should feel a sense of belonging, feel acknowledged, valued, respected and to experience success. The aforementioned are basic needs that should be fulfilled and will only be apparent to EI managers who are able to recognise these needs and emotions and maintain positive interpersonal relationships as a key to leadership, motivation and job satisfaction. Unsupportive and poor relationships, due to a lack of social awareness, are two of the most common sources of stress, absenteeism and

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depression and may cause valuable educators to leave the profession. Weare also found that UK primary school employees have better relationships and a sense of belonging than their counterparts in secondary schools, as well as fewer problems of communication. The reasons appeared to be that the culture of the former institutions is more educator-centred, being grounded in integrity, consensus, genuine involvement, consultation, dialogue and transparency in communication. The former allow leaders to connect to people and become aware of their emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 273, 284).

According to Goleman (2006: 130, 131), social emotions such as remorse, shame, embarrassment, guilt and pride, act as a moral compass assuming empathetic behaviour when a person senses how his/her behaviour is experienced by others. These mentioned emotions, particularly shame and guilt, act to limit immoral activities.

Caruso and Salovey (2004: 28, 29, 90 – 92, 180), as well as Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 249) maintain furthermore, that leaders should guard against suppressing their own and others' feelings. Leaders should stay open to positive and negative feelings in themselves and as communicated by others, by skilfully identifying them and integrating this information into decision making and behaviour. Additionally, Goleman (1998: 86, 176) also lauded listening skills as the key to showing empathy and to empowering others through effective communication. To ensure the latter, a leader should be a keen observer and listen intentionally and receptively, empathetically and in an unbiased way, while seeking common interests and asking questions in dialogue, to understand how the other person feels, rather than focussing own point. This attitude should prevent leaders from split attention, self-absorption and preoccupation, resulting in giving solutions to a problem without empathetically understanding the situation or background. Who has not been talking to a superior while sensing or even seeing that he/she was not paying attention or was busy with something else?

Listening skills is a vital communication skill which improves self-awareness, our awareness of others, as well as productivity. Listening additionally enhances communication and prevents misunderstandings, frustration, embarrassment, confusion, lost information and hurt feelings (Burley-Allen, 1995: 3, 6, 82).

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Consequently, the EI ability of social awareness through listening should enhance and nourish interpersonal relationships, which are under pressure because of social corrosion due to less direct, personal contact and communication due to technology. Technology "absorbs people in a virtual reality that deadens them to those who are actually nearby" (Goleman, 2006: 6). According to Goleman (2006:8), the former could be the result of a focus shift from people-centredness to technology-centredness; from dependentness to individualism because of less face-to-face social interaction and – skills, in which emotions and non-verbal communication are expressed and/or perceived.

Goleman (2006: 105, 107, 111, 288) used the "I – It" term, coined by Buber, for the abovementioned cold 'agentic', emotionally detached, indifferent and exploitive interaction where other people are viewed as instruments or things to be used to achieve egocentric goals, threatening employee well-being. In an "I – It" relationship other people are treated as a means to an end without empathy or any of the emotional expression of an "I – You" relationship in which people feel known and valued. This type of relationship puts the amygdala in a paranoid hyper vigilant mode to keep a protective emotional and psychological distance from others because of distrust. However, this balanced emotional separation may be needed for mental clarity and for seeing people in terms of their roles, without the influence of emotions, in the execution of their expertise in certain professions.

Social awareness can be improved by being an astute observer of people which enables leaders to read non-verbal cues that may convey more information than words (Weare, 2004: 114, 115, 116, 120; Burley-Allen, 1995: 119). The accurate identification of emotions means that leaders should sometimes read between the lines and pick up non-verbal cues to distinguish between genuine and manipulated expressions of emotion (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 98, 180; Weare, 2004: 115, 116, 120; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 249). Higher interpersonal non-verbal sensitivity, listening skills and empathy distinguish the best educators, leaders and managers from the average or even from the mediocre. Moreover, educators and leaders possessing these competencies were rated higher in job performance; they were seen as more effective and were liked more by colleagues and learners (Goleman, 2006: 85, 86, 88).

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Caruso and Salovey (2004: 161 – 163) used Bill Ford III as an example of an empathetically EI manager. He was able to identify others' feelings and feel what they feel. He talked about and demonstrated his concern for his employees. Ford stayed open to emotion and integrated conflicting and complex emotions through perspective taking (seeing through another's eyes) in developing a vision. Perspective taking consequently incorporates emotional awareness, as well as empathy. Empathy is seen as a prerequisite for ethical and moral behaviour, as well as for making informed decisions that take the emotional perspective and effects into account.

Regarding empathy, perspective taking and emotional awareness, Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee's (2002: 16) research found that almost 90% of interactions with bosses led to negative feelings such as frustration, disappointment, anger, sadness or disgust that highlight the importance of empathy. This could indicate a lack of self- and social-awareness among leaders that is a prerequisite for being aware of others' emotions, as well as a lack of compassion and concern for others (Lynch, 1998: 9). Goleman (2006: 84, 88) proposed that intentions are not enough; real concern and caring about others' needs and acting accordingly, are necessary for motivation and job satisfaction. Goleman furthermore cites the research of Ickes, of the University of Texas, who found that empathetic accuracy distinguishes the most tactful advisors and most effective negotiators as educational leaders and managers should be, as well as the most successful educators.

According to Weare (2004: 44 – 46) and Goleman (2006: 56, 58, 84), as well as Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 61, 63), empathetic accuracy is the basis of all social competencies as it lubricates sociability. The key part of empathy for leaders is sensing and recognising others' feelings and realising that others experience the same feelings as they do. Empathy thus means being able to put yourself in other people's shoes by feeling what the other person feels and thinks through unspoken emotional contagion, and responding appropriately, compassionately, instantly and in an unpremeditated way.

Bipath (2008: 78) and Goleman (2006: 52, 53, 213, 215) proposed that a person, and the person's plight, should be sensed by another person's social awareness before

empathy can be felt towards the other person. It is mainly people who feel secure in their social relationships that are able to be sensitive to the distress of others, show caring and availability and are able to respond empathetically, proportional to the need. A lack of awareness of one's own significance and self-esteem can cause a lack of empathy. Witnessing empathy or lending a helping hand, may induce a sense of elevation and satisfaction. Elevation is, according to Goleman (2006: 213) the elated, catching emotional state experienced by people when seeing a spontaneous act of thoughtfulness, kindness, courage, tolerance, patience or care that does not need to be demanding. There should however be a balance between self-regard and empathy. Overemphasis of empathy can result in the denial of one's own needs and an over-concern for the needs of others. Sometimes a leader should be able to take a stand, be assertive and show autonomy. Autonomy could balance out too much social conformity, but it should always be borne in mind that empathy is the key to retaining talent and getting along with a diverse workforce.

Empathy seems to be physiological as well as psychological. The bodily mimicry, because of the mirror cells, causes biological changes in such a way that the psychological, as well as the physiological states are shared through emotional contagion. It is interesting to note that the facial muscles are controlled by the emotional brain and that facial expressions may evoke the same physiological states in other people (Goleman, 2006: 24, 25).

Self-projection enhances self- and social awareness. Self-projection, "as the ability to make social inferences and anticipate the beliefs and actions of others" shifts a person's perspective from the present to potential alternatives by thinking about future prospects (Buckner & Carroll, 2007: 51). The latter infers that immediate reactions could be delayed for future good.

In addition to the abovementioned, Lynch (1998: 2, 6), saw the success of an organisation as dependent on psycho-spiritual sensitivities which provide an organisation with emotional capital to act in moral and humane ways by emphasising an organisational culture in which concern for people is more important than results or material gain. 'Morally sound ways' refers to the established organisational social norms of legality, reason and responsibility when compassion is sought. Humane

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behaviour again implies that matters should be handled in a less painful way by respecting the dignity of those involved. People should be fostered and nurtured with a deep sense of thoughtfulness and consideration based on both reason and emotion. Reacting empathetically does not mean that a solution should be found to every problem, "but an assurance of a ready willingness to understand the pain and misfortune of others". Empathy can be blunted by the modern-day technical era that creates social and virtual distances; for instance e-mail, in which it is impossible to perceive accurately the emotions of the other person (Goleman, 2006: 62).

Emotionally aware leaders who have empathy, speak authentically from their own values and show enthusiasm which reinforce synchrony and allows people to feel understood and cared for and their work more meaningful. Leaders should be more empathetic and supportive when work is more emotionally demanding (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 20, 24, 25). This does not mean being nice all the time; EI leaders express work demands without unnecessarily upsetting people. Caruso and Salovey (2004: 112) accurately sum it up by the following: "The rewards awaiting an EI manager may not be measurable in money, power or prestige, but in the desire and ability to do well for oneself and for others".

Only leaders who are self-aware and therefore self-confident, can be socially aware enough to allow employees to act autonomously and independently. Autonomy (self-reliance) is the key to an emotionally literate school. It includes acting with integrity, according to one's values, beliefs and principles; possessing an appropriate level of independence; thinking critically and handling pressure effectively. Leaders should be imbued with self-confidence and be aware of others' emotions, as well as being personally responsible, self-disciplined and critically reflective thinkers. These character traits encourage autonomy by allowing staff at all levels to make their own decisions, take the initiative and contribute by shared decision-making (involvement). An accurate assessment of one's own abilities through self-awareness and awareness of the needs of others, is needed to prevent risky and critical behaviour (Weare: 2004: 48 – 51, 121, 122).

Emotional awareness should be balanced by other competencies such as emotional management and resilience (Weare, 2004: 32). Employees should be given the

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freedom and flexibility to act independently. Employees should feel better about themselves, their work and will be more effective professionally when autonomous actions are allowed. This will improve their wellness, morale, attendance and stress levels. Stress is not only about workload and pressure; it is also about autonomy. Some teachers in the UK were reported to be under such pressure that they felt they did not have time to think for themselves and preferred to be told what to do. The causes of this problem should be examined to help relieve the stress and workload (Kuter, 2004: 24; Weare, 2004: 122, 123).

The creation and cultivation of a sound organisational culture that embraces the aforementioned is the result of management policies and practices that are the responsibility of the leader (Janson, 2003: 119, 134). Such a culture largely depends on the EI ability of social awareness, mainly empathy, of the education leader.

A culture of masochism, workalism and overwork is formed because teachers expect too much of themselves, whilst the quality of their working lives and their work-family lives deteriorate through the lack of leaders' awareness. A positive EI culture does not mean: 'anything goes', *laissez-faire* chaos or an absence of leadership. It means warmth, communication, respect, involvement, clear goals and feedback that motivates. In addition EI promotes a culture of consistent rules and boundaries where everybody knows what is expected of him/her (Weare, 2004: 112, 130). The guidelines are therefore a clear indication that leadership should be supportive and aimed at job satisfaction through the understanding and use of emotions, so as to motivate people by satisfying their emotional needs.

2.6.2 The understanding and use of emotions

One's thinking and behaviour are influenced and regulated by how one feel. These feelings should be used to guide thinking, reasoning and problem solving so as to let emotions work constructively and harmoniously when integrated with thinking. Emotions direct our attention, actions and problem solving. Educational leaders should therefore match emotion to the task. This ability determines how emotions can work in harmony with thinking (Hein, 2005: 6; Weare, 2004: 3 – 5; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 19, 25, 29, 100, 159; Weis, 2002: 53; Wong & Law, 2002: 246).

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With the skilful use of emotions, according to Carmeli (2003: 791), leaders should be able to inspire people, determine priorities and be creative thinkers themselves by using their imagination, by thinking differently, by generating new innovative ideas, facilitating and enhancing thinking by focused and flexible thinking. This could improve the invention of various potential strategies, thus improving decision-making and persistence with regard to challenging tasks; by being able to regulate their emotions; act with empathy and use their own and others' emotions constructively.

Groups are in general narrowly focused on themselves and fail to think holistically. By feeling what others feel (empathy/compassion), they will be able to change beliefs and opinions because they are able to look from another's perspective, thereby establishing rapport and building trust by starting with a bottom-up approach (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 41 – 43, 45 – 47, 51, 175; Wolf, Pescosolido & Druscat, 2002: 519). Nevertheless, because of the internal focus of groups they should sometimes be shocked out of their complacency by challenging their perspective (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 175).

Emotions that bind a team together are communicated and perceived rapidly and sometimes without awareness. Emotions have an impact on social behaviour such as trust, honesty, openness and commitment (Lord & Kanfer, 2002: 12). EI leaders use these feelings to help the group to reach its goals. Leaders should therefore be able to use emotions by choosing the right response, to listen actively, to respond and communicate effectively while being aware of their own non-verbal communication. Communication-related problems are one of the main reasons for employee and/or leadership failures. Open 'bottom-up' communication that takes the needs and opinions of all employees, as well as organisational needs into account are a prerequisite for success. Inspiring a shared vision, as a guide, is one of the most important communication functions of effective leaders. Education leaders should empathise to be able to obtain 'buy-in' from others by listening actively to educators' dreams and hopes and to their views and let them count (Caruso and Salovey, 2004: 205, 206; Weare 2004: 25, 46, 117, 119; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 24, 275). These aforementioned aspects are not only important leadership practices, but also

major contributors to motivation and job satisfaction that will be discussed in Chapter 3.

EI, in particular the understanding and use of emotions, is essential to forming and maintaining relationships as it should be understood what information is conveyed by different emotions; whether it be a friendship or a working relationship (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 44). Regarding relationships, Goleman (1995: 118, 119) posited the following:

> "Those who are adept in social intelligence can connect with people quite smoothly, be astute in reading their reactions and feelings, lead and organize, and handle the disputes that are bound to flare up in any human activity. They are the natural leaders, people who can express the unspoken collective sentiment and articulate it so as to guide a group towards its goals. They are the kind of people others like to be with because they are emotionally nourishing – they leave other people in a good mood."

The abovementioned abilities are not only about other people, but should be balanced by an accurate awareness of one's own personal needs, feelings and understanding of emotions and behaviours that should lead to their fulfilment. Essential to any emotional competency is to be true to oneself and one's values, notwithstanding the emotional consequences (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 44).

McEwan (2003: xvi, xxvii) and Collins (2001: 39 – 40), as well as Bodine and Crawford (1999: 44, 45), furthermore maintained that the root of any relationship is communication. Successful and active communication skills guarantee open effective relationships. These skills are self-disclosure, assertiveness, listening and facilitation.

Leaders should be able to experience and understand a range of emotions, what causes them, the effects of them on their bodies, moods and behaviours, as well as how they change. These effects should be used to predict their and others' emotional futures by understanding changes in emotion as reflected by their emotional vocabulary and emotional knowledge base. For leaders, it is important to recognise the effect of their emotions on others and for them to manage their emotions to limit

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negative effects. This is the most cognitive of the EI skills because leaders should use the analytical ability of the rational mind to understand themselves and other people (Weare, 2004: 3 – 5, 30, 32, 33). Such understanding is influenced by their interpretation of previous experiences, inherent personality, self-image and environment (Maxwell, 2003: 209, 213), together with culture, norms and values (Abaham, 2004: 118). The skilful use of this ability to understand emotions should help leaders to make correct assumptions about people and avoid stereotyping. Leaders should evaluate possible emotional scenarios by conducting a what-if analysis or role play scenarios to predict possible outcomes (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 115, 121, 124, 159, 178).

This understanding of emotions in its complexity is needed to genuinely relate to others in the formation and management of relationships, experience, empathy, adaptation and effective communication, as well as managing conflict. Without this understanding, autonomous, independent and self-reliant actions would be impossible. Failure to understand emotions may lead to misinterpretation and misperceptions about motives – sometimes the root cause of conflict. One should be able to trust and respect others to meet one's needs and care for one. Consequently, one does not have to be in control all the time to feel safe (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: x – xv, 19, 25, 47, 53, 59, 182, 187; Weare: 2004: 42, 43; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 11).

Bodine and Crawford (1999: ix) additionally postulated that "basic psychological needs are the origin of conflict" because they are not always fully understood and accounted for by leaders. Besides, people want to be treated fairly and honestly; therefore, the latter is very important, since it has an influence on motivation and retention. Anger usually arises from a sense of injustice when somebody feels that he/she has been treated unfairly regarding standards, through discourteous or disrespectful behaviour, without justification. Values and ethics should not be compromised in view of the fact that norms form a strong bond of loyalty in a group (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 53 – 55, 171; Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 272, 285; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 227). Only if leaders are able to understand and commit to the abovementioned, will they be able to influence employees positively. They will be trusted and respected for the persons they are and not only because of their position.

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The dark side of self- and social awareness lies in the fact that individuals with high awareness could employ it to intentionally deceive others by withholding information or by manipulating them. This is possible since the ability of social awareness enables them to "mind-read" others' thoughts, as proposed by Johnson, Barnacz, Yokkaichi, Rubio, Racioppi, Shackelford, Fisher and Keenan (2005: 1848).

The understanding of emotions should be utilised positively to facilitate the leaders' own and others' emotional management as it involves the understanding of the implications of social acts on emotions and the regulation of emotion (Hein, 2005: 6).

2.6.3   Managing emotions

Clinical studies by Weisinger (1998: xvi) found that most individuals experience problems managing volatile emotions, mainly anger and anxiety. The situation may become catastrophic when it is coupled with poor communication. Chrusciel (2006: 647) suggested that emotional monitoring and regulation is of particular importance in the service sector, such as education, to provide service and obtain customer satisfaction to an ever-changing diverse and demanding clientele.

The former problem stems from modern man who is still using ancient neurochemical processes to regulate modern socialisation and learning processes in rapidly changing environments (cf. 2.4). Our emotions and facial expressions are rapidly occurring processes and regulation depends on our much slower cognitive processes (Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002: 107). An emotional stimulus input triggers behavioural, physiological and experiential changes which we experience as an emotion. Responses can be controlled according to appropriateness, contextual factors and individual differences to manage emotional states; for example to suppress responses, to adapt to the environment or to specific behaviours (Pugh, 2002: 148, 149; Macdermid, Seery & Weis, 2002: 407, 409).

As behaviour is chosen, it should be managed to gain effective control of our lives and to balance the difference between our needs, the resources required to fulfil those needs and the effect it may have on other people and relationships. Since emotional

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management is a precondition for relationship management, it enables leaders to influence others and sense their abilities and development needs. It is particularly important for individuals to be aware of and manage emotions intelligently and constructively during conflict resolution and to behave cooperatively and responsibly (Bipath, 2008: 78; Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 88 - 91).

Emotional management is built on self-awareness: individuals should be aware of and understand themselves and what they are feeling before they can control their emotions to deal productively with the situation, especially with negative emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 56 – 59, 328, 329; Weisinger, 1998: xx). Hein (2005: 7), as well as Bodine and Crawford (1999: 37) emphasised that emotional management is not emotional suppression that will deprive us of information; rather, it is the ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating disruptive or depressing emotions and enhancing pleasing ones by inducing the rational mind to regulate the emotional mind. Emotions are then balanced proportionately and appropriately to the circumstance, which is the key to personal emotional well-being and need satisfaction without being intrusive on the emotions of others. Emotional management consequently predicts successful functioning and optimal performance in everyday life (Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004: 1091, 1092).

To regulate emotions and to cope with stress, people could employ strategies such as physiological modification, detachment, suppression, humour and cognitive change (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 274, 276, 277). Suppression could lead to apathy, indifference, disconnectedness, depression, anxiety and uncontrolled anger. If emotions are constantly suppressed, our memory regarding information suffers and suppression uses energy. We should therefore be aware of our emotions, even the negative ones and draw on the insights and energy emanating from our emotions (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 62, 63, 67, 68, 73).

Emotional awareness and the understanding of emotions form the basis of emotional management, which sets good managers and great leaders apart from the average or mediocre. Great managers maintain a positive self-attitude as a prerequisite for emotional control, coupled with a sense of self-efficacy by integrating rational thinking and emotionality to utilise all the brain functions (Compton, 2005: 122; Wolf,

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Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002: 509, Cooper & Sawaf, 1997: xiv, xxxi). The attributes of emotional management are that those leaders are able to focus their attention to make informed decisions and additionally manage others' emotions and moods. Moreover, a rich emotional life is needed to connect and communicate with other people and to motivate and enable others (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 69, 71).

Regarding emotional management, it should be kept in mind that the four components of emotional experiences are: experience, appraisal, physiological change and action readiness or behaviour. Emotional management is goal-directed behaviour aimed at regulating the former components via cognitive and/or behavioural strategies within a specific role or situation (Macdermid, Seery & Weis, 2002: 414, 415). Emotion management is furthermore, fundamental in psychological and social adjustment (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002: 467) since it enables people to consider the consequences of their actions on themselves and others, before they act impulsively in socially unacceptable ways. To achieve the previously mentioned, one should prepare for a situation and/or behaviour by mentally rehearsing it, as it prepares the mind to perform it (Goleman, 2006: 47).

Intra- and interpersonal emotional management are required to accomplish change since change requires courage, self-assuredness, innovation, experimentation and risk taking: Anxious managers avoid risks and possible setbacks while over-optimistic managers on the other hand, may take too many risks and fail (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 207; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 15). Continuous change and increasingly complex challenges also demand emotional management and social competence to be flexible and adaptable in different situations (Weare, 2004: 15).

There exists a universal core of emotions; their causes and facial expressions are associated with those emotions, even between species; for example, a smile, a sad or happy face. Cultural differences in social behaviour underlie differences in display rules, secondary emotions, culture and gender. Society and culture teach us appropriate display rules regarding needs, independent behaviour, assertiveness, respect and the expression of emotion. Different cultures have different social norms and values of acceptable behaviour according to which, emotion should be regulated

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(Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 21 – 23, 119). These differences should be taken into account in cross-cultural management.

Social acceptable display of emotions tend to decrease emotional autonomy, which is already low in service jobs such as education. Autonomy is an important factor in work attitude and stress, in view of the fact that autonomy is a strong negative predictor in burnout and a sense of estrangement from true feelings. Behavioural autonomy is an important factor in emotional management, especially in service workers such as educators. A good person-job fit and person-organisation fit is essential, allowing a person to display authentic emotions in the job situation (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 266 – 269; Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 333, 355).

Managing emotion may furthermore lead to feelings of satisfaction and commitment (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 162). Commitment is particularly important when tough times need tough decisions. This implies that EI managers do not need to be pleasant or cheerful and contented all the time, but they should be able to handle negative emotions and conflict. The difference between success and failure lies in how the latter is handled. Failure to manage emotions appropriately and a lack of judgment may cause the downfall of many managers. In managing their emotions, information provided by emotions should be used to make rational decisions and to behave in appropriate and acceptable adaptive ways. Leaders should always be aware of the impact their emotional expressions have on other people. For that reason, leaders should have empathy to see the situation from the point of view of others, which should help to regulate their emotions and prevent cruelty. Positive self-talk should also help in handling negative emotions, as individuals tend to act in the ways they think (Weare, 2004: 31, 35, 36; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 176 – 178, 211; Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 335). To effectively manage their emotions, leaders should understand the differences between the emotional mind and the rational mind as previously mentioned (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 89, 90).

The keystone to EI is expressing emotions appropriately by intelligent management and the control of emotions, responses and impulses; for example excitement, anger, anxiety or frustration (Hein, 2005: 7; Stein & Book, 2001: 9. 187). Bodine and Crawford (1999: 40) maintain that impulse control is at the root of all emotional self-management that balances emotional expression. Especially overwhelming, possible

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threatening, disturbing and inappropriate emotions, should be controlled. Moreover, George (2002: 205) mentioned the research by Kemper which indicates that emotions are experienced and regulated by the meanings conveyed by power and status. George also found that high-status leaders experienced more positive emotions than non-leaders.

To accomplish the abovementioned, leaders should remain open to emotions, in view of the fact that they contain information as primary signals about people, relationships and social/interpersonal interaction. Emotions should be intelligently incorporated into reasoning, problem solving, judging decisions, behaviour and actions by utilising the wisdom of our feelings and by integrating thinking (head) and feeling (heart). One should not jump to premature conclusions or over-generalise emotions, but rather see them in context. Matching emotion to task may well enhance one's life and the lives of those around one, thereby increasing the ability to plan for success. An added advantage to the ability to manage emotions is that everybody will not be blinded or overwhelmed by feelings and act on impulse. Emotional management also helps with resilience which means bouncing back from negative experiences, for example negative feedback, by viewing such experiences as learning opportunities (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 73, 104, 134, 138, 159, 202, 210; Weare, 2004: 35, 36, 39; Lord & Harvey and Pugh, 2002: 116, 147; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 328, 329).

Any leader or manager should take the socio-emotional brain circuitry, specifically the mirror cells, into account during interaction by managing emotions (cf. 2.4; 2.5). If somebody discards their negative emotions, for example anger, threats, dislike, disrespect, repulsion or disregard, on another, that person could tend to mirror the same emotions (Goleman, 2006: 13). As a result, it is essential for leaders to manage their emotions without losing authenticity and credibility in creating a positive emotional climate in organisations.

Leaders who are able to master their emotions are positive, energetic, optimistic, flexible and adaptable, transparent and enthusiastic. By managing their emotions leaders create an environment of integrity, trust, comfort, transparency and fairness. These leaders have a strong sense of achievement and continuous learning, set realistic and measurable goals and take calculated risks to seek innovative ways to

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achieve goals, often cutting down on bureaucracy. They create opportunities, see and seize them. (Bipath, 2008: 78; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 56 – 59, 328, 329).

Bodine and Crawford (1999: 39) suggested that leaders who manage their positive, as well as their negative emotions are more responsible, assertive without being aggressive, less prone to raging anger and anxiety and are better motivators and listeners. Therefore they are better at handling relationships and conflict, as it is not only negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, anger, depression and frustration that should be managed, but also positive emotions such as joy, enthusiasm, contentment and confidence.

Emotional management, such as impulse control and eliminating instant gratification, consequently plays a significant role in self-motivation that is determined by self-responsibility, the motivation of others and job satisfaction as an attitude towards a job (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 39, 40, 41). Abraham (2004: 121, 132) and Goleman (1998: 106) saw emotions as the ultimate motivator, while Bailey (2007: 3) mentioned the expected recurrence of regret of previous decisions as a motivator for people to take action to minimise their recurrence.

Barbuto and Burbach (2006: 54), Bar-On (2005: 2, 3), Wong and Law (2002: 248), as well as Cooper and Sawaf (1997: 189) found that the EI of leaders, by being aware of their own and others' emotions, are able to understand, use and manage their own, as well as others' emotions to help them cope with stressful situations. Coping with stress should enhance leaders' relationships, communication and empathy, as well as improving the stress tolerance of educators and reducing the stress experienced by them. EI leadership should furthermore help educators to cope with stress so that they feel valued, have a realistic sense of self-worth and are able to deal positively with problems (Maxwell, 2003: 232). Stress experienced by educators may thus be attributed to the EI of education leaders in the light of Wong and Law's (2002: 265, 269, 270) contention that employees with a high EI find it difficult to cope and function optimally in a low EI environment.

EI does not exclude anybody from experiencing difficulties or job stress, but high EI endowed individuals have more and better abilities to cope with stress and daily

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problems (Carmeli, 2003: 784). An optimistic positive environment where tasks are seen as opportunities and challenges, not as a sources of stress, is needed for optimal performance (Weare 2004: 93, 95, 105; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 27, 39).

Low EI leadership practices and a toxic organisational culture focus on immediate need satisfaction of leaders as well as employees because of a lack of impulse control in the handling of frustration, aggression and stress. People with low impulse control are more susceptible to frustration and stress, acting more impulsively and without thinking of the consequences. This results in uncontrolled anger and unpredictable behaviour (Stein & Book, 2001: 187 - 190). Le Roux and de Klerk (2003: 21) posit that emotional awareness makes it possible to discern between emotions and to react on the strongest in relation to the need, while emotional management controls our behaviour so as not to harm anybody.

Emotional management regarding stress in education is very important in the light of research by Weare (2004: 129) in the UK which indicated that education has the occupational group with the highest stress levels; 42% of UK educators are highly stressed in comparison to an average of 20% across all occupations. The results of stress levels as experienced by educators are reduced motivation, job satisfaction, morale and commitment, resulting in an increased intent to quit, a high turnover, lower recruitment, poor communication, conflict and reduced effectiveness. Self-evaluation, particularly positive self-regard, a positive attitude and subjective well-being were found to play an important role in physical and psychological health and particularly job performance and job satisfaction according to Tsaousis, Nikolaou, Serdatis and Judge (2007: 1443, 1446, 1449). Burn-out and stress-related diseases such as hypertension, cardio-vascular problems and even depression may emanate from stress-related feelings and situations (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005: 160, 161; Weare, 2004: 129).

Prolonged stress, due to improper emotional management, could result in depression when coping mechanisms are depleted. Both excessive stress and depression are characterised by a profound feeling of anxiety, hopelessness, worthlessness and feeling overwhelmed, as emotional symptoms. Physical symptoms may include fatigue, energy loss, sleeping disorders, a change in appetite and weight, digestive

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problems, headaches, back pain and dizziness, as well as reduced immunity levels. Researchers believe that these symptoms, as well as depression could be caused by an imbalance of the hormones serotonin and noradrenalin in the brain and body. These hormones are usually associated with mood and pain regulation (Steptoe, O'Donnell, Badrick, Kumari and Marmot, 2008: 96).

While excessive stress, also known as distress, is associated with low cognitive- and work performance, managed mild stress or eustress could have very positive effects on learning and performance as shown in Figure 2.4.
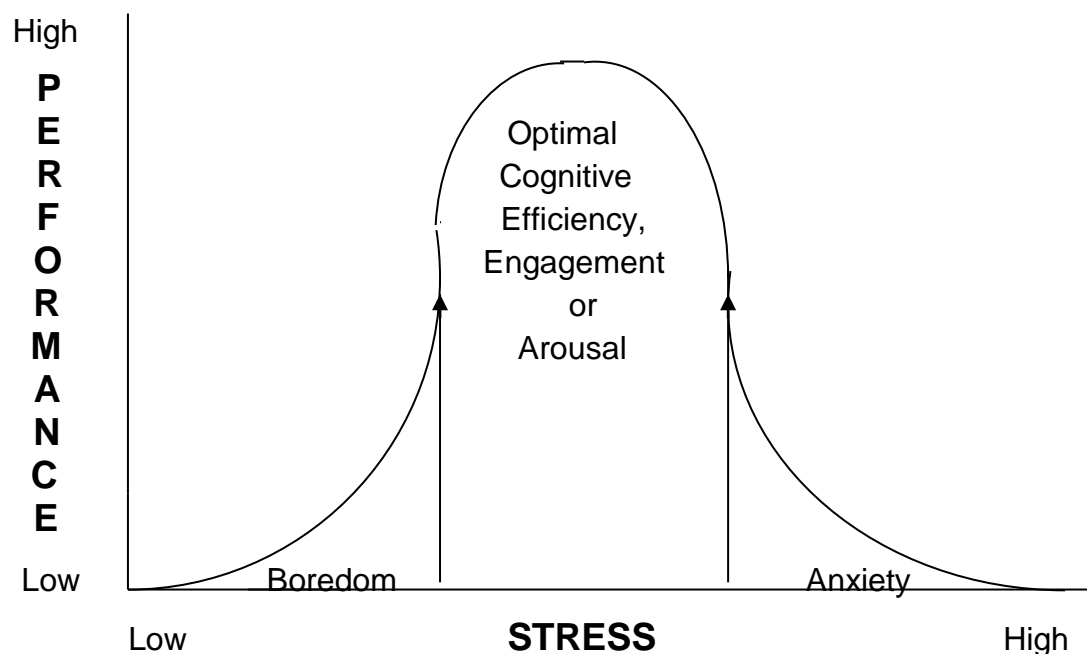
Figure 2.4: The relationship between levels of stress and mental performance
(Goleman, 2006: 271; Priest & Gass, 2005: 43 adapted).

The bell-curve of this graph indicates that stress varies with the challenge. Too little stress is responsible for indifference, boredom, apathy and low performance. Too much stress leads to anxiety caused by high cortisol levels and norepinephrine secretion, which stimulate the amygdala, resulting in low performance and learning. It may thus be deduced from the graph that eustress, as moderate to moderately challenging stress levels, and positive moods are needed to build resilience, motivation, interest, attention and the drive to do our best, because of healthy cortisol levels (Goleman, 2006: 271, 272, 274). In view of the fact that emotions, as created by the social environment and particularly stress, could have a profound impact on

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performance, self-efficacy, self-esteem and optimism, the emotional task of the leader is to help employees to operate in the region of the graph where their efficiency is at an optimal level by managing their emotions (Karademas, 2006: 1282; Priest & Gass, 2005: 51).

Optimism, a key EI leadership competency derived from emotional management, is to have strong expectations of positive outcomes to events despite setbacks and frustrations, which promote emotional and intellectual growth (Wong & Law, 2002: 247). High self-efficacy, an optimistic attitude and believing in others prevents people from falling into apathy, hopelessness or depression when they face difficult tasks or experiences and accept responsibility for their behaviour and results; while pessimists blame themselves and do not accept responsibility. Optimists have a 'success identity' while pessimists have a 'failure identity' and see failure as a permanent characteristic that cannot be changed (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 41, 42). Optimists see opportunities and challenges in a setback and not only threats or barriers as optimism strikes a balance between high self-regard and realism. Optimists face their own shortcomings as well as difficulties and believe that life can turn out right. They furthermore view others positively, expect the best of them and expect changes to create a better future. Optimism is thus a major contributor to resilience (Lord & Harvey, 2002: 135, 136; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 329).

Data from Extremera, Duran and Rey (2007: 1069, 1070) support the abovementioned by suggesting that perceptions of high emotional abilities, of being able to attend to emotions, discriminate between emotions and repair negative feelings generally facilitate higher life satisfaction and lower perceived stress. Emotional management improves self-efficacy and a positive self-perception of emotional abilities thus helps people to recover from failure and disappointments because failure is seen positively as a learning experience and a growth opportunity (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 42).

EI increases with age as people become more proficient in managing their emotions through cognitive skills and shifts in priorities, implying that older people could be more competent leaders. Kanfer and Kantrowitz stress the functional and motivational underpinning of emotional regulation and the interaction between policies, practices and responses. They maintain that organisations should develop policies and

practices to promote emotional regulation, while minimising emotional labour (Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer (eds), 2002: 429 – 431: Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002: 459: Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 127).

From the previous discussion it may be concluded that EI plays a central role in leadership practices that have a major effect on the work-lives of employees through the interpersonal relations created between employees and their leader.

2.7   THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP ON INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

To be successful, leaders need additional competencies, such as EI, to the "threshold" abilities of basic intelligence and relevant job knowledge (Prins, 2006: 110). Albert Einstein said: "Intellect cannot lead, it can only serve. Intellect and clear thinking do not make a leader, they only get him in the leadership door" (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 34). Wong and Law (2002: 255) additionally found that individuals with a high IQ are usually less emotionally intelligent. Goleman (2002: 3) sees the role of EI abilities in leadership as: "Great leaders move us … their success depends on how they do it". The latter is thus a social process in which the leader "intentionally exerts influence over others in order to structure both relationships and activities within groups or organisations … to attain group, organisational and societal goals" (Prins, 2006: 105, 106).

Although there are different perspectives regarding EI, experts agree that effective leaders should create a positive emotional environment in an organisation to attain the said goals. Such an environment is created through a common vision as an image of what the future holds through communication, interpersonal skills and empathy, as part of their EI make-up to mobilise the work-force. Thus leaders are encouraged to show respect for, motivate, guide, inspire, listen to, persuade and develop a passion for the well-being of their employees (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 214 – 216; Wong & Law, 2002: 250; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 32, 273, 284; Kram & Cherniss, 2001: 254; Weisinger, 1998: 95).

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Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005: 389, 391) moreover, found that EI, particularly perception and understanding of emotions, accounted for most of the variance between transformational leadership and personality. This indicates that EI is probably an important component of effective leadership insofar as leaders let employees feel at work by monitoring and responding to the employees' needs in today's more service-orientated organisations (Gardner & Stough, 2002: 68, 69; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001: 5, 9). This implies that leaders should be creative, flexible and enthusiastic; able to inspire and motivate others by nurturing positive attitudes through empathetic relationships that foster a synergism between technical skills, EI and IQ. Thus, interpersonal relationships that motivate and enhance job satisfaction are created. Leaders achieve this by sensing and being considerate of especially the achievement, development and, feedback needs and expectations of employees (Stone, Parker & Wood, 2005: 4; Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 184 – 191; Covey, 2004: 161 – 171, 241; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001: 182 – 185; Elias, Arnold & Hussey, 2003: 1; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000: 337).

Since Covey (2004: 101) views human capital as the most valued and the only active long-term asset of any organisation in this era of the knowledge worker, EI leadership could be a decisive issue in commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (Abraham, 2004: 121, 132; Goleman, 1998: 7, 106). Knowledge work occurs when organisational capability depends more upon the knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes of employees, together with leadership that encourages employee innovation, than leaders themselves (Ashkanasy & Hartel, 2002: 309). Extensive research has revealed that leaders who exhibit successful leadership behaviours through EI, achieve greater employee morale, performance, retention, job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness (Serio & Epperly, 2006: 52; Maxwell, 2003: 131; Moshavi, Brown & Dodd, 2003: 4). Kernbach and Schutte (2005: 441, 443) additionally found that the higher the EI of service providers, for instance educators, the higher the customer satisfaction, particularly in difficult situations. The implication is that EI and leadership abilities, as seen in the interpersonal relationships of the school's principal, not only influence educators' attitudes and job satisfaction, but also learners' performance and attitudes.

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The former explains why some people with outstanding technical skills and qualifications are not very successful leaders; they are not able to integrate and employ emotions in intra- and interpersonal relationships. EI competencies such as self-awareness, resilience, integrity, initiative, intuitiveness, optimism, empathy, motivation, influence, discipline, self-actualisation, sensitivity, respect, humility and adaptability, seem to distinguish most successful leaders from the average and mediocre (Covey, 2004: 16, 17, 181; Kuter, 2004: 21, 22; Maulding, 2002: 12; Stein & Book, 2001: 18, 98; Kram & Cherniss, 2001: 254; Blanchard, 1999: 43, 47; Goleman, 1998: 38, 40, 41). All these abovementioned emotional competencies could result in a positive emotional work environment where employees are motivated and job satisfaction prevails, if utilised correctly by principals who are servant-leaders and whose priority it is to contribute to the success of others (McEwan, 2003: xxxi).

The aim of formal education is to provide learners with knowledge, skills and attitudes that will assist them to function effectively in society (Steyn, 2002: 4). To achieve this, the leadership style of the education leader, which determines the interaction between principal, educator and learners, should create caring and empathetic relationships. By creating a culture and climate where the uniqueness of each individual is enhanced, opportunities to realise educator and learners' full potential through true commitment and collaboration will be the result (Janson, 2002: 136, 144; Mentz, 2002: 148). The aforementioned may be reached through leadership that fulfil educator, as well as learners' needs with the aim of achieving successful education and create job satisfaction amongst educators (Kuter, 2004: 8; de Bruin, 2002: 316).

Emotions are extremely important in leadership as they influence our intra- and interpersonal processes, our judgements, decisions and the way we think. Leaders should match their thinking style to the emotion and situation so as to develop and maintain sound interpersonal relationships, given that it is the emotionally compelling leader who is the emotional guide of a group. Socio-emotional competencies are linked to success, stress tolerance, resilience, commitment, intentionality, respect and the leadership style as perceived by others. Everyone watches the leader as a model and his/her way of seeing things; his/her feelings and caring behaviour bear special weight, setting the emotional culture and climate for the well-being of employees, as well as that of the organisation (Weare, 2004: 11, 40, 57; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: ix,

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104, 105; Jones & George, 2003: 445; Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002: 1; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997: 189). A comprehensive study by Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 105) furthermore found that the quality of the relationship between employees and their immediate superiors determines how long employees stay with the organisation. The care of education leaders for educators and their well-being thus determine the educators' motivation, job satisfaction and whether they will stay with the organisation.

A holistic whole-school approach is essential when a leader addresses socio-emotional and leadership issues in a school. EI could bring about coherence in a school, given that successful educational leaders take a positive perspective and approach by emphasising strengths and competencies, as was previously mentioned. They focus on the socio-emotional contexts that shape behaviour and emotions as well as beliefs, attitudes and competencies that form the basis thereof. A sense of fulfilment, empathy, joy, humour, laughter, high energy levels, self-esteem, commitment and a feeling of being valued are indicators of work-wellness, school climate and culture (Weare, 2004: 53 – 57, 59, 61). These characteristics also play an important role in motivation and job satisfaction, as will be discussed in Chapter three.

It is not only the emotional well-being of employees that is subjected to interpersonal relationships. According to Goleman (2006: 224), epidemiological studies suggest that toxic relationships could be as big a risk factor to ageing, disease and death as smoking, high blood pressure, cholesterol, obesity and physical inactivity. A positive emotional environment, as created by EI leaders, is thus a prerequisite for effective learning, professional practice, personal well-being and mental and physical health (Goleman, 2006: 5). An optimistic emotional environment and disposition are thus needed for optimal performance. Tasks should be seen as opportunities and challenges to reach job satisfaction; not as a source of stress (Weare, 2004: 93, 95, 96, 105; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 27, 39; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002:15).

Effective principals should be leaders, as well as managers. Langley and Jacobs (2006: v) found that the favourable results of specific schools could be ascribed to different leadership styles. Leadership and management styles are defined as a specific subset of role behaviours and personal qualities that influence the way they are perceived by others. The effectiveness of verbal and non-verbal communication is seen in the sensitivity to and the consideration of others' needs through social

awareness. Different situations and challenges call for strong interpersonal skills, different leadership styles, insight and flexibility, so as to meet different individual needs. Every leader has a preferred style that is determined by his/her personality disposition, emotions, self-perception and values that influences his/her interpersonal relationships and effectiveness. This preferred style could however, be adapted by learned responses through EI (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006: 51; Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 2; Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 57, 65, 68, 175, 192; Evans, 1998: 121). Covey (2004: 101, 147) puts leadership, thus people first and management second. He opines that effective leadership in education determines whether the effort is spent in the correct ways and on priorities through the self-awareness of the individual's unique contributions, imagination and conscience.

EI additionally affords leaders the competencies needed to match their leadership and thinking style to the current emotion and situation in order to motivate employees and learners (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 104, 105). Unmotivated educators are not able to motivate learners. EI additionally creates an emotional environment in which all people, learners and educators, can reach their full potential through human relations that encourage optimal performance by fulfilling their needs (Goleman, 1998: 170; Kovess, 1997: 36, 80, 109). These EI leaders are followed because of who they are and the values they represent and not because of their positions, so that organisational and personal growth may flourish (Maxwell, 2005: 6, 7).

Leadership style, culture, effectiveness and organisational performance are determined by a leader's personal values, national culture and values. The latter is of particular importance in cross-cultural settings (Byrne & Bradley, 2007: 169) as is the case in South-Africa. Sickenga and Howie (2004: 1) proposed that "quality of life is about personal authenticity and about enriching relationships between people".

Depending on the EI, people-task-orientation, the preferred leadership style of the education leader, as well as the situation and the maturity and commitment of the educators, management styles could vary according to the amount of supportive and directive behaviours exhibited by the principal (Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 188). Depending on the former, a mix of management styles and traits may also be needed to reach desired goals (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 11). Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 69 – 71) distinguished six leadership styles: visionary,

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coaching, affiliative, and democratic are highly EI positive styles that create resonance; while pacesetting and commanding can be highly negative if used too frequently, or misused.

Regarding leadership in general, Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 101 – 105) ask the question of how mean-spirited, ego-driven, narcissistic or Machiavellian leaders, who could be dangerously ambitious, can sometimes seem to be so successful? These leaders lack the EI abilities of empathy; collaboration and caring about people which are considered crucial to people's development. The reasons these authors gave were that the most visible executive in many instances, actually does not lead the company. For example Bill Gates, an effective pacesetter, employs division heads with complementary leadership styles and counterbalancing strengths, which actively lead people and foster teamwork. Nevertheless, overambitious leaders usually drive talent away. The number one reason for people quitting is dissatisfaction with the boss; quitting being four times higher for bosses perceived as bad. How long people stay in the company and their productivity depends on the quality of their relationship with their direct superiors. If the latter is applied to the situation in education, it is imperative that leadership should be investigated.

No leader is perfect or needs to be and sometimes people's expectations of leaders are unreasonable. Scientific studies by McClelland indicated a critical mass of six or more EI leadership abilities to be effective, with the larger the repertoire, the more effective and flexible the leader. These abilities are self-awareness, organisational awareness, integrity, self-confidence, flexibility, initiative, drive to achieve, empathy, developing others, influence, collaboration and staying calm under pressure (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 103 – 106).

Leadership furthermore determines the performance of organisations. In the UK 69% of high-performing schools had principals who exhibited four or more resonance-building leadership styles. In two-thirds of the low-performing schools principals used only one dissonant style which may have resulted in poor relationships with their staff. The leader should use EI to choose the right style at the right time by reading the cues and adjusting his/her style accordingly, thus enhancing performance, credibility and trust. Self-discipline is needed to avoid inappropriate actions such as anger,

impatience or character attacks. Resonant leaders on the other hand, build commitment, trust, cooperation and enthusiasm among staff and with their staff. Leadership growth will therefore impact on the emotional well-being of the staff and subsequently, on the entire organisation (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 107, 110, 214). Ashforth and Saks (2002: 333) cited many researchers who propose that emotions are related to behaviour, attitude and performance at work. Dysfunctional workplace behaviours – fraud, sabotage, harassment and violence – are partially caused by maladaptive emotional responses to the former inappropriate actions.

Since leadership style is defined as the way a leader is perceived by his/her employees, leaders need accurate feedback to asses the effectiveness of their leadership style and the influence thereof on their interpersonal relationships. The major problem in education leadership is an acute lack of accurate feedback. The higher up in an organisation one is, the more critical the need for feedback but the less accurate self-assessment is. People tend to withhold critical information, especially negative feedback regarding leadership practices and relationship management as it can be uncomfortable to give such feedback, being afraid of hurting others' feelings. Leaders, as well as employees should try to make feedback non-evaluative. Leaders in general tend to overestimate their leadership and interpersonal abilities, especially the poorest performers with the lowest self-awareness. CEOs of the worst-performing companies gave themselves the highest rating on leadership abilities, with the pattern being reversed when their subordinates rated them. However, these leaders believed it is impossible to change. EI leaders actively seek feedback, even when it is negative, in a 360-degree format from bosses, peers and subordinates in order to determine the effects of gaps and blind spots in their leadership and on their interpersonal relations. These results predict the accuracy of leaders' self-awareness, self-assessment and effectiveness (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 116–121, 168-173).

EI affords leaders the ability to know when to engage the appropriate style at the right time, in the right way, with the right person, to create human synergy and harmony in relationships. They build loyalty by caring about the careers of employees; inspiring them to give of their best for a shared value-driven vision and mission through a contagious passion. EI leaders create a climate of enthusiasm, excitement and

flexibility that spontaneously invites people to strive for excellence (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 322).

Mental rehearsal expands opportunities to practise leadership abilities. Powerful biological changes take place during visioning and provide leaders with a picture of their ideal self and achievements and trigger neural connections needed for change in habits. The feedback via trustful relationships and mentors can give leaders hope and self-confidence to proceed with change (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 206, 209, 212).

Organisations do not always encourage new learning, because they usually thrive on routine and the *status quo*. For leadership development to succeed, commitment should come from top management. To learn and change, leaders should feel safe or they will experience stress and its negative effects, as discussed earlier. Worline, Wrzesniewski and Rafaeli (2002: 295, 296) mention the work of Jackall (1988), Ashkenasy, Hartel & Zerbe (2000) and Fineman (1993, 2000), which indicated that the expectations, scripts, roles and routines of managers often sabotage the common good of the organisation to preserve the *status quo*. This *modus operandi* fails to bring out the best in people as required by high-quality performance in organisations. The unchanging practices and policies of large organisations may foster boredom, frustration and disappointment that may cause people to lose their zeal for their work. Like the frog in the boiling water, leaders get so used to the prevailing situation that they may lose sight of their real self. Leaders should raise their and their employees' spirits, confidence and passion for excellence, as complacency and self-delusions pose one of the greatest challenges to an accurate self-image.

EI competencies could help leaders to bring their and their employees' dreams to life, act as a visionaries and catalysts for change. Connecting with their dreams and visions may release their passion and energy. Instead of trying to be someone else, leaders should uncover their ideal self, as well as their real self and link learning goals to their dreams and aspirations based on their own values, not those imposed on them by other people. When leaders try to impose their values and dreams on others it will result in anxiety, apathy and rebellion. Furthermore, leaders should think in terms of an extended horizon that will focus on what is important, not only on what is urgent

(Caruso & Salovey, 2004: xiv – xvi, 168; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 146 – 152, 155, 156, 181).

Grandey and Brauburger (2002: 283, 284) also confirmed the abovementioned by postulating that positive affectivity positively influences helping behaviours and managerial potential. Agreeableness and emotional stability, including not being too intense, are also predictors of service performance. Research by Goleman (1995) showed that employees can learn how to modify emotional responses for personal and organisational benefit. Totterdell and Parkinson (1999) showed that educators can be trained to be aware of their coping styles and to modify them to alter their moods at work to show appropriate interactions without losing their own sense of self.

An EI servant leader should focus on the needs and development of the employees first, and acquire the skills of leadership later. Human resources should be used wisely, as EI leaders are interested in developing and helping people with empathy, communication and understanding. Creating an EI organisation is the leaders' foremost responsibility (Kuter, 2004: 2; Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 203 – 205; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 289).

The advantage of EI to exemplary leaders is clearly seen in a rapidly changing environment where different leadership styles should be employed. In these situations, leaders need to form effective teams quickly and efficiently by leading and modelling, interacting effectively with people, motivating, encouraging and generating enthusiasm, communicating a shared vision and goals and obtaining 'buy-in' from autonomous groups. To accomplish this, they should understand what people think and feel, as well as the impact of emotion on thinking and decision making that results in positive outcomes for people – the integration of feeling with thinking. Only by tuning in to the feelings, leaders are able to meet the deeper, unspoken needs of their staff and increase human welfare by focusing on positive emotions and reducing negative ones. The integration of rational and emotional styles is the key to successful leadership without being derailed by emotions. This does not mean less emotion but appropriate emotion. EI can then enhance and assist thought in a meaningful way (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: xvii – xx, 3, 5, 6, 14, 26, 27, 44; Lord & Kanfer, 2002: 7).

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As mentioned previously, a positive emotional climate does not mean 'anything goes' or *laissez-faire* chaos, neither does it mean being autocratic. Rather, EI means warmth, communication, respect, involvement and clear goals that motivate, as well as having consistent rules and boundaries where staff know what is expected of them. The emotions of the leader have a ripple effect throughout the organisation's emotional climate. Feedback should be supportive and associated with job satisfaction (Weare, 2004: 112; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 10, 61).

Caruso and Salovey (2004: 172) maintain that "The rewards awaiting the EI manager may not be measurable in money, power or prestige but in the desire and the ability to do well for oneself and for others". To determine the abilities, EI and probable success of potential leaders or the shortcomings of existing leaders, they should be measured accurately before something is done about improvement.

2.8   MEASURING EI

Emotional skills may be measured objectively through ability, performance or knowledge tests. The ability to read people, get in the right mood, to predict the emotional future and to do it with feeling is of the utmost importance (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 75 - 80). The possible effectiveness and success of aspirant leaders could be determined with EI tests. EI training may improve shortcomings and aspects leaders wish to improve in themselves, especially in those with low EI (Bar-on, 2005: 7 – 17; Sterret, 2000: 105).

The objective measuring of EI competencies, particularly emotional regulation, is vital when recruiting senior personnel and leaders to develop or maintain a competitive edge (Chrusciel, 2006: 650). George (2002: 199) found that the personality traits, moods and emotions of leaders play a decisive role in the selection and appointment of subordinates in important positions. Leaders prefer members whose personalities are similar to their own, instead of complementary. It is found that when firms select section heads on EI-based competencies, the turnover drops from 50% to 6% (Kuter, 2004: 2).

Profiling and assessment regarding social and emotional abilities should be more important in education so as to get an excellent person-job fit, specifically in the case of principals and deputy principals. This fact was posited by Niemann and Kotze (2006: 612) and corroborated by Oosthuyse (2006: 25). The former authors cited Flores's (2004: 297) concern regarding the failure to appoint principals who should exert a positive influence on education through inspiration, motivation and emotional support. This dilemma was also the concern of Fernández-Araos (2001: 187) who suggested that principals were, in most instances, appointed either only on face value after a relatively short interview, naïve references and/or technical skills. Niemann and Kotze also mention Steyn and van Niekerk's (2002: 207) alarm regarding the lack of scientific selection criteria in the appointment of principals. This predicament could be solved by applying scientifically valid and reliable tests as used in industry. Weare (2004: 150, 180), as well as Ashforth and Saks (2002: 235, 237, 355) found emotional stability to be a strong predictor of confidence and emotional control that enables leaders to develop their own awareness and determine their strengths and weaknesses.

Instruments that measure EI should be culturally specific since display rules impose culture- and gender-based conventions regarding the regulation of emotion as part of job performance and organisational goals. These conventions regulate, for example, the acceptability of needs, independent behaviour, assertiveness, respect and the expression of emotion (Weare, 2004: 19 – 21, 160; Weis, 2002: 36 – 39; Worline, Wrzesniefski & Rafaeli, 2002: 295; Ashforth & Saks, 2002: 334; Earley & Francis, 2002: 370, 372, 380, 387; Pugh, 2002: 172, 173). Contrary to the former, Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002: 45), view cross-cultural differences as insignificant, implying that EI competencies can be identified equally well throughout the world.

If we compare the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) developed by Goleman and Boyatzis (Goleman, 2001: 28), the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 1997: 6), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Schutte, Malouf, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim (1998), the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) of Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000), the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) of Palmer and Stough (2001) as cited in Prins (2006: 176, 198, 200) as well as Gannon and Ranzijn, as in Table 2.1, it is apparent

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that many different terms and competencies are used in items to measure EI. It is no wonder that Mayer views some of the tests as too comprehensive and inclusive of too many personality factors. Nevertheless, all of these competencies are important in leadership, whether they be personality characteristics or EI competencies which could overlap.

If certain EI shortfalls are identified by tests, these shortfalls may be rectified or improved by actively learning as well as applying the concepts described in the following section.

2.9   EI MAY BE LEARNED

Personality traits and the different intelligences were previously thought to be constant throughout life, but longitudinal studies have shown that personality traits and patterns can be changed (Gannon & Ranzijn, 2004: 11).

As already explained, EI involves circuitry between the brain's executive centres in the prefrontal lobes and the limbic system which governs feelings, impulses and drives. The former are determined by the interaction between genes and life experiences that determine emotional reactions (Goleman, 2006: 159). Skills based in the limbic areas are best learned through motivation, extended practice and feedback with a genuine objective and determined effort. The problem is that leadership training programmes often target the neocortex, the thinking brain, where technical and analytical skills are learned, instead of the limbic brain. A limbic neural pathway can only be changed by forming a new limbic connection. The limbic brain learns more slowly, particularly when ingrained habits learned early in life, should be changed. Re-educating the limbic brain, our emotional brain, takes a good deal of practise and repetition to alter and strengthen the brain centres that regulate emotions – the circuits between the amygdala and prefrontal lobes (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 130 – 133, 201).

Human brains create new neural tissue and connections, forming new pathways when stimulated by relationships and new learning to sustain these newly formed connections. According to Goleman, research indicates that repetitive learning accelerates the rate at which new neurons are formed which then continually

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reshapes neural pathways and consequently, the social brain and behaviour. The formation of new neurons and neural tissue may continue into old age (Goleman, 2006: 157, 158; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 201). The latter implies that there is no age limit on the learning of new EI skills as the hippocampus, the centre for learning and memory, is fashioned by incidents which occur throughout life. Even people with high levels of neuroticism may learn and develop the EI skills of awareness, understanding and the regulation of emotion (Gannon & Ranzijn, 2004: 11).

EI can also be learned and retained over a long time but the effects of EI training often fade quickly. An one-fits-all EI leadership-training programme is not practically feasible, as people learn only what they truly want to learn. A study in the USA confirmed the latter, as it was found that the half-life of a generalised EI course included in an MBA was about six weeks (Chrusciel, 2006: 651; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 124, 126, 128; Boyatzis, 2001: 240).

The key to sustained change and improvement in EI competencies is an individualised learning programme of awareness, targeted skills and gaps in skills chosen by the individual. This programme developed by Case Western Weatherhead School of Management showed impressive gains which lasted for years. After two years these MBA students still showed a 47% improvement of self-awareness competencies and of self-confidence and self-management, as seen in adaptability and achievement drive. Social awareness and relationship management skills showed a 75% increase in competencies of empathy and team leadership. Jane Wheeler from the Bowling Green State University found that gains in the abovementioned competencies may continue over time. The EI abilities and strengths gained could help to improve additional competencies throughout life once they have been learned. Competency development could accordingly, have an impact on people, culture, structures that support change, development and norms (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 134 – 137, 139, 317).

According to Chrusciel (2006: 651 – 653), the aforesaid is confirmed by research conducted by Slaski and Cartwright (2003), as well as Prati (2005) who found that increased self- and social awareness improves EI significantly. The latter furthermore

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showed statistically significant improvements in general health, stress, performance, morale, quality of work life and relationships. The organisational environment, however, determines if a person is able to exercise the acquired EI competencies.

Moreover, to trait EI, as mentioned above, Wong, Foo, Wang and Wong's (2007:12) research found, what appeared to be, potentially large nurture effects on enhanced EI levels. This finding confirmed that experiences play a role in EI and that EI may be enhanced via effective training programmes. Dispositional or inherent trait tendencies may be altered and appropriate emotional responses learned as practical applied EI abilities, as proposed by the ability model of EI. Those abilities that could be learned and measured include self- and social awareness, resilience, integrity, initiative, intuitiveness, optimism, empathy, motivation, influence, discipline, self-actualisation, sensitivity and adaptability (Gannon & Ranzijn, 2004: 3; Covey, 2004: 16, 17, 181; Kuter, 2004: 21, 22; Maulding, 2002: 12; Stein & Book, 2001: 18, 98; Kram & Cherniss, 2001: 254; Blanchard, 1999: 43, 47; Goleman, 1998: 38, 40, 41).

EI training should not focus exclusively on gaps in competencies; focusing on deficiencies arouses the right prefrontal cortex and causes feelings of anxiety and defensiveness that demotivate, when too much is attempted too quickly. This causes an interruption in self-directed learning and change. Key points in planning to improve their EI is that people should be committed, set their own flexible and feasible goals, focus on their strengths and follow programmes that suit their learning styles (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 176, 183 – 184, 192; le Roux & de Klerk, 2001: 132). Personal growth and development cannot take place without change and change cannot take place without losing something, for example old habits that form part of a person's character. Change takes time and may be frightening (Warren, 2003: 194). Nurturing relationships plays an important role in effective change as it forms a save haven for realistic feedback and support (Goleman, 2006: 171).

Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee (2002: 291, 292, 297, 302, 310), along with other experts, agree that change in an organisation should start at the top where leadership should be developed in a process that involves EI leadership practices, ideas and ideals. Improved EI should change attitudes often seen in stereotyping and biases as unconscious mental categories (Goleman, 2006: 301). In the process of learning and changing, leaders

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should feel safe, as stress could cause the secretion of the stress hormones adrenaline and cortisol, which could precipitate long-lasting detrimental effects. Sustained cortisol secretion kills brain cells in the hippocampus that are essential for new learning and dull rational thinking (Abraham, 2004: 127; Sterrett, 2000: 17).

Sosik and Megerian (1999: 387), as well as Moshavi, Brown and Dodd (2003: 8), have found that if self-awareness is improved through the learning of targeted EI competencies, especially in leaders who over-estimated their capabilities and acceptability and were unaware of their negative impact on others' performance, their leadership improved dramatically. If we take into account the research of the HSRC (2005:1), as well as of Wong and Law (2002: 265, 269, 270) regarding resignations in an organisation, the use of EI could improve the work environment and the motivation and job satisfaction of educators, resulting in a higher retention rate.

2.10   SUMMARY

In the current chapter the evolving construct and definitions of EI and critique against EI as a separate construct, was discussed. Although there are researchers who doubt the existence of EI as a valid construct, research has found an anatomical basis for EI. The interaction between the body, brain, emotions and hormones should be in harmony in order to lead a successful and fulfilling personal life and to be an effective and successful leader.

The scope of the EI domains of emotional awareness, the understanding and use of emotions, as well as emotional control and the significant role they play in leadership and job satisfaction have been established from the current literature. In addition, EI has a genetic and nurturing component which implies that for some individuals, EI is a natural talent that makes them more successful. Most importantly, EI based in the limbic areas of the brain may also be learned and retained over a long period of time with appropriate training, motivation, coaching, feedback and integration into everyday life in order to address deficiencies. The relevance of the EI domains towards successful leadership practices and competencies are summarised in Table 2.1.

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Table 2.1: **The influence of EI on leadership**

EI DOMAIN	LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES
1. Emotional awareness	• Accurate self-assessment and –understanding • Appropriate emotional expression • Awareness of others' needs and emotions • Organisational awareness • Empathy • Self –confidence, -efficacy and self-reflection • Creates a compelling vision and sets goals • Authenticity • Resilience • Intuitive action
2. The understanding and use of emotions	• Motivation • Empathy • Enthusiasm • Act innovatively and creatively on intuition • Trust, respect and relate to others • Engaging the appropriate leadership style • Honesty, integrity and perspective taking • Open communication and humour • Prevent stereotyping
3. Controlling emotions	• Self-control • Optimism • Creativity • Initiative and taking calculated risks • Persistence and coping with stress • Adaptability, flexibility and commitment • Developing others • Relationship management • Influence others positively • Inspirational leadership • Act as a change catalyst and transformational leader • Constructive Discontent • Conflict management • Teamwork and cooperation

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(Bipath, 2008: 77; Compton, 2005: 122; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

2.11 CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the previous discussion and Table 2.1, it is abundantly clear that all the EI domains play a significant role in leadership. Leaders should therefore be proficient in a majority of these threshold abilities to be successful. Debilitating deficiencies should be determined and addressed by appropriate tests to enhance leadership and organisational success as they may be improved through suitable learning.

Since the aim of this investigation is to establish the influence of EI on the leadership practices of education leaders and the influence of both the aforesaid on the job satisfaction of educators, Chapter three will investigate the issues of motivation, job satisfaction and the determinants thereof.

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CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

"Paradise … is unending immersion in a world
where you feel meaningful and comfortable"
(Kittredge, 2008)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will deal with job satisfaction by giving a grounding perspective on the nature and scope of motivation and job satisfaction from the current literature. A critical reflection on the plausibility and implications of the different motivational theories and determinants of job satisfaction, regarding contemporary circumstances, will also be given.

The high level of dissatisfaction in South African schools, educators who have it in mind to leave education and the ominous educator shortage (cf. 1.1), prompted the researcher to investigate the situation in other countries to determine the situation there, as well as possible solutions that may be applied locally. In the UK, Evans (1998: vii, ix) doubted that the low teacher morale, anger, demoralisation and disillusionment could only be attributed to unpopular government policies, constant change, service conditions, large undisciplined classes and under-funded, dilapidated and overstretched schools. Additionally, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 357) state that recent research indicates that work intensification, lack of professional autonomy, moderate pay and constant media criticism correlated with low job satisfaction. Furthermore, according to McEwan (2003: xix, 25), principals in the USA are in a daily battle against mediocrity, low expectations, distrust and apathy due to frustrated, hurt, anger and disillusioned educators. Such negative attitudes are usually symptoms of deeper problems since people leadership highlights motivation, relationships, communication and EI (Heystek, 2008: 7; Covey, 2004: 184). This research aims to determine the prevailing level of EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction in South African schools and what can be done to improve on it.

Motivation and job satisfaction, as people-centred job-related attitudes based upon subjective interpretations of reality, are predominantly contextually determined. What people think, how they feel and what they do, are determined by the social context in which they are living (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004: 357). These factors are thus

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widely applicable to educators' work lives, development, institutional management, effectiveness and organisational behaviour (cf. 2.1) (Wright, 2006: 262; Evans, 1998: 3). According to McEwan (2003: 128) and Fourie (2006: 3, 106), research regarding job satisfaction is also important in education because education leaders should make discriminating research- and information-based decisions to prevent rushed judgments that only add further burdens to educators' lives without improving the effectiveness and motivation that encourages achievement and job satisfaction. The most important asset of organisations is after all, its loyal and committed employees with their different skills and talents as only satisfied employees can achieve goals.

Moreover, motivation and job satisfaction determine above all, the ability to employ and retain the best educators with the aim of improving organisational effectiveness by having them perform at their highest capability level (Woodruffe, 2006: 18; Collins, 2001: 54). This is crucial since the emotional and economic attachment to a job no longer exists because of the volatility of the global economy, socio-political trends and a skills shortage (Covey, 2004: 104; Lynch, 1998: 135 - 137).

Notwithstanding the fact that motivational leadership is the leader's responsibility, anybody who is able to influence the behaviour of another person is engaging in a leadership act (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 174). Leadership and motivation thus apply through the ranks to educators as well. Langley and Jacobs (2006: 11, 16) suggest that education leaders' success may be measured by their ability to motivate educators by influencing them to achieve a goal in such a way that it benefits education as a whole and not only an individual or the leader. To enable leaders to accomplish this, they need people- or interpersonal skills to activate and mobilise people. Principals should therefore, be leaders as well as managers and flexible, entrepreneurial risk takers to allow autonomy, involvement and creativity without micromanaging in order to create excitement that effectively motivates and makes systems work (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 171, 172; McEwan, 2003: 118; Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002: 318).

If education loses significant numbers of high-calibre professionals due to dissatisfaction, the profession will be seriously impoverished. The needs of highly qualified professionals should be accommodated by an educational and professional

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culture to prevent dissatisfaction and educators leaving the profession (Evans, 1998: 176). According to Covey (2004: 34, 61), Lincoln said: "the dogmas of the quiet past are inadequate to the stormy present". This quotation also applies to leadership and educator motivation and job satisfaction in South Africa. Leaders should move out of their comfort zones and develop a new mind- and skill-set to address reality. However, the problem is not to formulate innovative ideas, but to get the old ones out of your mind.

Evans (1998: 119) additionally distinguished personality, interpersonal relationships, vision and mission, professionality and management skills as a combination of five interrelated leader characteristics that have been particularly significant in influencing educator attitudes important to motivation and job satisfaction. As described in Chapter 2, the former could be explained by EI and leadership practices (Oosthuyse, 2006).

Evans (1998: 44, 72) furthermore quotes research by Nias, Galloway and Farrugia, that emphasises the importance of leadership as a motivator, or an equally powerful demotivator, in schools. Education leaders should bear in mind that perceptions of what is positive in their management, may differ from those of the educators or that may be interpreted in a totally different way. Moreover, Mol (2005: 52, 55) proposed that employees are only as good as their superiors as they set the pace, train and motivate their subordinates through motivational leadership that brings out the best in employees, inspire and make use of all employee abilities to be successful.

The abovementioned indicate many different factors that may influence motivation and job satisfaction. However, the complex concepts of motivation and job satisfaction should first be clearly conceptualised, and the different motivational theories investigated, before research can be undertaken and valid conclusions drawn regarding job satisfaction amongst educators.

3.2   CONCEPTUALISING JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction, a complex, multidimensional construct, has been extensively researched in industrial and corporate settings since the nineteenth century and more fully during World War II, in an effort to improve organisational and individual effectiveness. More than 10 000 studies have since been published (Compton, 2005: 219; Wright, 2006: 262, 263). However, there have been conceptual problems concerning defining and researching the under-researched, and often ignored, educator-specific job-satisfaction to determine the determinants thereof. These problems ranged from the relatively few definitions, a lack of consensus, ambiguity and disparity amongst definitions to inconsistent interpretations of existing definitions. The duality caused by the two unipolar traits – job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, no job satisfaction and no job dissatisfaction, as well as the separate but related satisfying, fulfilling and satisfactory elements, were also difficult concepts to decipher (Evans, 1998: 3 – 6, 8, 138). Job satisfaction furthermore, depended on whether a person sees a profession as just a job (financial earnings as most important), a career (achievement and competition motivates) or as a calling (social purpose) (MayoClinic, 2008: 1; Compton, 2005: 221).

Evans (1998: 11, 12) suggested the terms 'job comfort' and 'job fulfilment', as components of job satisfaction, to distinguish between factors which could or could not give educators a sense of achievement. Job comfort was, according to Evans, an indication to what extent educators were satisfied with, but not by, their job's circumstances and conditions. Job fulfilment referred to the educators' self-assessment, as well as others' assessment, of their performance and personal achievement regarding the job components they value. Job fulfilment, labelled 'job satisfaction' by Herzberg (cf. 3.4.3), was subsequently seen by Evans as an individual's subjective self-perceptions of achievement. Evans, as well as Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 48, 49) furthermore draw a link between Maslow's lower- and higher-order needs: job comfort includes the lower-order job-related needs fulfilment while job fulfilment, the higher-order needs fulfilment of a job. Job satisfaction is therefore seen by Evans (1998: 12) as "a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his/her job-related needs to be met". Job satisfaction is furthermore, according to Evans

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(1998: 39, 40), the individual's need to realise his/her concept of his/her ideal self and in a work-specific sense, the ideal-self-at-work.

Carmeli's (2003: 792) research concluded job satisfaction or dissatisfaction to be emotional reactions, feelings or affective responses to facets of the job. Wright (2006: 262), as well as Vakola and Nicolaou (2005: 162) agreed with the latter when they defined job satisfaction as attitudes or an individual's feelings, thoughts and predispositions to behave in positive or negative ways towards specific environmental stimuli or situations, particularly change. Although there could be close relationships between attitudes such as job satisfaction and behaviour, an attitude-behaviour relationship is not clear-cut. Attitudes and behaviour are expected to be consistent with each other. However, this is not always the case because attitudes and behavioural intentions do not always lead to actual behaviours. Moreover, behaviours can influence attitudes and a bad incident; for instance with a leader, could contribute to the formation of negative attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 331).

Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 48), Sahinidis and Bouris (2008: 64), as well as Lund (2003: 220) regard job satisfaction as an affective reaction or positive emotional state to a job resulting from the incumbent's appraisal of the relationship between what he/she desires from a job and what he/she perceives it as offering. Motivation and job satisfaction may thus create positive emotions and attitudes towards a job, which can not only improve effectiveness and productivity when accumulated, but also the physical and psychological health of educators and pro-social behaviour. These positive moods could also influence colleagues' and customers' evaluation of being helping, generous and empathetic. Moreover, people experiencing positive emotions tend to be more flexible, creative and innovative (Compton, 2005: 220). However, emotions are not synonymous with job satisfaction and could be seen as two distinct constructs. Job satisfaction is "a set of attitudes towards work that may or may not include affective feelings" (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002: 321, 322). Additionally, almost no research has been done on exactly which emotions comprise the emotional reaction called job satisfaction (Compton, 2005: 219). Oshagbemi (2003: 1210) additionally included the achievement of job values and valued outcomes received as important towards attaining job satisfaction.

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Carmeli additionally, mentioned research, for instance Grandey (2000), George (2000), Wolf *et al.* (2002) and Goleman (1998) who indicated job satisfaction to be related to EI and leadership, as well as the affective commitment of employees to the job that forms the basis for employee wellbeing at work. Oshagbemi (2003: 1210) furthermore argues that the majority of the job satisfaction theories do not take individual differences into account. Emotional awareness is therefore of particular importance regarding job satisfaction, since job satisfaction, as a positive emotional state and behaviour towards work, is the fulfilment of needs that should be recognised through self- and social awareness. Leaders' actions and awareness of emotions consequently play an important role in creating and fulfilling those created needs, since motivation and job satisfaction are inseparable and integrated (Bohloko, 1999: 11 – 14; Pii, 2003: 1, 3; Rantekoa, 2004: 6 – 11). The latter can only be satisfied if leaders are aware of employees' needs and emotions.

The abovementioned definitions clearly indicate job satisfaction to be a multidimensional concept based on the interdependent relationship between motivation, job satisfaction and emotions. From the current literature, it may thus be concluded that job satisfaction entails:

- The fulfilment of physical and/or psychological needs which enhance positive emotions and thus attitudes towards the job;
- Positive attitudes/emotions emanating from the individual's evaluation or perceptions of the job or specific aspects of a job in an organisational context and/or leadership behaviours in relation to expectancies; and
- Positive emotions, attitudes or states of mind towards work and need-fulfilling positive interpersonal relationships that fulfil the need to belong and be worthwhile and valued.

The majority of researchers furthermore argue that there is an undeniable relationship between motivation, job satisfaction and employee commitment, since job satisfaction is unattainable without being motivated (Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008: 63). The most significant motivational theories will thus be discussed.

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3.3 CONCEPTUALISING MOTIVATION

Although motivation is not as under-researched as job satisfaction, Evans (1998: 32, 34) found that there were even fewer definitions of motivation to be found, than for job satisfaction. An additional problem is that many definitions, for instance those of Vroom and Atkinson, either describe or explain applications of the term 'motivation' without actually defining the concept of motivation as an attitude or state of mind.

Evans (1998: 34, 40) defined motivation as "a condition, or creation of a condition, that encompasses all those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity". Evans emphasised that motivation is an inclination towards activity and not activity itself. Motivation is therefore regarded by Evans as the aspiration or drive towards job satisfaction that induces a tendency towards activity or participation in activities that appear to gravitate towards ideal-oriented goals to satisfy needs. Conversely, a demotivator is seen as reluctance towards such an activity.

Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn (2004: 108, 109, 184) postulated that humans are naturally motivated and shaped by personal need fulfilment and not to meet the needs of others. These needs could include interaction, esteem, time and psychological and physical needs. These authors furthermore define motivation "as the desire, excitement, or enthusiasm to be the best or get ahead – the achievement ethic".

Another rather simplistic, manipulative and transactional view of motivation is that of Van Deventer and Kruger (2003: 148, 149) who defined motivation as "influencing of a subordinate to achieve the aim that the manager wants him to achieve." These authors clarify the latter by seeing motivation as a driving force and process that is dependent on the two elements of goal-directed behaviour: Firstly, people's needs as behaviour initiated by a physiological imbalance and secondly, people's aim to fulfil those unsatisfied needs. They also distinguish between putting into motion and motivation: someone is motivated to carry out a task if they enjoy doing it and will put a bit of extra effort and time into their work.

Contrary to the abovementioned, Collins (2001: 89, 125) suggested that motivation could be a waste of time and energy. His point of view is that if an organisation has the

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right people in the right positions, they will be self-motivated and self-disciplined. The key would then be to manage the system, not the people. People management would de-motivate them, primarily by ignoring the facts of reality as seen in bureaucratic organisations. Bipath (2008: 59, 60) and Covey (2004: 247) regard this appointment of the right people in the right positions as vital, because great things and breakthroughs cannot be achieved without quality people.

From what has been said above, it is clear that motivation is to influence people to engage in activities that may lead to personal need satisfaction. This is achieved by putting people in positions that fit their personal and psychological disposition, that enable them to develop their full potential and excel in jobs while satisfying their physical, psychological and emotional needs. The different motivational theories that attempt to explain the attainment of these needs will now be discussed.

3.3.1   Motivational theories

Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 929, 930) posed the questions: What motivates employees to excel in their job and contribute time, effort and ideas? To find an answer to this question different motivational theories, expounded by the major researchers into motivation, should be investigated. Theories that attempted to explain human behaviour range from Taylorism that viewed people as lazy, work-shy and motivated by external stimulation only, to those who focused on only internal or internal and external stimulation. The latter are the theories of Maslow (1954), Alderfer (1972), Herzberg (1959), Vroom (1964), McClelland (1961) and Locke (1981). These theories will therefore be discussed.

3.3.1.1   Maslow's needs hierarchy

Maslow's needs hierarchy (1954), according to Compton (2005: 161, 162), Van Deventer and Kruger (2003: 150, 151), as well as Evans (1998: 35, 36), is one of the most widely known and influential motivation theories based on the assertion that needs or desires underpin motivation. These needs, as identified by Maslow, in a hierarchy from lower order to higher order needs, are as follows: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs (belonging and love needs) as the lower-order or

deficiency needs, while esteem or ego needs and the need for self-actualisation comprise the higher order or personal growth needs. These needs are furthermore satisfied incrementally, but not completely or permanently, from the lowest to the higher order, resulting in a succession of unsatisfied needs. The latter motivates perpetual actions taken to achieve satisfaction.

According to Compton (2005: 162), Maslow (1968, 1971) saw self-actualising people as being motivated more by the needs for truth, justice, meaningfulness, wholeness and goodness than by the lower-order needs. Self-actualisation, according to Maslow, causes tension between a secure current known situation and the risk of change to potential personal growth.

The relevance of Maslow's theory regarding motivation and job satisfaction lies in the fact that even if the lower order physiological needs are satisfied, employees will neither be motivated nor experience job satisfaction and excel if education leaders do not allow them to develop a healthy self-esteem and create opportunities for self-actualisation.

The self-esteem needs may be fulfilled by inclusion in decision-making and goal-setting, as well as ability utilisation, recognition, personal development, mentoring and compensation as recognition of growth and achievement. Self-actualisation needs may be satisfied by participation in goal-setting and decision-making, in opportunities and support for career and professional development, provision for innovative and risk-taking opportunities, supportive leadership, independence and incentives to reward outstanding performance (Bipath, 2008: 80). The latter is an indication of the need for the EI competencies of emotional awareness, the understanding and use of emotions an emotional management to be successful leaders that allow the job and environment to be need fulfilling (cf. 2.6; 2.7).

Many motivational theories, many based on Maslow's theory, have been touted. One of these theories is that of Alderfer.

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3.3.1.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer's theory is based on Maslow's theory but refers more specific to organisational settings with a different categorisation of hierarchical progressive needs. Three needs categories were identified by Aldefer: existence needs (Maslow's physiological and some safety needs), relatedness needs concerning interpersonal relationships (Maslow's belongingness and love) and growth needs regarding personal and professional development (Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation). Alderfer further proposed that more than one category of need satisfaction may be pursued at the same time and that if one need is repeatedly frustrated a person would focus more on the other needs (Bipath, 2008: 81; Evans, 1998: 36).

In addition to Maslow's, Alderfer's theory emphasises the importance of interpersonal relationships. For Maslow, personal growth that enhances employees' self-esteem and self-actualisation are seen as central in motivation and consequently in job satisfaction. EI leaders are capable of sensing individual needs, tailor jobs and treat educators in ways that satisfy those needs that form the basis of motivation towards job satisfaction.

Another major influential motivation and job satisfaction theory that is often linked to Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy, is that of Herzberg (Mau, Ellsworth & Hawley, 2008: 48).

3.3.1.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Many authors, including Bipath (2008: 82), Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 930), as well as Evans (1998: 6), view Herzberg's (1958) somewhat contentious motivation-hygiene, or two-factor theory, to be still regarded as a key motivational theory. The content theory of Herzberg includes and distinguishes between concepts and the separate interacting internal and external stimuli that contribute to satisfaction and dissatisfaction through work content and job design that motivate people to greater success and job satisfaction.

According to Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 49), Bipath (2008: 82, 83), van Deventer and Kruger (2003: 151), Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 932, 933), as well as Evans (1998: 7, 36, 143), Herzberg's internal motivational factors of achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement (career progress) and opportunities for personal growth in the work itself could lead to superior performance and sustained effort in order to achieve job satisfaction. The absence of these factors tends to create no job satisfaction, rather dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors or external motivators, on the other hand; to be exact; salary, supervision, interpersonal relationships, personal life and job conditions reflect the job context and determine how satisfactory a job is considered to be, but are incapable of creating job satisfaction. Except for hygiene seekers, the hygiene factors are thus unable to motivate but may create dissatisfaction. The hygiene factors additionally fail to provide satisfaction by giving a sense of growth by accomplishing meaningful tasks. The motivators and hygiene factors could furthermore not be represented on a uniscalar continuum where a neutral state of neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction prevails. The aforementioned indicate, according to Evans (1998: 143), that separate but related components could be discerned regarding motivation and job satisfaction, contrary to the previously accepted single concept, but this was not explicitly defined as such by Herzberg.

In answer to his critics, Herzberg (1987, in Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 933) draws a critical distinction between motivation and movement. Movement is a biological drive to avoid pain incurred by the environment, together with conditioned learned needs to satisfy basic biological needs. These externally stimulated incentives are however, often unwittingly promoted by management as motivators when a task is completed to derive certain benefits. For an employee to become justly motivated, it should however be internally generated drives that motivate from within the individual.

Mol (2005: 6, 7) additionally posits that this movement caused by external motivators or hygiene factors, for example incentives, may either entail a 'push' movement from the back or a 'pull' situation from the front. To push may include physical abuse, which is seldom seen today or through subtle threats of dire consequences if work is not done acceptably. To pull with the 'carrot and stick' animal psychology, or push with the stick motivational philosophy, is often utilised when lower level employees are promised time off or promotion. Neither of the former is enjoyed by, nor motivates,

employees, they were just moved by the external hygiene factors to do as little as possible without getting into trouble (Covey, 2004: 16, 250).

Evans (1998: 143) furthermore suggested that the five motivators of Herzberg may be reduced to *achievement* as the one key job satisfaction factor. Evans argued that the other four factors are "either contributors to and/or reinforcers of achievement". For instance: recognition, as a form of feedback, confirms that the work done was of a high standard and thus may give rise to a sense of achievement that induces job satisfaction. The same goes for advancement and responsibility that do not afford job satisfaction in themselves, but the sense of achievement that may be contributed to them.

Based on her research, Evans (1998: 144, 146) does not agree with Herzberg that the removal of dissatisfiers, mostly hygiene factors, should lead to job satisfaction as it does not take job comfort and contextual constraints into account. Evans also disagrees with Herzberg insofar that the hygiene factors of salary, relationships and supervision, are not capable of satisfying since Herzberg "fails to recognise the ambiguity of job satisfaction in its widest sense". Individuals furthermore are predisposed to give prominence to and exaggerate the unsatisfactory tangible hygiene characteristics of their job rather than the satisfiers that are sometimes taken for granted. This ambiguity is supported by Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 361) who found that educators in Cyprus, who became educators because of external motivators, were more satisfied than those who were intrinsically motivated. According to Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 49) some studies suggest that educators view intrinsic satisfiers as more important, while other studies find a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfiers to be predictors of educator job satisfaction. The latter implies that EI education leaders should take individual differences into account and apply both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators to enrich the jobs of educators to facilitate motivation and to utilise the full potential of educators to enhance their job satisfaction.

Herzberg's theory has triggered many studies regarding motivation and job satisfaction. The results of these studies have varied according to the research methods used. The most powerful critique of Herzberg's theory was offered by Vroom in 1964 (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 933).

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3.3.1.4 Vroom's expectancy theory

In his critique on Herzberg's theory, Vroom (1964) was the first exponent of process or expectancy theory to consider how internal personal factors result in different behaviours. This theory assumes that people have expectations about outcomes, the result of specific behaviours and that they have different preferred outcomes or rewards. Vroom furthermore postulated that when a recall methodology was deployed, in which respondents were asked to indicate the sources of dissatisfaction, ego defences may well be invoked which may give rise to biased responses that attribute sources of satisfaction to personal achievement and capabilities (Bassett- Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 930, 933; Pii, 2003: 33).

Vroom's expectancy theory, according to Ashkanasy, Hartel and Daus (2002: 317), as well as Evans (1998: 37, 39), viewed behaviour as subjectively rational, calculative, logical, and conscious, focusing on choices aimed at reaching desired outcomes, while attempting to avoid the undesired. Vroom thus contended that motivation is chosen behaviour determined by valence as an affective orientation towards preferred and valued outcomes or activities and expectancies based on logical information, thereby confirming the significance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Evans however rightfully criticises Vroom's theory for not taking unconscious motives and habitual behaviour into account, but she acknowledges that research evidence consistent with Vroom's theory has emerged.

In contrast to Herzberg, Vroom and other supporters of the expectancy theory such as Mabey (1998), suggested financial incentives to be a critical motivator, as seen in most bureaucratic systems. Research by Bassett-Jones and Lloyd however, found the former "to be largely, although not entirely, erroneous". It thus confirmed Herzberg's theory to a large extent that motivators related to intrinsic drivers outweigh movers such as remuneration and observing others benefiting from recognition and other extrinsic rewards (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 938, 939).

EI leaders are able to integrate their and educator's emotional and rational mind in order to influence educators to achieve outcomes according to the educator's expectations that may be motivating and enhance job satisfaction.

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Another influential motivational theory is McClelland's achievement motivation theory.

3.3.1.5 McClelland's learned needs theory

McClelland's theory proposed that specific needs originate from learning through life experiences from a young age, which could become personal predispositions. These predispositions influence a person's attitudes, perspectives on and orientation towards work. These needs were, according to McClelland: achievement, affiliation and power. Since organisations want their employees to achieve, the need for achievement is critical for success (Bipath, 2008: 81; Evans, 1998: 37).

Bipath (2008: 81) suggested that the need for achievement in combination with the need for power could result in assertive behaviours and leadership styles. The need for achievement is, as a result, characterised by strong personal responsibility and discipline, goal-setting, risk-taking to reach these goals, the desire for concrete performance feedback and a strong drive to accomplish tasks successfully. Independence, non-conformity and a lack of collective allegiance and collegial feelings are characteristics of the need for autonomy associated with the achievement need. The affiliation need on the other hand, relates to a desire to make friends and establish and maintain sound interpersonal relationships. The need for power is characterised by a need to exert control over and influence others as manifested in a desire to control people through a leader-follower relationship, as well as control over resources and the environment (Bipath, 2008: 81; Evans, 1998: 37).

The western managerial elite prefer this rational economic theory of McClelland as it corresponds with their worldview, but that Taylorised view is usually not shared by the worker class at the bottom of the hierarchy. In addition, the western emphasis on individualism and achievement could be problematic in South Africa's cultural and ethnical diverse schools (Bipath, 2008: 81; Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 938). Other theories mentioned by Bipath (2008: 81, 82), Pii (2003: 37), as well van Deventer and Kruger (2003: 152, 153) include: post enrichment, the goal-setting theory of Locke, the equity approach of Adams, Bersheid and Walster and Hull's positive reinforcement theory, which forms part of many motivational techniques.

Common factors underpinning all the abovementioned motivational theories involve achievement, relationships, self-actualisation and self-esteem as primary needs that activate people to behave in specific ways to satisfy the needs that could affect job satisfaction. EI leadership plays a significant role regarding the latter, as it is imperative for education leaders to meet expectations in order to satisfy educator needs and motivate them to be totally involved and committed. The realms of job satisfaction and its links to motivation will be more thoroughly investigated in the rest of this chapter.

3.4   THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATION LEADER IN ENHANCING JOB SATISFACTION

3.4.1   Introduction

From the motivational theories mentioned and the definitions of job satisfaction, it should be clear that education leaders should motivate educators by particularly fulfilling their higher order psychological needs before job satisfaction can be experienced. Compton (2005: 221) refers to researchers such as Goleman (1995) and Salovey, Meyers and Caruso, 2002) who found that EI leadership could be one of the most important contributors to job satisfaction.

Regarding the latter, Heystek (2008: 7) and Covey (2004: 250) proposed that the problem is that most organisations are more often than not "overmanaged and underled". Leadership is about people and accordingly central in job satisfaction, since it has explicit links to the internal and external motivational factors (Maxwell, 2005: 219; Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 230). Motivation and job satisfaction begin with leadership that builds or affirms educators and puts people first through care, understanding and authenticity. With a satisfied workforce, the rest should fall into place (McEwan, 2003: 53, 54). Motivation and job satisfaction do not only endeavour to allow people to feel like winners, but let them be winners (Mol, 2005: 5).

According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 358) cross-cultural studies indicate that the majority of educators derive satisfaction from working with children and from

learners' responsiveness and enthusiasm. Successful teaching experiences, such as motivating learners to reach their potential and experience success, as well as working with and for people additionally contribute to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction may consequently be greatly influenced by interpersonal relationships between staff and particularly the day-to-day relationships with principals and their recognition, praise and leadership style, especially consensual decision-making. The latter is directly opposed to the utilitarian cognitive judgement approaches that ignore the attitudes and emotions of employees. Favouritism however, adds a whimsical dimension to management when only certain favourites are consulted and praised more frequently than others (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002: 317; Evans, 1998: 97, 98).

Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 358, 359) reported that the Teacher 2000 project in the USA and studies in Australia, England and New Zealand found the intrinsic motivators of achievement, recognition, responsibility and a sense of personal power to be motivational and thus affect job satisfaction. Moreover, educators who persisted were significantly more intrinsically motivated and satisfied (Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley, 2008: 51). Evans (1998: 119; 144, 145, 159), as well as Langley and Jacobs's (2006: 3, 25 – 29) research additionally revealed additional fundamental characteristics of motivational leadership namely: understanding, keen foresight, insightfulness, a compelling vision and mission, enthusiasm, individualism, awareness, interest, risk-taking, flexibility and direction as leadership and EI competencies that may contribute to effectiveness, motivation and job satisfaction. The education leader's personality and strong interpersonal skills, for example being able to empathise, encourage and trust others enough to delegate, professionality and management skills were additional competencies that may contribute to job satisfaction. Evans also proposed that a parallel could be drawn between people management by the education leader and classroom management.

In addition to the abovementioned, Woodruffe (2006: 19), Whitacker (2003: 8, in Sigford, 2005: 11) and McEwan (2003: xx, xxi) suggest that the most important non-financial motivators that may contribute to motivation and job satisfaction are: the leader's ethics, actions and high expectations, encouragement, sense of humour, reflection and knowledge. Career advancement, the degree of real autonomy, civilised treatment without "kicks downwards", employer commitment, a pleasant working

environment, exposure to and being noticed by senior management, praise when it is due, and support are additional contributors to job satisfaction. Challenging tasks and the feeling of working on something worthwhile, the feeling of being trusted and working for a good and reliable organisation, where sensitivity towards a work/life balance prevails, furthermore contribute to motivation and job satisfaction, whereas contextual factors that hamper and discourage educators should be removed. Educator potential should also be developed through personal and professional development that takes different professional development needs into account (McEwan, 2003: xxx, xxxi). The former is the underpinning of people-centred leadership that makes a difference in the lives of all stakeholders. However, Evans (1998: 128) found that some leaders focus solely on the lower external needs or motivators and do not reach the higher levels of internal motivation through their leadership styles and daily behaviours so as to attain job satisfaction amongst educators (cf. 3.4.3).

McEwan (2003: xxx, xxxi, 133, 134, 144) furthermore sees communication as the basis of motivation and job satisfaction, but adds that principals should also be facilitators, envisioners, culture and character builders and therefore be of sound character. Character is of particular importance as it is ingrained habits that are difficult to change. Character reflects the consistent morality, ethics, values, integrity, trustworthiness, dependability, honesty, respect, responsibility, perseverance, fairness, generosity, humility and care of the school leaders as role models. Character and communication are therefore pivotal in enhancing motivation and job satisfaction as they determine the nature of the psychological work environment and behaviour through the messages of what is acceptable as perceived by the staff. Weare (2004: 140) furthermore sees an EI school climate and environment that improves motivation and job satisfaction to be warm, empathetic and people centred where educators are involved through excellent communication. According to Carmeli (2003: 788), the abovementioned management skills should be incorporated in management strategy, management practice and the different management styles to effectively engage educators to be involved in and committed to their jobs to improve their attitudes, performance, counter withdrawal intentions and to improve motivation and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the previously mentioned factors, which may have a positive influence on job satisfaction, coincide with Caruso and Salovey's (2004: 196, 202), as well as Kouzes and Postner's (1996) five keys to successful leadership namely**:** 1. *modelling how you want others to act* on your values; 2. *inspiring a shared vision*; 3. *challenging the usual processes* for getting things done – innovate; 4. *enabling others to act –* collaboration and power sharing; 5. *encourage the heart –* encouraging others and recognising the contribution and accomplishments of others in a spirit of community.

Research by Olivier and Venter (2003: 186), Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005: 266), as well as Monteith, Smith and Marais (2001: 88 – 91) found low salaries, unmotivated colleagues, overtime and extra-curricular activities, prescribed methodology, administration, too little personal time and a lack of participative decision-making as factors that influence educator job satisfaction in South Africa. These researchers furthermore found that the few possibilities for promotion or growth, a lack of trust in their professional competencies and declining respect for the profession also emerged as reasons for educator dissatisfaction, stress and burnout later in their careers. These indicators of a system that does not take educators' needs and quality of life into account, are mainly beaurocratic and task-orientated and do not take personal and interpersonal relationships in a balanced life into account. This implies a leadership problem and/or low EI amongst education leaders and may also originate from the government's apparent neo-liberalistic transfer of power to schools but nevertheless control schools through managerialistic centralised tools that do not take people leadership into account and may cause educators to vote with their feet (Heystek, 2008: 10, 13, 16).

The former is very important regarding job satisfaction for the reason that Ashforth and Saks (2002: 344) suggest that goal-incongruent events, which prevent educators from reaching their goals, elicit stronger negative emotions than congruent emotions do towards positive emotions. Warren (2003: 23 – 25, 173) also claims that what seems to happen to people externally is not as important as their internal emotions. The effect of those internal emotions and thoughts is a most important motivator. People tend to be motivated by different internalised, and often invisible, negative emotions such as guilt, anger, resentment, expectancies, materialism and an overwhelming need for acceptance, appreciation and recognition by others. McEwan (2003: 30) in addition,

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identified institutional restraints and a lack of understanding as enormous barriers to innovation and job satisfaction in education. This implies that a person's reaction may be stronger to negative events that prevent us from fulfilling our basic needs and if people are motivated by negative emotions they are not focused on worthwhile goals in their lives.

Evans's (1998: 138, 139, 141) research additionally emphasised that educator motivation and job satisfaction is contextually determined and that school-specific factors, for example management, leadership and collegiality, supersede pay, the National Curriculum or departmental policies in the attitudinal effects on educators. School-specific factors that emanate from the school itself, particularly a sense of significant achievement, have more influence on job satisfaction as it is at the context-specific level that constitutes educators' working lives. Centrally initiated factors that emanate from outside the school, may become relevant as soon as it they are contextualised and operational in everyday work. Evans (1998: 13, 14, 88) identified eight stages in the subjective process of an individual achieving job satisfaction, as well as constraints that impede achieving job satisfaction. The latter includes a positive evaluation of his/her own contribution that gives a sense of significant achievement and job fulfilment. Impediments to job satisfaction are the impaired vision of leadership, inadequate pedagogical and/or curriculum knowledge and awareness, as well as illogical decision-making by management.

To lead effective lives the former goal incongruent practices and constraints should be addressed to enable educators to concentrate their energy on specifically and consciously selected constructive goals to create a passion for what they are doing (Warren, 2003: 27, 28). According to Kovess (1997) only passionate people produce. Accurate self-awareness and emotional management are needed for leaders to accept who they are, accept differences in personalities and discover their and others' potential and passion in generating purposeful goals that create enthusiasm for a job.

McEwan (2003:161) saw the most important lesson education leaders should master to make a difference in education as: "It's all about the teachers and the students and the parents. You are essential to the life of the school only insofar as you make a contribution to the effectiveness of others." Leaders should thus be modest and

understated by rather being a "plough horse than a show horse" and not attributing success to personal greatness (Collins, 2001: 39). McEwan furthermore refers to Barth (2000: x) who posited that educational leaders are not leaders if they are not experienced as a leader by the educators, learners and parents. Education leaders who are unable to achieve the former are not effective leaders and are unable to motivate educators in ways that may contribute to job satisfaction. The literature on leadership and motivation; for instance that of Hersey and Blanchard (1993), attests that motivation is primarily influenced by the relationship between the leader and employees (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 937). Mol (2005: 63) came to the conclusion that motivational leaders are able to meet the expectations and needs of employees.

Many education leaders are unaware of the extent to which their leadership influences educator attitudes, motivation and job satisfaction. Other education leaders may be aware but do not have the time or the inclination to grant educators such positive leadership. Inadequate leadership and preoccupation with administration such as managerialism, lacking purpose, personal decision-making, praise, appreciation, need satisfaction, motivation and direction, that frustrate educators and generate dissatisfaction, should be addressed. If the child-centred approach is to succeed in schools, an educator-centred people management philosophy and approach should be applied (Heystek, 2008: 9; Evans, 1998: 159, 160). Research indicates that effective ethical leadership practices that improve motivation and job satisfaction can be acquired through repetitive use to become firmly ingrained habits (McEwan, 2003: xxi). This implies that the determinants of motivation and job satisfaction should be included and actively applied in the leadership tasks of planning, organising, leading and control in order to make a difference. The aforementioned is an indication of the importance of effective education leaders to facilitate, model and lead in democratic innovative schools (McEwan, 2003: xxi).

Regarding the former, Mol (2005: 8, 9, 48) proposed that managers deserve their employees insofar as they build them up or break them down by putting processes before people. Those who are treated badly function at a minimum level; they do less than expected, not because they are inherently bad or lazy, but because they are human. Whereas if employees are treated well, fairly and with respect, they mostly function at an expected or higher level and complete tasks efficiently (Covey, 2004:

101, 293) suggests that in order to understand organisational behaviour, human nature and behaviour should be understood – organisations are, after all, created to serve human needs. According to Sergiovanni (2000: 166 in Sigford, 2005:16) "schools need special leadership because school professionals don't react warmly to the kind of hierarchically based command leadership or hero leadership that characterises so many other kinds of organisations."

The question thus arises as to what education leaders may do to motivate educators to function at a maximum level where they do more than what is expected of them while experiencing job satisfaction? From the above, it transpires that education leaders should provide a special kind of leadership by accounting for a variety of educator-specific job satisfaction determinants. This part of the chapter will now focus on how principals as education leaders may contribute to improved job satisfaction by optimising these determinants.

3.4.2 Educator-centred leadership towards job satisfaction

Educators come to schools with specific needs, capabilities and expectations, hoping to find an environment where those abilities may be utilised and their needs satisfied (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 11) by engagement in value-based activities that make them feel valued, appreciated and part of the organisation (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 174). A reality shock often ensues when the job does not meet their expectations (Dean, Ferris & Konstans, 1984: 27).

Since leadership is an enabling art (Covey, 2004: 100), successful leaders, particularly transformational leaders, could curb this shock and add to intellectual stimulation, creativity, trust, confidence, integrity and ability utilisation that keep educators busy with meaningful and challenging tasks, responsibility and accountability through delegation and shared decision-making as power-sharing. These characteristics may augment internal commitment, cooperation, motivation, job satisfaction and influence in view of the fact that they empower, inspire and utilise potential to fulfil the needs and expectations for freedom to choose, personal growth, power, self-expression and identify with pride for their job (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 11, 74; Prins, 2006: 109, 125; Bodine and Crawford, 1999: 185). Flow is usually experienced when high skills are

matched with high challenges, which could be the key to job satisfaction. Employees, as well as employers, should as a consequence, focus on strengths and develop them instead of weaknesses (Compton, 2005: 221, 223). To effectively empower, engage and utilise the educator's strengths and develop his/her leadership, education leaders should have a vision of the future, where they are heading and focus on priorities.

3.4.2.1   Creating a vision

Leadership and motivation are about emotional arousal to achieve excellence through positive emotions created by an inspiring and mutually shared vision, based on the dreams and expectations others will choose to follow, to emotionally connect and identify with, whilst serving another in the pursuance of organisational objectives. Management conversely is about getting things done, about systems and structures and about control. People can be managed but they function at a much higher level if led (Niemann, 2008: 22; Prins, 2006: 110, 112; Maxwell, 2005: 117, 122; Covey, 2004: 100, 123, 127, 235, 317).

Education leaders should create and communicate a provocative and challenging shared vision which enables them and the educators to have a purpose or goal and focus on where they are heading. From this a positive work environment is created, enhanced relationships are nurtured and a higher performance results through the realisation of human potential. People who believe in their leaders usually accept what their leaders believe in – a leader's character determines the trust of their staff in them (Maxwell, 2005: 42, 71, 250 255; McEwan, 2003: 49). Evans (1998: 124) considers the vision of leaders to be beliefs, values and moral authority that guide the direction of the school which is realised through its organisational culture.

An attainable, principled, ethical vision and mission, as a strategic plan, empowers as it should be developed collectively, understood and believed, in using the best from all stakeholders' ideas. The vision communicated reflects the conscience, values and moral authority of the education leader without being self-centred. In other words, a strategic vision is proactive as it envisions great potential to accomplish what others cannot yet see. Moreover, a realistic vision of greatness is needed for true educator empowerment as it inspires, affirms, creates a passion for and emotional commitment

to education, expands views and join needs, talents and possibilities. Most importantly, a vision should not only be communicated to all stakeholders, but made practicable in the school. Principals should furthermore refine a realistic and attainable long- and short-term vision, with the cooperation and commitment of all stakeholders, to take a school from good to great (Pearce, Conger & Locke, 2007: 282; Covey, 2004: 26, 65, 66, 72, 156, 221; McEwan, 2003: 51; Collins, 2001: 1, 20, 71). This is confirmed by Maxwell (2005: 75) who found that if the vision of middle level managers does not correspond with the leaders' vision, the result is usually low job satisfaction, since middle managers play a critical role in leadership (Pearce, Conger & Locke, 2007: 283).

To realise the specific goals portrayed in the vision and mission, educators should be empowered to achieve these goals through observable support, shared decision-making, motivation, continuous encouragement, shared enthusiasm and by delegating tasks. Resentment and dissatisfaction is the result if principals fail in their responsibility to give direction and tangible support to individual educators and the school as a whole (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 20). According to Collins's (2001: 13, 87, 91) hedgehog concept, a vision should rather focus on one significant, central and essential concept or unifying vision, which may be accomplished to be motivational, rather than many extraordinary fragmented ideas that are not accomplished in the end.

Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 49) empirically linked envisioned goals to satisfaction. Self-efficacy, as a person's judgment of their capabilities, favourable expectations and access to support and resources enhances progression towards the realisation of these envisioned goals. EI thus plays an important role in determining the individual's personal needs and reactions to fulfil these needs through delegation and power-sharing, while effectively managing diversity in the workforce. Social awareness should afford leaders the aptitude and experience needed to nurture and value differences and discover the needs, strengths and weaknesses of their employees, so that they focus on their and others' strengths and triumph over weaknesses. For that reason, a leader's thinking should embrace a wider context and be other-centred, instead of being self-centred with a personal agenda (Maxwell, 2005: 119, 143; Warren, 2003: 217, 262). Delegation therefore includes diversity

within a milieu of interconnected intentions and values to create synergy in and add value to organisations by overcoming cultural, religious and social divides (Maxwell, 2005: 137).

Education leaders should therefore create a shared vision of the goals the school aspires to achieve and assist in focusing the educators' energy and efforts on these goals. These goals should be practically achievable to inspire educators to realise their full potential and achieve greatness as well as job satisfaction. Without vision a school will perish. A vision should however consider individual differences among educators when delegating responsibilities so that their leadership is developed and empowered.

3.4.2.2   Empowering educators through delegation

Commitment-oriented, accountable, credible, empathetic and ethically principled management and leadership practices with clear goal setting that generate creative excitement, where education leaders are genuinely committed to accept, understand, trust, support and serve educators and their careers, could be responsible for a remarkable difference in educator performance due to empowerment that releases human potential (Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008: 66; Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Covey, 2004: 98, 111, 130). Few things increase a leader's credibility as much as adding value to employees by allowing them to grow personally and achieve success (Maxwell, 2005: 171, 173). Continuous personal improvement is, after all, the only job security in today's work environment. By delegating meaningful tasks that empower educators, education leaders do not work harder, but smarter, since positive thinkers usually expect and achieve positive results while enriching the lives, commitment and engagement of their staff without enlarging their workload (Blanchard, 1999: 24, 115, 124).

Commitment and the engagement of talented people, courage, pride, trust and its associated positive attitudes are furthermore, a major determinant of successful organisational change, goal setting, initiative and a sense of self-worth, motivation and attaining job satisfaction (Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005: 163, 167). According to Mol (2005: 10, 11, 14), it is also significant that if the work itself is not a

source of pride, employees will never be motivated – only moved. Employees are only be motivated, committed and engaged if performing the task evokes a sense of honour and pride in them. This is only possible when employees are proud of their achievements and respected by others, particularly management. Effective leaders prepare to make the most of the former by discovering the strengths of each individual and delegating tasks accordingly. Calling on the honour and pride of under-performing employees is often a more effective form of discipline than threats, as it puts employees under a psychological and emotional duty to improve.

Covey (2004: 133) suggested that educators should be engaged to take the initiative because it is a form of self-empowerment and self-direction to self-encouragement and to creating their own positive feedback. According to Goleman (1995: 95), engagement and empowerment may lead to self-motivation as an intrinsically rewarding experience. However, this may be blocked by negative experiences such as anxiety, fear, or depression (Priest & Gass, 2005: 43; Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 42).

For delegation and empowerment to be motivational, it should be planned to give the best people the best opportunities; not dump the biggest problems on them. Challenging assignments, the execution of which would make employees feel useful and trusted, should be delegated in order to empower them. A very effective approach to delegation and empowerment could be: 'crawl, walk, run' according to the experience and capabilities of the individual thereby building momentum in a cumulative process that adds up to progressive sustained and inspiring achievements and confidence (Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Collins, 2001: 63, 163). Personal growth (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 935), without a work- or capability overload (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005: 168) that shows what employees are capable of accomplishing will be realised (Mol, 2005: 63).

To empower educators, education leaders should have what Covey (1998: 103, 297, 299, 317) calls an abundance mentality which implies that leaders should have humility, integrity, ethical principles, a strong sense of personal worth and inner security in sharing trust, responsibility, credit and recognition. Thus, they will inspire others without feeling threatened by others' success and act in a true, trusted servant-leader fashion. Without trust and an abundance mentality, TQM or quality service is

impossible. The latter enables leaders to trust and respect other people and their differences to achieve higher purposes beyond themselves. Effective principals know that by serving others through sharing power, affirming others, support and delegation, they will not be impoverished, thereby having a greater and more positive stimulating impact on their school (Maxwell, 2005: 56; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004: 358; McEwan, 2003: 64).

It is not only educators who benefit from empowerment. McEwan (2003: 97) and Fourie (2006: 25) believe those educators who are actively involved, empowered, satisfied and connected impact on learners to be more successful academically and intellectually developed. Moreover, the latter may contribute to the sense of recognition and encourage achievement amongst educators. Furthermore, empowerment occurs not only through delegation, but through shared decision-making which is a major component of empowerment.

Research by Covey (2004: 256) found impediments to empowerment to be: leaders who are afraid to let go, misaligned systems, leader and employee lack of skills, leaders who are too busy and too controlling, employees who lack integrity or who do not want responsibility, a lack of vision and managers who are not trusted by employees. A lack of trust could be the result if unwanted work is dumped on unsuspecting employees or when leaders are afraid to lose control or fear that their image could suffer (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 196). Education leaders should have a vision of what they want to accomplish, be flexible to make it easy for them and the educators to accept diversity, trust, communicate positively, give positive feedback and be able to exchange ideas to obtain favourable results through delegation and shared decision-making, empowering educators to take responsibility for the results (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 61). Educators would only then experience buy-in and accept ownership that should increase the motivation and job satisfaction of educators, as well as principals.

The former indicated that to effectively delegate and empower, leaders should have a vision, accept diversity and individual differences, trust their educators, be assertive and allow educators to act autonomously and responsibly. By delegating tasks, these educators are enabled to achieve goals which make them feel competent, valued and

thus experience job satisfaction. Education leaders should therefore communicate a shared vision to effectively plan and execute delegation in order to empower educators.

3.4.2.3   Accept individualism and diversity

Education leaders should realise that all educators do not share the same personal needs, level of prioritisation, commitment, called "ego involvement" by Vroom (cf. 3.4.4), or engagement and thus involvement in their jobs. Work-related role identities (sense of self), the way in which it is achieved, developed and maintained differs from person to person. Since this determines the level of commitment and satisfaction, educators will have different levels of commitment and will experience different levels of job satisfaction. In some instances educators' lives revolve around their work, but others keep their work in perspective and feel that there is considerably more to life than teaching, without being uncommitted, unenthusiastic or lazy. Educators are, for that reason, influenced differently by school-related factors but their schoolwork will always be an ever-present reality that influences all aspects of their lives. Research, contrary to expectations, found that higher involvement or commitment did not preclude higher job satisfaction. Satisfaction and contributions tend to be negatively related because the system of career rewards favours those who are less than fully committed and plan on a short-term engagement. Under specific conditions, lower engagement or commitment may safeguard educators against dissatisfaction. The extent to which educators' work context contributes to their commitment, may thus influence their motivation and job satisfaction (Maxwell, 2005: 119, 143; Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 21, 158; Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 86, 87; Evans: 1998: 161, 176).

Education leaders should furthermore, be aware of, and accept educators as individuals with diverse complementary talents, thinking styles, problem-solving styles, strengths, training, preferences, beliefs, values, ideologies, aptitudes and interests. Educators differ in their commitment, professionality, pressures, goals, demands, interpretation, and experience of events, responses to similar situations, as well as needs that reflect their ideal-selves-at-work and these factors should be taken into account (Maxwell, 2005: 242; Evans: 1998: 74, 147). Ashkanasy, Härtel and Daus

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(2002: 327) stated that management should recognise and embrace diversity towards knowledge, abilities and attitudes to strengthen unity in order to be successful.

These personal differences, particularly the different viewpoints, needs and talents of the whole person, should be appreciated and accommodated in a school's system and structures as far as possible, without compromising the school's needs. To value diversity, education leaders should empower educators by granting them the opportunities for self-expression and utilise their strengths by bringing them in as valued partners, serving and encouraging them in a psychologically safe environment. The different qualities of educators should be valued and utilised to fulfil their basic needs and be helped to reach their full potential. Thus, motivation and job satisfaction will be enhanced by capturing the hearts and minds of educators through stewardship that cares for and has the best interest of all stakeholders at heart. The acceptance of individuality should include self-reflection to overcome stereotypical judgements and responses which could be de-motivational (Prins, 2006: 125; Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 21, 158; McEwan, 2003: 63, 91, 98, 159; Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 86, 87; Evans: 1998: 161, 176).

The previous educator differences imply that the same motivators may not have the same impact and results on all educators. Therefore, different strategies should be followed to attain job satisfaction amongst educators who should be treated as individuals by education leaders. Job satisfaction is important insofar Oshagbemi (2003: 1214) suggests, that the greater the job satisfaction, the longer employees remain in their jobs.

Diversity, according to Ashkanasy, Härtel and Daus (2002: 312, 313), refers to different conceptualisations of core work activities and purposes amongst employees that affect performance. The reactive narrow approach of race and gender as seen in affirmative action and employment equity should be avoided. Not all educators want to be empowered, or are ready for it due to different levels of interest, commitment, professionality orientation or intellectualism, but may still be excellent, competent and conscientious, satisfied educators. A stratified professional culture and system should therefore accommodate educator diversity and individualism on merit, by accepting different categories of educators with different roles to perform and different levels of

responsibility and extendedness based on advanced study and quality (Evans, 1998: 182 – 184).

This stratified system that considers individual differences should allow for talent-task matching and a superb person-job fit that may help to put the right people in the right positions in a complementary team (Maxwell, 2005: 243; Collins, 2001: 13). This should certainly enhance job satisfaction, as it may fulfil the needs of educators and promote positive attitudes since different needs, dispositions and preferences are catered for (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004, 99). A mismatch may lead to wasted talent, unfulfilled potential, dissatisfaction and wasted possible contributions towards raising educators' professional culture and professionalism (Evans, 1998: 175, 176).

From this discussion it may be concluded that education leaders should endeavour to allow educators to teach the learning areas they are qualified for and interested in, in order to achieve excellence, enthusiasm, commitment, utilise their different abilities and enhance job satisfaction. Education leaders should know their educators, their different talents, interests and developmental levels; experience and aspirations should be considered in the work allocation, when assigning tasks and in the extra-curricular activities for which educators are responsible. The former competencies of creating a vision and consideration of individual differences may improve the trust educators have in their leaders.

3.4.2.4   Instilling mutual trust

Covey (2004: 107, 114, 137, 253, 317) suggested that low trust is a chronic problem in many organisations. To be trusted and fully empower, share responsibility, decisions and have educators who believe in the vision, leaders should focus talent on results and not on methods or processes. Employees should be trusted to be successful, with the employer giving them sufficient space to succeed, only giving help when requested. In this regard, Covey quotes General Patton as saying: "Never tell people what to do, and they will surprise you with their ingenuity". Employees will then pride themselves in being part of the solution and view themselves as an important link in the organisation, which could reduce turnover and underutilisation as empowerment

allows for self-control, self-management, responsibility, authority, and self-organising towards an obligation to accomplish a task and need fulfilment. If not, they could be frustrated, disenchanted and disempowered by self-alienating bureaucratic procedures resulting in a loss of passion, enthusiasm, humanness and drive or by leaving the profession (Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn, 2004: 5, 197).

Rudiments in successful delegation and empowerment are, according to Langley and Jacobs (2006: 11, 74), Covey (2004: 103, 106, 217, 262), as well as Mol (2005: 61), that educators should be trusted to make decisions and have appropriate knowledge and/or training, aptitude, resources and support available to achieve agreed goals, including all the relevant information, as well as competencies to accept responsibility and act autonomously. Delegation, empowerment and shared decision-making should institute authentic job enrichment, as opposed to job enlargement that keeps educators busy with a variety of meaningful tasks, to be intrinsically motivational and enhance the educator's trust in their principal. These should be based on growth needs that intellectually stimulate and engage educators' minds and hearts. There should furthermore, be a clear set of organisational goals, values, autonomy, participation, individual counselling, support and empathy, under effective leadership of a high quality, to optimally empower and affirm educators' worth and to build mutual trust (Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster & Kepes, 2007: 236, 237; Fourie, 2006: 25, 58; Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 933, 937). To attain the latter, an education leader should be assertive and not disempowered through control, lack of trust or lack of principles or attempting to micromanage.

The trustworthiness, humility and character of leaders are reciprocated by employees. Low trust and disempowerment may lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy – get what you expect (Blanchard, 1999: 94, 95). This situation could be the root cause of employees who are inflexible, slow, apathetic, bored, irresponsible, critical and complaining hypocrites, have rivalry, hidden agendas and play political games while chaos reigns because security is sought from sources outside themselves (Covey, 2004: 300).

To be trusted by educators, leaders should be a model by practising what they preach, and by having a clearly communicated vision and achievable goals. Delegation and shared decision-making should be empowering with definite goals and support to enhance trust. If educators are to be successful, they should not be micromanaged. In

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other words, if it appears that education leaders have a hidden agenda or egocentric purposes they will not be trusted by educators. Trusted principals should additionally be assertive by giving direction through their leadership practices.

3.4.2.5 Being assertive

Assertiveness is an indispensable leadership ability to effectively delegate, empower and support educators, communicating a vision and inspiring trust. According to Bodine and Crawford (1999: 14, 15), assertiveness is: "Knowing how to take advantage of opportunities without victimising another, knowing how to resist pressure or intimidation without destroying relationships or isolating oneself, and knowing how to resolve conflict". Assertiveness differs from aggressiveness and thus involves emotional awareness and control; to know the difference and detect others' needs, emotions and reactions. Assertiveness skills should be developed since it is a necessity for a quality life and successful leadership, particularly successful delegation.

The former implies that the EI domain of emotional management is crucial to not crossing the fine line between assertiveness and aggressiveness. To arrive at the former, Bodine and Crawford (1999: 15), as well as Kuter (2004: 24) maintain that an assertive individual is usually emotionally intelligent and empathetic, with a realistic self-esteem and awareness of his/her own significance. These authors also regard trust, responsibility, assertiveness and autonomy as complementary skills which allow leaders to be fair, honest and to possess integrity when delegating responsibilities that empower educators. Covey (2004: 109, 110, 135, 147) additionally emphasised that powerful successful leaders are characterised by humility, patience and compassion, while exhibiting professional will and fearlessness by being assertive.

Only assertive education leaders know their strengths and weaknesses, walk their talk, and will therefore be trusted to give direction and support to educators and the school's activities according to their shared vision. Assertiveness may furthermore, prevent aggressive behaviour and resolve conflict through emotional awareness and emotional control. Assertiveness may enable principals to share decision-making and delegate responsibility and allow autonomy that empowers staff, thus improving performance and job satisfaction.

3.4.2.6   Allowing responsibility and autonomy

It is very interesting to note that de Vos and Schultze (2005: 24) do not view education as a profession, but as a semi-profession because of its lack of autonomy; a prerequisite for delegation and empowerment and a high level of bureaucracy that infringes "upon the professional's freedom to apply his knowledge and skills according to his judgement and skills". These authors furthermore maintain that professionals are not administratively controlled but abide by a code of ethics (SACE is a step in that direction) and personal principles. Bureaucracy could blur an organisation's mission and make it difficult for people to do their actual work. As a result, principals could become so bogged down in beaurocratic rules that they are no longer able to sense the needs of their staff. Moreover, an overload of bureaucratic rules may lead to educator frustration to an extent that they lose the sense of meaningfulness in their work (Covey, 2004: 212, 275; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 69).

Bodine and Crawford (1999: xii, 14) define responsibility as: "Acquiring personal need satisfaction without denying need satisfaction to all others in a social context. A responsible individual chooses to behave according to reasonable and acceptable standards because of internal need satisfaction and concern for themselves and others." This implies emotional awareness and impulse control to regulate behaviour within clear norms and expectations. Lynch (1998: 9) suggested that if someone fails to comply with standards regarding the meeting of obligations, complying with rules or keeping commitments, they are tempted to shrug off responsibility by blaming others or seeking extenuating circumstances. Responsibility also requires that values and ethics should not be compromised in order to be popular (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002: 272, 285; Kuter, 2001: 44, 53).

According to Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 933, 938), Herzberg also proposed that responsibility delegated directly imply self-regulation, the authority to communicate, accountability and sufficient control over resources. The perceived sense of personal control over situations is a strong predictor of job satisfaction as a sense of subjective well-being, by enhancing intrinsic motivation and positive behaviour (Compton, 2005: 49). Delegation and empowerment should include responsibility and permit autonomy to allow the learning of new expertise that could improve personal growth, control, and

possibilities for advancement by providing challenging opportunities. Leaders should remember that employees only act responsibly if their leaders are responsive to their needs (Blanchard, 1999: 43).

Additionally, Woodruffe (2006: 19), Mol (2005: 27, 28) and Covey (2004: 243) see accountability, with the necessary authority, autonomy and responsibility regarding decision-making without being told how to do their work, accompanied by appropriate support, as vital conditions in creating an optimal environment towards job satisfaction. Notwithstanding the former, the ultimate accountability resides with the leader (Maxwell, 2005: 100). Furthermore, Sergiovanni (2001: 151, in McEwan, 2003; 59) views empowerment as the natural complement to accountability. When staff members are willing to do more than is needed and extend themselves for the learners and school, education leaders should enable, trust and empower them to make things happen. Educators should not be micromanaged and controlled to the point where their spirit is broken (Covey, 2004: 18).

Enthusiastic leaders should give educators enough freedom and autonomy to express themselves creatively within clear boundaries regarding values, goals, roles and structures and available support (Blanchard, 1999: 87). This enables employees to use their initiative, without being hampered by permissions, paperwork and beaurocracy, to be responsible for achieving set goals. In order to empower educators, realise, tap and develop their full potential, abilities and leadership, principals should create an empowering environment. By prioritising, providing resources to permit educators to function autonomously, eliminating red tape by favouring people over paperwork, allowing independent thought and action and helping only when requested, will leaders accomplish optimal development. A policy of non- interference, takes a lot of courage from principals in order to change the status quo, and if not attempted, educators could be uninspired and feel undervalued (Covey, 2004: 19, 264; McEwan, 2003: 116, 140).

When delegating or supporting the situation and the development level, the competency, commitment, confidence and motivation of the educator, should determine how much direction should be given. Competency again includes task relevant knowledge (information, education, training, experience) and transferable skills to complete the job successfully. Appropriate leadership and support could help

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employees to develop into peak performers (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 183, 185, 189, 205).

When education leaders trust, delegate and empower, they relinquish control, responsibility and decision-making, which may be a humbling experience. An important prerequisite to delegation and empowerment is that educators should be held accountable for their actions and results, while allowing for mistakes as learning opportunities without accepting mediocrity (Maxwell, 2005: 217, 218; Mol, 2005: 33; Covey, 2004: 152; McEwan, 2003; 59; Oshagbemi, 2003: 1216). High performing, effective and learning organisations pride themselves on the latter by learning from both success and failure (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002: 327).

Important facts regarding delegation that are relevant to responsibility and autonomy were posited by Mol (2005: 29, 36, 37), as well as Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 195, 197). Firstly delegation, and thus responsibility, is task- or goal-specific. Secondly, leaders should transfer authority in order to achieve goal- or task-accomplishment and thirdly, only one person should have final decision-making power and be held accountable for a specific task, having considered others' expertise and enthusiasm. If more than one person is accountable, the one who is really accountable is the one with the highest job status. Mol furthermore felt that many employees do not have a sense of responsibility because they are not allowed to make their own decisions. Only when employees are empowered to make their own decisions, instead of being told what to do, can they accept the responsibility and accountability for the consequences of their actions (Covey, 2004: 297). Education leaders would only then be able to delegate challenging assignments without micromanaging, show understanding and tolerate failures in pursuit of dreams, thereby communicating a belief in people's potential, capabilities and self-confidence, by being more autonomous, thereby fostering trust and rapport. The coaching style, together with delegation, participative decision-making and empowerment through autonomy, improves the retention of talented educators because of the nourishing developmental experiences created for personal growth (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 76 – 79).

Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 938), as well as Woodruffe (2006: 19) in addition to the previously mentioned authors, found that recognising the need and sustaining opportunities for personal growth among employees is important to job satisfaction.

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The latter authors emphasise emotional awareness as a crucial EI ability towards job satisfaction. However, the extent to which managers are allowed to deploy their EI skills is determined by the organisation's HR policy, recognition, reward system, and performance management. Many ineffective managers/leaders believe that their subordinates are there to help them to reach goals by supervising all methods applied. In this case, the education leader would be the only one accountable and responsible since all creativity, judgement and responsibility then exist only with the manager. Effective education leaders on the other hand, are counsellors who help subordinates to accomplish their task through affirmation, training and feedback. The onus is in this case is on the employees to reach their own goals without interference by managers (Mol, 2005: 31; Covey, 2004: 286).

When educators are trusted they should be allowed to use their own judgement and be responsible for specific tasks or learning areas, for which they are accountable without the assistance of micro-management. In this way personal growth, leadership, commitment, and their feeling of been valued and appreciated is nurtured. Consequently, job satisfaction is improved since employees experience buy-in and accept ownership for the results. This can only be fully achieved if educators are allowed to give and receive honest feedback.

3.4.2.7   Providing constructive feedback

Some education leaders are 'clueless' about others' needs and do not seem to hear anything suggested by somebody else regarding the reality of their organisation. To improve effective leadership, leaders and educators should listen to feedback as a sounding board and welcome coaching and support, without getting emotional. This should enable them to determine whether criticism is reasonable and fair and also help them to listen to proposals that may improve them personally, as well as their achievements. Both should be able to discuss the pros and cons of proposals and motivate their points of view with facts, without getting personal or demeaning to protect their reputation. Feedback should improve organisational efficiency, improve key performance areas and thus job satisfaction (van Wyk, 2007: 1). Feedback and guidance improves developing others through acting as mentors or coaches by

showing a genuine personal interest in those concerned; their strengths, weaknesses and goals (Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee, 2002: 65, 330).

Work is an ongoing learning experience and feedback is part of it. Feedback should be accepted humbly, as it is a means to an end to learn from others and improve oneself. The reaction on feedback is about perception and attitude. Feedback should be seen in a positive light, even if ineptly given; it is about one's actions and not about oneself (Allen, 2009: 1). Optimists would therefore be more willing to receive negative feedback about their performance and be able to help others to believe in their potential and situations to turn out well (Compton, 2005: 51).

Feedback may also build relationships; people feel valued and useful particularly if they hear unexpected good things about themselves. Even self-aware people have blind spots, and feedback to decrease these blind spots allows one know how one is seen by others. The result is an increasing self-awareness and an improvement in openness and cooperation, since one should be able to listen with an open mind (Allen, 2009: 2).

Constructive feedback, and even straightforward criticism, should be regarded as part of a continuous learning experience and not perceived as negative. Self-awareness, self-confidence and a person's self-esteem may prevent the latter. People should not be degraded by feedback, but it should rather help them to improve their performance. However, positive feedback is a powerful form of recognition of achievements. To delegate effectively, empower, cater for individual differences and receive constructive feedback, education leaders should engage in participative leadership and decision-making since educators may have valuable perspectives and inputs.

3.4.2.8   Participative leadership and decision-making

To delegate responsibilities, develop a shared vision and receive feedback and involve educators in shared decision-making requires courage, but the responsibilities and workload are shared, stress is reduced, sources of frustration are overcome and time is saved while obtaining buy-in from educators. EI is of particular importance to this shared vision as it affords leaders the opportunity to discern their own strengths and

weaknesses, read the environment and sense norms and organisational politics. Added benefits are that it mobilises people, stimulates them to bring new suggestions to the table and instils in them a sense of self-worth. The educator feels motivated, trusted and empowered by the confidence in them and high expectations of them by the principal (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 31; Covey, 2004: 143). Both principals and educators should tolerate mistakes and failure to achieve the vision. Leaders should not take themselves too seriously: "Success is not forever and failure isn't fatal"; nevertheless, the leader should always take responsibility for failures without punishing employees who are learning or who have made mistakes (Blanchard, 1999: 18, 39, 63, 107).

Participative leadership and delegation additionally develop the ignored or buried leadership abilities of educators, which is a lifelong learning process. The latter requires strong and secure leaders to add worth to others and hone their leadership skills to ensure long-term growth in an organisation – any person at any organisational level may exert influence (Maxwell, 2005: 7, 12, 25, 217, 307). The latter is of utmost importance in the light of Collins's (2001: 10) research finding that it is not the larger-than-life, big personality celebrity leaders from outside who take organisations from good to great, but those coming from the inside. Real leaders should for that reason, set successors up for success by being mentors, which was found not to be the case in 75% of organisations (Collins, 2001: 25, 26).

Most importantly, empowerment, through shared decision-making and delegation that utilises people's strengths, helps educators to emotionally identify with, be emotionally connected with and involved in their work. Employees are then able to focus on priorities, distinguish activity from achievement and become self-reliant but interdependent in inspired complementary teams that could be innovative and creative. Interdependency should however not be forced; it should evolve naturally through understanding and trust (Covey, 2004: 153, 214, 227). Educators, who are empowered by participative leadership and decision-making, additionally feel in control of their destiny, are an active part of the school and contribute to its success. They thus experience buy-in, ownership and feel appreciated. Educators may then do extra creative and innovative things that convert tacit employee knowledge into explicit organisational knowledge, because there is a passion and commitment to do their best

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in a positive work environment that facilitates the transfer of knowledge. Educators who accept ownership are for that reason, crucial to learner achievement because they take responsibility and credit when they participate in the decisions (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 32; Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 934, 938; McEwan, 2003: 28, 35, 90, 118, 130).

As early as 1931, Fisher and Hanna (1931: 233, in Wright, 2006: 269) recognised participative decision-making to be predicative of employee well-being, satisfaction and turn-over. Educators will not give of their best if they fear their education leader; they will do only enough to stay out of trouble. Fear and intimidation still reigns in many abusive organisations where people are treated as objects, as in the case of Machiavellian and authoritative leaders who live in a Knowledge Worker Age, but continue to control their organisations as if they were still in the Industrial/Machine Age with strict procedures and hierarchy that puts more value on rules than on human judgement – real slave-drivers. It is after all, the beliefs and leadership style of the leader that determine whether the full potential, passions and knowledge of employees are realised. If the latter are not taken into account, it could cause humans to revert to their lower instinctual behaviour which suppresses human potential, leading to the feeling of lost ownership, withholding of input, mistrust, stress, anxiety, hatred and retaliation in the form of undermined authority by intentionally overthrowing or slowing down organisational goals. The former lack of awareness and effective leadership could also contribute to unmotivated and dissatisfied educators and a high turnover (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2007: 264; Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 90, 91; Covey, 2004: 15, 24, 265, 267; Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 8).

Position has very little in common with leadership. Participative leadership and shared decision-making should not relegate the principal to obscurity. It is only selfish, insecure leaders who depend on position and think egocentrically that everything should be to their benefit and that everything revolves around them (Maxwell, 2005: 9, 41, 43). Consequently, a hierarchically oriented top-down or authoritarian managerial approach, based on position, rank or title and 'kissing up to the hierarchy', instead of being personally competency based, is exclusive and corrupts. This exclusion from decision-making often is a source of negative attitudes; for example: loss of loyalty, disengagement, demotivation, dissatisfaction, cynicism, frustration, confusion, loss of self-worth and resentment at work. The latter are caused by the unquestioning and

irrational composition of school management teams and the refusal of education leaders to accept educator initiative, creativity or criticism regarding the behaviour and decisions of those in managerial positions. It furthermore excludes the recognition of the potential value, talent, leadership, human needs and individual suitability for purpose, of those lower in the hierarchy (Mol, 2005: 52; Covey, 2004: 10, 17, 24, 277, 323; Evans, 1998: 63, 68, 72, 169). However, in some cultures, for example Singapore, a top-down paternalistic leadership style, are more acceptable and participation is not valued as much as in Western cultures (Kelly, Ang, Chong & Hu, 2008: 44). The latter could also be the case with other Non-European cultures that focus more on the group than on the individual.

Opposed to the former, is the integrated or shared leadership proposed by Pearce, Conger, and Locke (2007: 282, 283). These authors define shared leadership as "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organisational goals or both". The latter could be lateral, downwards or upwards in a loose alliance based on goal achievement.

Participation in decision-making is vital because neither education leaders nor educators alone know everything and over-reliance on one person contains a degree of risk. Education leaders should undergo a paradigm shift, emerge from their comfort zone and admit an inability, know when to get out of the way and be able to be interdependent when seeking to achieve greater goals than through independent mandating or directing. Leadership should influence and effectively engage everybody's strengths, experience and wisdom in a complementary synergistic team that identifies with the organisation's goals in order to make individual weaknesses irrelevant. Emotional identification with the job could be a psychological force that could be even more important to job satisfaction than involvement. Effective self-aware principals know that by sharing power, by saying "we" instead of "I", they are not impoverished but may have a greater and more positive impact on their school as they show trust, respect and optimistic expectations towards educators and their abilities (Covey, 2004: 81, 123, 127, 240, 276; McEwan, 2003: 64, 158, 166).

Collins (2001: 27) additionally found that great leaders should be modest, humble, introspective and reflective in order to achieve the abovementioned. They do not talk

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about themselves, but about the contributions of others; the "we" should not only be the management team but should include the rest of the staff, to be a real participative decision-making body. A major problem regarding the former arises from the natural selection forces that favour self-orientated, technically proficient individuals with a desire for power who sacrifice compassion and self-awareness in their quest to climb the ladder of power (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 11, 13).

A flattened hierarchy, as promoted in transformational leadership and democratisation of schools, in contrast to a hierarchical organisation, empowers educators who want to take part in decision-making, to participate without fear of retaliation. A flattened hierarchy improves collegiality, collaborativeness, self-determination, trust and professional development, particularly of those who have a wider vision beyond the classroom. Moreover, collaborative decision-making and delegation to committees may take an unworkable load from principals' shoulders (Evans, 1998: 169, 170). With disciplined people on board, disciplined thought and action are taken (Collins, 2001: 127). This participation could contribute to the job satisfaction of educators and develop latent leadership, since people with the mentioned qualities are usually entrepreneurial and self-reliant.

According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002: 44, 45) Max Weber, a sociologist, said a century ago that institutions continue to flourish because they cultivate leadership through the whole organisation. They do not rely on the charisma of one leader, but build leadership at every level in the organisation, incorporating self-respect, conscience and integrity (Covey, 2004: 81, 82). The latter may be reached only if leadership skills are honed in an organisation where participative leadership, decision-making, diversity, open communication and proper delegation prevail. A major problem however is that leaders, particularly poor leaders, usually surround themselves with those who possess similar traits and think alike. The latter narrow their vision, scope, field of knowledge and expertise that may be addressed only by embracing diversity (Maxwell, 2005: 198; Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 9).

However, the cultivation of leadership is not particularly prevalent in SA schools. According to the SATU (2008a: 1) insufficient attention is given to succession planning and the organisation plans to launch a guidance programme to implement timeous

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intervention. If leadership is developed impartially, it could be extremely motivational as it creates a sense of achievement, as well as motivating aspirant educators seeking promotion to excel. Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 934) see integration between training, appraisal and promotion as fundamental to commitment, achievement, delegation and empowerment to be motivational and enhancing job satisfaction. According to Covey (2004: 362, 380), Peter Drucker said that the test of any leader is not what they accomplish but what happens when they have left the scene. This implies that leadership capabilities should be developed for the future by investing in people. Maxwell (2005: 176, 177) suggests that the latter could lead to competition among staff. As long as the competition stays healthy and does not get personal, it will inspire and bring out the best in staff while improving camaraderie, as long as honest recognition and evaluation prevails.

Participative leadership and delegation could have very positive effects in a school as it allows all educators to feel empowered, trusted, listened to, appreciated, respected, and competent, and play an active part in school life and personally contribute to solutions. Unilateral decisions, particularly unpopular decisions could be demotivating and alienate educators because they feel ignored when their ideas are not integrated into the work they do. Educator participation in decision-making and problem-solving help them to take pride and ownership, build self-respect as well as psychological well-being and self-worth. Such educators are generally willing to assist and cooperate to solve problems effectively with self-confidence (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 32, 34; Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 162, 175, 176). Resistance to ideas, fear of uncertainties or even anger regarding change could be overcome by participative leadership that may result in feelings of pride, buy-in and ownership (McEwan, 2003: 78) that are prerequisites for motivation and job satisfaction.

Participative trusting leadership allows educators discretion and some control over the way they do their job as it allows them to be courageous by expressing their own convictions and therefore appear to be a motivator (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 937). Participative leadership could improve self-determination since it adds value and conveys a positive message of trust by empowering educators through delegation to act proactively, autonomously and responsibly to achieve goals. Educators should however, remember that even if the abovementioned does not prevail, they have the power to choose their response as determiner of their self-motivation and satisfaction.

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People are the product of their decisions and not only of the prevailing conditions, taking human dignity and their need for growth, contribution, meaning in and control over their lives into account and could accordingly be motivational (Maxwell, 2005: 171; Covey, 2004: 17, 156, 179, 224). If employees experience a lack of control, that disallows them from taking the initiative and making decisions, they feel that they are not trusted or capable, which could result in burnout (Prins, 2006: 150).

In addition to the abovementioned, educators may be more committed, experience buy-in and feel engaged by sharing responsibilities. They will feel that they are being treated fairly, kindly, honestly and with respect and are trustworthy, in a positive and supportive school culture (Kuter, 2004: 18). In this kind of atmosphere educators are usually motivated and trusted by colleagues, embrace challenges, are creative and not afraid to accept responsibility. However, if educators' feasible creative ideas are never recognised and implemented, their morale will fall and school life may become extremely demotivating (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 7).

Van der Westhuizen (2004: 190) posits that democratic management and leadership is group-centred in the sense of educator consultation in decision-making through voluntary and spontaneous communication, in which the educator plays an important role. This enhances job satisfaction as it fulfils basic human needs and provides educators with opportunities to make creative contributions that may develop socio-emotional interpersonal relationships which may therefore help to identify, develop and nurture their leadership through the empowerment opportunities created in the school by the principal (Maxwell, 2003: 177; van der Westhuizen, 2004: 358, 359).

Participative leadership and decision-making distinguish democratic style leaders who are self-aware, aware of their surroundings, inherently secure and create win-win situations that are fulfilling for each person. Thus, self-esteem and self-worth, a sense of belonging, success, mutual and reciprocal trust with recognition are nurtured by creating situations for independence and interdependence in which individual differences are valued. Shared goals are reached through the most effective ways to get the job done (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 7; Covey, 2004: 205, 218, 263, 271, 277; Kuter, 2004: 13; Weare, 2004: 107 – 109; Mentz, 2002: 160, 161, 172; de Bruin, 2002: 302). It follows that the above scenario would encourage educators to achieve excellence.

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Participative leadership thus engages educators as a source of knowledge in decision-making. The latter encourages them accept ownership and buy-in in the running of the school and problem-solving. Moreover, job satisfaction is improved because the educator's sense of self-worth, self-efficacy, respect, trust and control is enhanced while commitment is increased, which again may enhance their sense of achievement.

3.4.2.9   Encouraging achievement

The art of successful leadership is not in being a winner; it is the art of creating winners through encouragement and inspiration through creating opportunities for achievement by delegating tasks and proper training (Mol, 2005: 15, 17, 41). Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 933, 936), as well as Evans (1998: 141, 143) proposed that the satisfaction derived from a sense of achievement and the recognition thereof, responsibility and personal growth form the basis of self-efficacy, motivation and job satisfaction. These authors additionally refer to Maslow, Hertzberg, Alderfer and McClelland who suggested that recognition of achievement is an internal motivator in the form of positive feedback that shows respect and recognition of others' efforts and personal growth. A sense of achievement has a significant influence on job satisfaction as it is at the context-specific level that constitutes educators' working lives. This is emphasised by Bodine and Crawford's (1999: 185) observation that our need for power is met by achievement, accomplishment, recognition and being respected. Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 136), as well as Fourie (2006: 24) additionally mention the enhanced morale, sense of well-being, happiness and self-esteem created by achievement as contributors to motivation and job satisfaction which should be promoted by education leaders.

Educators at the same school could experience different levels of achievement and thus satisfaction or dissatisfaction, depending on their perception, intellectualism, analytical skills, and capacity for rational argument, acceptance and meeting of challenges that gives a sense of achievement. It is of paramount importance that individuals and teams should be trusted and that sufficient resources and support be made available to engage and enable educators to meet these challenges and help them through troubled stages and problems in order to facilitate achievement. Activity however, should not be mistaken for achievement. Further contributing factors to experiencing a sense of achievement are the acceptance of change, responsibilities,

accountability, ideologies, being reflective, the leader's and educator's personal vision and understanding of educational issues and pedagogy; that they do not only see obstacles, but opportunities (McEwan, 2003: 31, 32, 75, 83, 119; Evans, 1998: 90, 92).

Additionally, Evans (1998: 100, 101, 105) found that extended professionality was not an automatic precondition for dissatisfaction and frustration regarding achievement. Under certain circumstances extended professionals, through challenges and opportunities for professional development and achievement, found their own enabling opportunities, maintained positive job-related attitudes and have even improved job satisfaction, if the school culture and climate were incompatible with their own educational ideologies.

The motivation and job satisfaction derived from a sense of achievement and accomplishment, as a basic human characteristic and need, cannot be overemphasised (Mol, 2005: 15). Achievement is pivotal in determining work-related role identities as a sense of self-worth and self-esteem. The way in which the latter is achieved, developed and maintained determines the level of commitment to the organisation. The higher the engagement and commitment levels of educators, the more reliant they are on a sense of achievement to experience job satisfaction. The active engagement by pursuing a variety of goals, goal setting and meaningful achievement increase job satisfaction (Compton, 2005: 53, 58). The most important factor to feel a sense of achievement and job satisfaction is the degree of compatibility between educators and their work context. In other words, a good match provides greater opportunities for high levels of motivation and job satisfaction than 'a round peg in a square hole'. A good match includes ideologies, values and priorities through shared professional orientations (Evans, 1998: 3, 153).

In order to achieve, educators should be responsible and accountable. McEwan (2003: 129) proposed that "highly effective educators thrive on accountability". To achieve the latter, education leaders should express their expectations clearly and personally coach their educators to achieve measurable goals and hold them accountable for results. The involvement of the education leader in facilitating the aforementioned, a safe and caring environment, support and collegial interpersonal relationships could improve effective education accountability and a sense of

achievement, while contributing to self-improvement, motivation and job satisfaction. Great leaders develop their staff; motivate them by giving credit where it is due and take responsibility for poor results without blame (Collins, 2001: 39). Besides, leaders are only successful if their employees or team are successful (Mol, 2005: 53).

To enable educators to achieve goals and excellent levels of efficiency, they must be sufficiently trained and empowered; only when employees know how to perform a task properly are they motivated. To motivate and build job satisfaction in order to retain and develop educators, clear, fair, controllable, impartial and accountable appraisal criteria or evaluations should be applied to inform educators when they have achieved excellence and achieved recognition (Kelly, Ang, Chong & Hu, 2008: 39, 41). These criteria should however, not be applied to punish them for mistakes or to let them know how bad they are as it could be very demotivating to engage them in activities to outwit education leaders. It is not the score that motivates; it is the feeling of achievement and success (Mol, 2005: 16, 17).

Collins (2001: 160) proposed that great leaders and achievers "are motivated by a deep creative urge and an inner compulsion for sheer unadulterated excellence for its own sake. Those who build and perpetuate mediocrity, in contrast, are motivated more by the fear of being left behind". According to Mol (2005: 18, 19), poor performers usually resist evaluation and find reasons for unfairness. Performers appreciate evaluation since they know how good they are; evaluation could however, let their superiors know what they have achieved. Leaders should always remember that it is not activity that counts, but the results. Some employees and even managers have developed looking busy, but actually doing nothing, into a fine art. Education leaders' negative feelings could however result in less empathy, concern and consideration that may have a negative effect on the evaluation of educators. Education leaders in negative moods may tend to focus on negative encounters and be more disapproving towards educators (Goleman, 2006: 272).

A sanguine personality, with broad-mindedness, tolerance, empathy and understanding of others and situations, an 'abundance mentality', discipline, vision, passion, conscience and a degree of complacency, may also help to enhance a sense of achievement and job satisfaction (Covey, 2004: 91, 103, 131; Evans, 1998: 125). This may be achieved through servant-leaders whose priorities are to contribute,

encourage and enable educators to be successful in achieving their goals (McEwan, 2003: 154).

Education leaders should furthermore have the self-confidence to allow others to take credit for achievements and take responsibility by avoiding blaming others for mistakes, as well as working to promote change (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 173, 196, 197; 2002: 185; Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2002: 228, 230, 284). Group effectiveness occurs only when job-related needs are met by team members working together in a satisfying way that could lead to achievement (Gardner & Stough, 2002: 76).

To improve achievement as a motivator or to accomplish a major mission, it is sometimes essential not to focus on one big leap, but on small incremental, measurable, achievable goals. The "walk-crawl-run" concept of Collins (2001: 163) is applicable to achievement as well, improving self-esteem by creating winners who enhance the aspirations to and likelihood of being successful. Too high an aim could be inviting failure and be very demotivating. If educators believe that it is impossible to reach a goal, they will not achieve it. Leaders underestimate the need to be right as a motivator as employees will under- perform to prove themselves right if management sets higher goals than those set by educators for themselves (Mol, 2005: 16, 19, 21, 23).

If achievement is to inspire people, it should be rewarded appropriately. It is furthermore important that short-term victories should be planned to mark achievements and improvements towards reaching established goals. Moreover, achievements and accomplishments should be rewarded appropriately or celebrated to affirm goal attainment, inspire and build *esprit de corps* by being happy for others' success. The rewards could take on many forms; even a break in routine may energise and keep the momentum going, but most importantly, a leader can never praise too much as long as it is sincere and with integrity, and not with manipulation in mind (Maxwell, 2005: 259, 260; McEwan, 2003: 67, 82, 99, 124).

Leaders and staff should "take themselves less seriously and maximise the positive, fun side of the organisation" (Weare: 2004: 38). Allow educators to do something they do well without the constant challenge to improve. Since behaviour is learned, it will pay to give attention to positive feedback regarding achievement as a valuable

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motivator *vis-à-vis* job satisfaction (Weare: 2004: 69). The higher the esteem of education leaders regarding an educator, the better results they usually generate. To effect the latter and help educators to achieve their full potential, leaders should assist staff members to believe in themselves by adding worth through encouragement (Maxwell, 2005: 226, 227).

Excellent communication is fundamental in addressing the abovementioned. McEwan (2003: 1) suggests that education leaders are constantly communicating while on the job. Interpersonal communication, particularly non-verbal messages, is extremely important in encouraging and affirming achievement, as up to 90% of communication takes place through non-verbal cues, such as body language; tone of voice, gestures and facial expressions (Bodine & Crawford, 1999: 43; Goleman, 1995: 96). The importance of education leaders' communication in achievement is highlighted by McEwan (2003: xxviii, 163, 166) as well as Covey (1994: 73, 237) who both found open, honest and inspiring communication that affirm people's worth, with the right timing, to be one of the most important leadership abilities towards achievement and job satisfaction.

To motivate and achieve job satisfaction, positive and affirming statements and praise should outweigh negative or corrective statements by far. Moreover, open and honest two-way communication often leads to self-disclosure, as the expression of their vulnerabilities could demonstrate leaders' authenticity, genuineness and their human side (McEwan, 2003: 9, 11, 65, 66, 229). The aforementioned could enhance respect, warmth, openness, trust, loyalty, mutual understanding, motivation and job satisfaction when educators feel that they count as persons. With regard to the aforementioned, Evans (1998: 143) suggested that the five motivators of Herzberg may be reduced to achievement as the basis of job satisfaction; the other four factors are either contributors to and/or reinforcers of achievement. For instance: recognition, advancement and responsibility is a form of feedback that does not afford job satisfaction in itself, but could give rise to a sense of achievement that induces job satisfaction.

The previous discussion accentuated the importance of experiencing a sense of achievement in creating a positive attitude towards a job that enhances job satisfaction as it enhances the educator's sense of respect, self-esteem, self-worth, self-efficacy,

success and personal growth. Through delegation and the knowledge of the educator's individual talents and aspirations, education leaders should create opportunities for achievement. What is more, achievements should be celebrated and thus recognised as such. However, the motivational aspect and job satisfaction caused by achievement as the foremost indicator of job satisfaction may lose its significance if educators do not receive the credit they deserve and if their achievements pass unrecognised.

3.4.2.10   Giving recognition

Recognition, appreciation and praise, as positive feedback regarding meaningful and challenging achievements, are one of the most neglected motivators and therefore, one of the biggest sources of dissatisfaction in the workplace. Honesty, sincere recognition, compliments and appreciation that employees receive for a job well done, let them know that they make a difference, thereby fulfilling a basic human need that is crucial to experiencing success, achievement, being satisfied and sustaining high performance (Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Maxwell, 2005: 34, 56, 58; Evans, 1998: 143). A lack of appropriate recognition may result in burnout (Prins, 2006: 150).

However, on average only 20% of employees receive feedback in any form; these are the 10% who excel and the 10% who cause problems. Those in between and the under- achievers who have improved receive no positive feedback when everything is going well. Only when problems emerge is something said. On the other hand, it should be remembered that troublemakers are usually very intelligent and may be an asset if utilised appropriately in settings that fit their attributes (Mol, 2005: 41 – 43, 45, 46).

The need for recognition is complex. According to Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 931, 932) behaviour is a result of the interaction between external social stimuli and cognitive processes. People are furthermore goal-seeking and looking for positive reinforcement in the form of recognition by peers and superiors. Appropriate recognition and rewards should thus be in alignment with the needs of educators to affect positive relationships between educators and education leaders to effect job satisfaction. Such rewards allow an individual to encounter freedom of movement and satisfy his/her expectations that positively reinforce his/her sense of control.

Organisational leaders should however, not become over-reliant on extrinsic rewards and absolve themselves from enriching work by imaginative, innovative job-design and interpersonal relationships that stimulate and recognise personal growth in individuals. Intrinsic rewards such as the recognition of effort and talents, as affective and competency-related rewards endowed by leaders, as well as educators' feeling of doing something meaningful and worthwhile, play a major role in motivation and job satisfaction. Recognition and appreciation are what most people work for. Leaders should take time to get to know educators more intimately than on the surface. They should get to know educators' unique talents, dreams and interests to develop a personal profile of each educator to be able to personalise recognition (Mol, 2005: 46, 48; McEwan, 2003: 111).

Kelly, Ang, Chong and Hu's (2008: 39, 41, 43) research found clarity, fairness and controllability of objective evaluation criteria that differentiate between excellent, average and poor performance prior to recognition, to be major determinants of motivation and job satisfaction, as well as in retaining and developing educators. Measurable, reachable goals and parameters should be set within the capacity of the educator and he/she should be monitored, evaluated and held accountable for the results according to the specific known standards (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 71, 72; McEwan, 2003: 28). Mediocrity should however, be dealt with by looking for something worthwhile to praise since this motivates and develops; even the worst educator will do something right. They will then feel good about themselves, valued, appreciated and worthy (Covey, 2004: 185; Blanchard, 1999, 5, 8). The latter may create positive moods that should not only enhance leaders' and educators' decision-making, but also creativity, cognitive flexibility, conceptual depth and judgments that could lead to positive outcomes, motivation and job satisfaction (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Daus, 2002: 318).

McEwan (2003: 65, 148) felt that descriptive praise could sometimes be used as a positive corrective action since leaders should "intentionally focus on the power of positive words to change and encourage" because criticism may reinforce negative behaviours. To focus on the negative will not motivate anybody. Incompetence should however, not be given any recognition of achievement as it would be extremely

demotivating to the real achievers who earn it through hard and disciplined work (Mol, 2005: 48). "Praise openly in public, but criticize in private" (Maxwell, 2005: 190).

Awareness of and an interest in what is going on in every classroom in the school as a whole, as well as monitoring educators' emotions, needs and the emotional impact of their job are essential features to note, prior to recognition and should be effective motivators and keys to job satisfaction while building educator self-esteem. Awareness and interest includes conversations, knowing about events in and out of school, as well as disagreements and conflict between staff. By combining individualism with awareness and interest, principals should treat educators as persons in totality rather than 'things'. Individualised, personalised recognition should be incorporated into management to improve the sense of efficacy regarding their abilities amongst educators and take responsibility for them. However, this should not be done in a way that could be interpreted as favouritism which would diminish the value of recognition and may even lead to resentment and reduced motivation amongst excluded educators (Evans, 1998: 162; 164).

In an educator-centred approach, explicit recognition, whether it is personal as in personal conversations, in the staffroom or in articles in newsletters or newspapers, is a type of reward through positive feedback as praise that recognises efforts and achievements of individuals or the staff as a whole. Recognition may also take the form of delegating responsibilities to staff members who show that they can be trusted to achieve outcomes. This adds to character building (McEwan, 2003: 135; Evans, 1998:166). Excellence may additionally be recognised and rewarded in the form of performance bonuses, the allocation of more responsibilities (for example, being appointed as head of a learning area) or progression in order to enhance positive attitudes and job satisfaction. Thus, group affiliation and responsibility may be improved, which again provides an opportunity for personal growth. In addition, trust, objectivity and the competency of the appraiser influences the appraiser-appraisee relationship which again influences the satisfaction of and cooperation among educators. However, improved prospects of promotion that imply higher status and renumeration may be classified as 'movers', according to Herzberg, and not as internal motivators (Goleman, 2006: 272; Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 935; Mol 2005: 64, 72).

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Although Herzberg acknowledged that recognition was an important motivator, research by Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 939) however, found that the importance of recognition as a motivator was declining. These authors suggest that the reason for this tendency was that shallower organisational pyramids offer fewer prospects for promotion. Additionally, they established that poor relationships with supervisors also discourage employee commitment to the well-being of the organisation and thus diminish the probability for recognition to be received.

The recognition of achievements has been shown to be a very significant contributor to job satisfaction as it allows educators to feel that they are appreciated and are contributing something meaningful. Moreover, principals should know what is going on in their schools and what each educator does, while applying known evaluation criteria and parameters to evaluate achievement. The recognition of achievements and praise may enhance the creativity and performance of educators and let them feel good about themselves because their abilities are being utilised and recognised. To enable educators to achieve and receive fitting recognition, education leaders should be flexible and adaptable in their decision-making and in setting specific goals which take individual differences into account.

3.4.2.11   Being flexible and adaptable

A successful leader should be able to cater to the needs and contentment of an ever-changing society, of parents and employees who themselves may be in a state of flux. To meet these demands leaders should understand, use and control their and others' emotions to be flexible and adaptable to incorporate excellent interpersonal skills, delegation and shared decision-making by being resilient and secure in their value system based on sound principles. Successful organisations are not solely dependent on the personality of the leader, but on the organisational system and culture built on common values and principles. Education leaders should see the wider picture, think creatively and refrain from dogmatic one way thinking as organisations cannot grow without change (Bipath, 2008: 78; Maxwell, 2005: 54, 192, 195; Covey, 2004: 191, 238).

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To be adaptable, leaders should be realistic and demonstrate conscious awareness to sense alternatives and preferred communication and leadership behaviours according to the situation, values and the emotional context. They affect the leader's intellectual thought processes and how others perceive them without losing their identity or being manipulative (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 103 – 105, 107). Leaders should furthermore be open-minded enough to make choices and be able to act autonomously, but overall should be trusted and able to influence others to follow them. Leaders should be flexible in their thinking and acting, show a willingness to quickly adapt when dealing with unforeseen events and change, while accepting responsibility for the consequences as the core competency to meet the best interests of all people involved in education. Without flexibility it would be impossible to be creative and implement change successfully as both require openness to experience, flexible thinking, tolerance of ambiguity and frustration, independence and intrinsic motivation. Flexibility could furthermore reduce stress and its symptoms without lowering expectations (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 45 – 47; Compton, 2005: 147).

Positive relationships, flexibility and adaptability are only possible by being self-aware and reflective of one's actions and controlling impulses. Impulse control is made possible by the gap between stimulus and response which affords a person the power to choose between different responses based on values and principles, without being obsessive or emotionally hijacked by others or by making implicit assumptions (Covey, 2004: 42 – 44). Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 106) view this as an acquired aspect of disposition that enhances adaptability. Moreover, Covey views leadership as a function of choices. EI is fundamental to the aforementioned and essential for being confident, secure, trustworthy, courageous and considerate, responsible, accountable and able to grow, learn, change behaviours and reinvent oneself in context, according to the situation and appropriateness in following the choices made (Covey, 2004: 51, 52, 57, 62, 341).

Only education leaders who are self-confident and secure in themselves can be flexible and adaptable enough to trust educators with tasks, according to their potential and strengths so that educators may develop their potential, grow personally and achieve excellence. Furthermore, this trust in educators will assist in developing their leadership potential and set them up for advancement.

3.4.2.12   Providing for advancement

As already mentioned, promotion could be seen as the recognition of a certain level of achievement that is a very important motivator towards job satisfaction for most educators who view their work as a career (Woodruffe, 2006: 19). Maxwell (2005: 20, 263) suggests that promotion is the ultimate reward for excellence. However, people should aspire to reach the highest personal levels, not the highest position in an organisation. In support of this statement and the importance of promotion towards job satisfaction, research by Oshagbemi (2003: 1212, 1216) found that rank and age are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 361) also found that education leaders experienced higher satisfaction than educators. Their study could however not determine whether the higher satisfaction resulted from assuming more responsibilities and participation in decision-making or whether more motivated and satisfied educators are inclined to assume more responsibilities. The former could also be attributed to fewer teaching responsibilities that could positively influence the satisfaction of organisational leaders.

Oshagbemi (2003: 1213) suggested that higher ranking could present more rewards, opportunities and privileges; for instance to advance knowledge and ability utilisation, as the reason for being more satisfied. This is a reason for serious concern, in particular for white males. In the numbers game of affirmative action, it appears that promotional posts are rather left vacant than appointing white males, as indicated by the number of vacancies at senior level at the National Department of Education (DoE, 2008b: 181, 183). The ever- increasing learner-educator ratio, appointments inappropriate to needs and not according to criteria are additional factors that impede trustworthiness and promotion, with the resulting low job satisfaction and high educator attrition (Fourie, 2006: 26 – 28). The number of middle-level managers could decline because of a flatter hierarchical structure that may empower employees to make their own decisions (Covey, 2004: 104; Lynch, 1998: 135 - 137). However, this is not the situation in education.

Mau, Ellsworth and Hawley (2008: 51) on the other hand, found 92% of USA beginner educators to be more satisfied than those with more experience. If research among academics (Oshagbemi, 2003: 1211, 1212) is applied to education, the explanation

offered regarding the latter findings is that beginners are more intrinsically motivated and do not have the same expectations and aspirations as experienced educators who could be disillusioned and frustrated. Increased pressure due to change and role overload could additionally contribute to dissatisfaction among more experienced educators. This implies that the longer educators remain on post level one, the higher their dissatisfaction; except if their aspirations become more limited or if they experience their work as interesting. Consequently, promotion will be less important.

Nevertheless, when individuals focus on promotion, they strive towards reaching their ideal self. Promotion-oriented individuals could be motivated and persevere to be successful in reaching specific goals considered to be promotion enhancing. Prevention-orientated individuals on the other hand, who may be depressed, hopeless and doubt their self-efficacy, may be motivated and persevere to complete tasks successfully to prevent failure or avoid losses. The latter type of motivation could decrease over time and result in dysfunctional outcomes regarding cognition, emotional regulation, socialisation and behaviour (Miller & Markman, 2007: 427, 430). Leaders should nonetheless make a clear distinction between self-promotion and unselfishly promoting and being of service to others (Maxwell, 2005: 60).

Promotion is, according to Mol (2005: 7), not motivation, but movement; employees achieve certain goals because they want the promotion and not because of an intrinsic motivation to achieve. After promotion because of movement, productivity could falter. To achieve goals, be satisfied or be promoted, educators should take calculated risks to be innovative and adapt to chance in policies, technology and instructional methods.

Advancement could be seen as a major recognition of achievement and consequently as a contributor to job satisfaction for educators who see education as a career and not so much as a calling. The former educators would find advancement and the accompanying increase in incentives as a major component regarding job satisfaction, while the personal and interpersonal dimensions would be more important to the latter. Even though incentives are an extrinsic motivator, they may motivate up to a certain level and enhance job satisfaction, as they should provide for the physiological needs of educators, for security and social status (cf. 3.4.1; 3.4.3).

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3.4.2.13   Provision of incentives

People often think that more money should make them happier as money is seen as status, pleasure and security. Contrary to this general and much touted belief, pay does not act as a motivator but rather as a demotivator (Compton, 2005: 59; McEwan, 2003: 111; van Deventer & Kruger, 2003: 148). Herzberg's theory, which assumed a weak correlation between financial reward and job satisfaction, opened up a highly contested area of management theory. The latter was translated at its simplest level that while inadequate compensation could demotivate, beyond a certain threshold, remuneration is a hygiene factor and does not motivate (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005: 932). The social comparison process in which satisfaction with income depends to whom one compares oneself and the expectations of what one should have or need, could be ever-expanding. Compton calls this process the hedonistic treadmill (2005: 60, 61, 62).

Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005: 932, 933) indicated the socially desirability bias of Herzberg's theory who questioned the differential role of renumeration. Evans and McKee (1970) argued that money could motivate while providing status and security, since expectancies regarding salaries could influence productivity (Evans, 1998: 42 – 44). On the contrary, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004: 361) found that pay correlated with the job satisfaction of educators in Cyprus, a developing country. According to Fourie (2006: 32 – 34), researchers found that fair salaries, as an indication of an educator's worth, could motivate as they provide financial piece of mind and satisfy the need for security, power, independence and status, but cannot compensate for interpersonal relationships. Pay is also one of the main reasons educators contemplate leaving education if they could find another job.

Blanchard's (1999: 119) slogan: "First cash, then congratulations", shows agreement with Fourie, Evans, McKee and Papanastasiou since their research indicated that employees could leave an excellent working environment if their salaries did not allow them to meet their basic needs and they found themselves in financial turmoil. Maxwell (2005: 264) however recognises the fact that valuable employees should not be lost because of low salaries – you get what you pay for – or else you could be left with people who are not worth what you are paying them. Collins (2001: 64) supports Maxwell's view by regarding compensation not as a motivator and not so as to obtain

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the desired behaviours from the wrong people, but first of all to get and keep the right people in the right position by creating a positive emotional climate through appropriate rewards and compensation.

In the corporate world financial incentives in the form of bonuses or promotions are the norm. However, in education it is very complex and causes dissatisfaction with the appraisal system. The latter is problematic because of the difficulty of varying assessment criteria and different areas of responsibility and accountability (van Rooyen, 2008: 150). Notwithstanding the latter, education leaders should endeavour to provide incentives to improve the renumeration of educators to keep them in the profession. Since education leaders do not determine the salaries and benefits of the educators, they should be innovative in supplementing the basic salaries while staying within the boundaries of the law. These actions may include paying educators a decent bonus for extra-curricular activities that do not form part of all schools and occur after school hours. Alternatively, professional trainers may be brought in, and paid for from school funds, to alleviate the work pressure and time constraints of educators. As is already the practice in many schools, educators are appointed by the governing body to improve the learner-educator ratio which may lessen the workload because of large classes. However, the former actions may not be possible in schools which are not allowed to charge school fees. Even though monetary incentives are important, the motivational theories discussed indicated interpersonal relationships to be even more important to job satisfaction than monetary incentives (cf. 3.4.3).

3.4.3 Enhancing personal and interpersonal dimensions

Zigrami, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 1, 123) found value-based leader-follower relationships and supervision, as proposed by Maslow, Alderfer and McClelland, to be the most important factor affecting organisational well-being and job satisfaction. Fifteen years of research on the impact of principals on their schools, led Hallinger and Heck (1996: 39; 1990: 120, as cited in McEwan (2003: 22, 23) to the conclusion that "achieving results through others is the essence of leadership" and that an education leader's success is "not related to the regular clinical supervision of teachers … but that education leader's time and attention focuses on a variety of additional activities."

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The latter should be, according to Covey (2004: 117, 131, 165, 313), Maxwell (2005: 65, 124, 146, 181), Collins (2001: 20, 21, 29, 31) and Blanchard (1999: 135), the responsibility of building enduring greatness for the organisation and its employees through high-trust, emotional sensitivity and connection in constructive understanding relationships between individuals and in teams. Such leaders are without ego or selfish self-interest, but humble, trustworthy, with integrity and empathy, able to read the atmosphere and emotions and with their influence and ambition focused on what is best for everybody in true servant leadership. Leadership is only possible because others give leaders the opportunity to lead them, since they believe the leaders have the capability to help them and the organisation achieve outcomes that could fulfil their needs towards morality, competency, self-esteem and values that are self-motivational (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 54, 123). To quote Covey (2004: 148, 124) on the latter: "who we are, is more important than whom we appear to be". Personal egos and the arrogance of leaders, plus nepotism as constraints to job satisfaction, could contribute to the loss of trust, initiative and creativity which again lead to the downfall or sustained mediocrity of organisations.

School culture, motivation and job satisfaction are furthermore mainly determined by the educator's compatibility with the specific institutional context, perceptions and realistic expectations of the intellectual capacity, professionalism, behaviour and personality of principals as leaders and managers in their relationships with others. The ability of the education leader and school management team to lead by example and the way they embody key values are particularly important in sustaining relationships. However, Evans's research highlighted the fact individual educators respond in different ways to similar situations, depending on their professionalism or orientation towards their job (Evans, 1998: 61, 62, 72, 173).

The interpersonal relations of the education leader as a role model, both in and out of school, influence educators' perceptions, morale and attitudes towards education leaders and their influence on education. The work-related self and non-work self-esteem impacts upon each other and cannot be separated. Educators should be respected, treated kindly and fairly as a whole person. Although social interaction and behaviour plays an important part in the forming of attitudes, it does not make likeable

persons good education leaders or safeguard them against educator dissatisfaction and demotivation (Covey, 2004: 24, 88; Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 57; Evans, 1998: 119 – 121). Successful leadership thus depends on how civilised principals treat, empower, cooperate with and motivate their staff for them to be committed, optimistic and creative to unleash their potential (Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Mol, 2005: 57). The latter are dependent on the character, motives, sensitivity, integrity, trustworthiness, capabilities, consequent behaviour, influence and responsibility of the principal as a leader. Moreover, principals should steer clear of office politics and subject their personal ambition to norms and values to excel (Maxwell, 2005: 148, 149, 189).

According to Bodine and Crawford (1999: 185) the need to belong is met by the relationships people develop and maintain when they share and cooperate in positive interpersonal relationships; people need to get emotionally connected. Positive relationships enhance the reciprocal feeling of well-being and support essential for positive self-esteem (Compton, 2005: 52, 53). Sharing and support additionally enhance commitment and motivation (Covey, 2004: 32, 33, 59). A very important finding by Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002: 335), as well as Karademas (2006: 1282) is that good moods and optimism in a leader not only lower voluntary turnover in organisations, but enhance self-esteem, self-efficacy and subjective well-being in themselves and in employees. Education leaders should consequently bear in mind the importance of gratifying interpersonal relationships and that people are led and empowered, while entities such as finances and physical resources are managed (Covey, 2004: 101). To achieve the former, leaders' attitudes and conduct should be affirmative, caring, consequent and predictable (Maxwell, 2005: 53, Maxwell, 2004, 19).

Young, Arthur and Finch (2000: 53, 55) confirmed the previous by stating that the interpersonal skill of relationship-building, without being anxious during interaction, is critical to leadership performance and success. Everybody, including leaders, needs caring interpersonal relationships for his/her social and emotional well-being. Concerned people are usually those who are sufficiently caring and have compassion to take the time and make the effort to help others. In managing emotions as well as relationships leaders should have self-confidence and integrity, be effective

communicators, be able to relate to others and their frame of reference, respectful, responsible, assertive (not aggressive), trustful, trustworthy and tactful so as to balance expressivity. Leaders should additionally be loyal, honest, open, calm, caring, professional, empathetic, sincere, authentic, flexible, reliable, courteous, able to apologise, and with integrity. They should furthermore be self-aware, reflective and able to set clear boundaries and establish synergy and rapport by deploying influence and humour. These competencies are all included in the realm of EI (Goleman. 2006: 95, 96; Covey, 2004: 170, 172, 174, 341; Weare, 2004: 47, 48; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002: 47, 59; Weisinger, 1998: xxi).

Rapport is central in education leadership's relationship building as it comprises the connection between people which are pleasant, engaged and calm because of warmth, understanding and authenticity that strengthen the bonds between them. Rapport is characterised by mutual attention that generates shared interests, mutually positive feelings of empathy and unconsciously synchronised nonverbal communication that speaks of understanding or agreement during interaction that enhances creativity and professional decision making (Goleman, 2006: 29, 32). To build rapport, leaders should be able to manage their emotions without denying them, not for their own satisfaction, but for the well-being of the team (Maxwell, 2005: 93).

The old adage goes: "It is better to be the guide on the side rather than being the sage on the stage". Leaders should listen to and empathise with others and realise why it is essential to build rapport and connect with people. Everybody feels better when he/she is listened to (Langley & Jacobs, 2006: 29). Education leaders should therefore engage in informal conversation with their staff to get acquainted with their needs and stay on top of what is going on in their school. This listener attitude may also prevent authoritarian leadership, as well as micromanaging a job, thereby showing respect for the other (McEwan 2003: xxx, 135). It is important that educators know that their superiors have faith in them or relationships will falter. Educators and principals should also maintain faith in themselves and that they will ultimately succeed, despite any problems by thinking 'win-win' (Covey, 2004: 172; Collins, 2001: 86). A positive outlook will prevent feelings of helplessness and stress, since positive and successful role models are something to which they can aspire (Miller & Markman, 2007: 428).

Being an education leader is a people-centred job in which relationships and character are more important than talent, personality or technical abilities (Covey, 2004: 149). Education leaders should therefore favour people over paperwork, which often threatens to bury them, and put others before themselves. It is often the little things they do that are the most powerful towards relationship-building; for instance, seeing educators whenever they are needed without appointments, which encourages and motivates. Education leaders should furthermore take the time to get to know educators more than on the surface. To achieve this, they should get to know the unique talents, dreams and interests of each educator and develop a personal profile of each (McEwan, 2003: 60, 68, 91, 111, 137). This implies that the interpersonal abilities of education leaders as part of motivation and job satisfaction are of paramount importance to the principal's and school's success and not bureaucracy.

To be successful, education leaders should furthermore forge bonds and relationships beyond work obligations that encourage teamwork and collaboration through an atmosphere of collegiality, respect, helpfulness and cooperation. Everybody can then be active, enthusiastic and committed to the collective effort and identity (Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee, 2002: 330, 331). Education leaders should also not take themselves too seriously and have a sense of humour to be flexible in maintaining sound relationships (Maxwell, 2005: 184). McEwan (2003: 34) additionally proposed that education leaders should take daily non-evaluative walks through their schools. This should enable them to observe and keep abreast of what is going on in their schools and engage in talks with educators to establish their needs and to give guidelines and support that forge and strengthen relationships. Extended professionals' needs should particularly be accommodated by the organisational culture, to prevent them from quitting due to dissatisfaction. This could be done by promoting extended professionality in education culture and/or the stratification of the profession (Evans, 1998: 176).

Education leaders should also use their interpersonal skills and awareness to mediate and resolve tension between staff members. In view of the fact that solidarity amongst educators is very important to sustain a positive trusting school climate and culture, where effective teaching and learning could take place, interpersonal relationships are very important in motivation and job satisfaction (Langley &Jacobs, 2006: 60). Any

leader needs a reputation of fairness and consistency to build trust in an organisation and amongst employees (McEwan, 2003: 77). This reputation, trust and motivation are further enhanced by leaders who build an enduring and consistent culture of discipline, rather than personal discipline through sheer force of personality by the leader as it gives people freedom and responsibility in a known system (Collins, 2001: 130, 142).

An 'open door policy' may be found everywhere, but are education leaders really available to spend quality time with educators to build caring relationships and motivate, instead of being busy with paperwork? Time should be set aside to be available to staff members to affirm and let them feel understood, needed and appreciated while building emotionally fulfilling relationships that can endure in tough situations. To achieve the latter and be trusted, education leaders should always be consistent and hold the same values notwithstanding the role they have (Maxwell, 2005: 82; McEwan, 2003: 61, 67, 141).

It may be concluded from the previous discussion that interpersonal relations are essential to leadership practices that enhance job satisfaction. Interpersonal relations are important to be aware and understand the behaviour and aspirations of staff and colleagues by knowing one another better at an informal level. The latter may be achieved by celebrating achievements through formal and/or informal functions. These functions may include doing fun things together; for instance a braai, having tea together, organising welcoming functions at the beginning of the year, year-end functions or any other team-building activities. These activities may improve open communication which is central to forming and maintaining positive relationships.

Covey (2004: 174, 175, 191) and McEwan (2003: 1, 3, 6, 10. 20, 142) emphasise effective two-way communication as a people-process to facilitate interpersonal relations, conflict resolution and the communication of expectations, given that education leaders are constantly communicating, verbally, non-verbally and acting as a model, in their job. Educators may then be assured that their voices will be heard. In order to motivate educators, learners and parents, education leaders should pay attention to appropriate, effective and respectful two-way communication. Particularly attentive listening, that focuses on the person, is essential to being able to interact, connect, support and empathise in loyal, caring and helpful ways. Listening with

understanding and staying objective, could prevent information loss, misunderstandings, hurt feelings and frustration. Active listening allows educators and principals to show respect, regard and trust by meaning what they say and saying what they mean. Multitasking or interruptions could be detrimental to communication as it may be perceived as divided attention or lack of interest. Communication is therefore not only to meet the leader's needs and ego, but to take the psychological needs of the other participants into account, in order to enhance interpersonal relationships (Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor & Edeburn, 2004: 100).

Communication, therefore, forms a very important component of interpersonal relationships since the majority of educators want to be listened to, to be heard, feel that their views and opinions are taken seriously, respected and that they have a say in aspects that concern them personally and in the every-day running of the school. The latter applies particularly to those who are engaged and committed. As expected, education leaders that are enthusiastic, aware, consultative (as opposed to autocratic one-way communication and coercion), with strong interpersonal relationships and enabling, without favouritism in a culture for opportunities for the truth to be heard, securing much higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction. The aforementioned affords educators with the praise, recognition of and interest in their needs, efforts, capabilities and achievements as positive feedback. Disregard of the previous could be detrimental and the resulting mistrust, communication breakdown, ambiguous or broken expectations regarding roles or goals, may cause educators, particularly extended professionals, to leave the school or even the profession (Maxwell, 2005: 182; Covey, 2004: 174; Collins, 2001: 74; Evans: 1998: 77, 78, 131, 133, 134).

The importance of a leader's communication is highlighted by McEwan (2003: xxviii, 163, 166), as well as Covey (1994: 73, 237) who both found open, honest and inspiring communication that affirm people's worth, with the right timing, to be one of the most important leadership abilities towards motivation and job satisfaction. Covey (2004: 98, 99) defines leadership as: "communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves". Educators will only sense their worth, talents and potential for greatness to accomplish the organisation's priorities and purpose in a principle-centred way if core values are communicated to them (Blanchard, 1999: 147).

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Mol (2005:63) additionally sees open communication as essential to relationships and agreement on the results that should be aspired to. Personality and dispositional traits could influence communication because events are filtered through a persons own "mood lens" and frame of reference (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: 143). A warning word is sounded by Fullan (2001: 2, cited in McEwan, 2003: 72) against the dark side of charismatic leaders who are characterised by their excellent communication, who are often dangerous, fanatical, destructive, ideological or narcissistic leaders who do more harm than good; they generally provide only short periods of improvement that leave employees frustrated or pessimistic while taking unwarranted credit and without meeting staff needs or developing them. Great leaders walk their talk and rely on inspired standards to motivate and not charisma (Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007: 177, 180, 183, 190; Collins, 2001: 36).

Goleman (2006: 227, 230, 231, 376) furthermore uses the findings of stress studies by Kemeny, at the University of the California Medical School, and Davidson at the University of Wisconsin, to illustrate the danger of stressful relationships. Kemeny found threats, challenges, ridicule, intimidation, withholding information or being evaluated, as opposed to positive relationships, to be extremely stressful. Negative relationships are collective messages of self-worth, which relate to self-esteem, and desirability that may indicate rejection as the ultimate stressor with a negative impact on health, particularly in men. Abusive supervision, as seen in emotional or psychological mistreatment by verbal and nonverbal behaviours, hostility, negative affectivity, particularly perceived injustices, frustration and helplessness associated with it, not only affects stress, tension and health, but leads to emotional exhaustion and results high turnover intentions (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2007: 264, 265; Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster & Kepes, 2007: 238).

Positive relationships emphasise the importance of excellent communication skills, affirming employees and enhancing relationships that may improve job satisfaction. Communication may be improved by getting to know one another better at an informal level as described in the previous section, but in addition to open communication, education leaders should be considerate of their educators so as to maintain relationships and retain educators.

Consideration as a facet of empathetic employee centred leadership, temperament and behaviour, could have a major effect on relationships, as well as on motivation and job satisfaction. Consideration suggests friendship, caring, mutual trust, respect, sensitivity of needs and warmth in relationships between leaders and their educators. Seen through the eyes of the educators, it is the aforementioned interpersonal and EI competencies that add credibility to education leaders and distinguish successful education leaders from the less successful. However, principals' excellent interpersonal relationships are not enough to secure their credibility and respect amongst educators. Educators also need collaboration through moral and practical support, as well as a recognised and shared vision and mission to develop and maintain a healthy organisational culture which enables them to be motivated and experience job satisfaction (Evans, 1998: 121, 122, 124, 125).

In order to ensure that employees are in caring relationships, principals should have an abundance mentality to seek mutual benefit and respect while being empathetic. Education leaders should: "First seek to understand, then to be understood" (Covey, 2004: 152). Lynch (1998: 11, 12, 22) refers to compassion as: "a willingness to recognise fallibility, vulnerability and misfortune and respond to them in ways that are morally sound, respectful of the victim as a human being and be supportive of action which will enable those willing to improve their circumstances wherever feasible." Lynch also draws attention to the fact that compassion is what distinguishes humans from animals. Compassion is also limited by organisational resources but human resources are the most flexible and the only resource capable of displaying compassion. Compassion may be manifested by righting an injustice, providing care to those with special needs, facilitating the adjustment of educators with changed circumstances they are not responsible for, give moral support and reassurance, enabling others to make a fresh start and by granting forgiveness.

Maxwell (2005: 79) suggests that people automatically feel others' attitudes towards them. They detect if they are used only for the leader's benefit or are genuinely helped to achieve success. The latter is the reason why genuine care and consideration enhances the influence of a leader. According to Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 37, 43, 51), leaders should watch their thoughts as they may become words. Words may become actions and actions, habits that form character and

personality. Leaders should be aware of the fact that repetitive thoughts, positive or negative, created in employees by their words and actions, could influence an educator's personality as a combination of dispositions, values, beliefs and strengths.

Respect for other human beings is an important attribute of principals in order to be able to be considerate to others in order to forge strong interpersonal relationships. Respect enables principals to show courtesy in a caring and accommodating way to others by paying attention to others and esteeming them, even inconveniencing themselves to accommodate the needs of staff (McEwan, 2003: 141). Great leaders' consideration allows them and their employees a work-life balance to enable them to meet their emotional, spiritual and physical needs (Collins, 2001: 61).

To be considerate furthermore includes listening to the staff. McEwan (2003: 151) believes that one of the difficulties of education as a profession is that many leaders do not listen to their staff with a servant's heart. Some self-serving leaders care more about their careers than about their educators or learners and are thus unable to build and maintain healthy relationships.

Lynch (1998: 134) additionally views consideration and ethical leadership as important determinants of trust in and loyalty to organisations and in relationships. Growing evidence indicates that educators are more sceptical regarding their organisation's trustworthiness which is largely determined by the actions and behaviour of the leader.

Loyalty and trust on the other hand, are built on integrity, consideration, fair and credible relationships and behaviour (Maxwell, 2005: 82). Mol (2005: 59, 60) suggested that educators would accept the shortcomings and mistakes of superiors, but not unfair inconsiderate treatment or unfair discipline, or even perceived inconsiderate unfair treatment. Considerate relationships moreover, imply that educators not only need to be treated civilly and fairly, they also should be treated as equals regarding their needs, with the same appreciation, dignity, respect and esteem as expected by their superiors, in order to be motivated. This means that education leaders should be aware of educators' needs and take an active interest in the activities and well-being of educators by considering a work-life balance.

Considerate education leaders are aware of addressing educators' work-life balance in order to retain their best employees and improve their reputations as good employers to attract the best educators. However, with increase in administrative tasks in education, the educator's work consequently infringes on family life, relationships, performance, behaviour, self-improvement, commitment, motivation and job satisfaction (Armstrong, 2008: 1, 2; Woodruffe, 2006: 19; Vakola & Nicolaou, 2005: 160; Carmeli, 2003: 793, 795). The interpersonal relationships and work-life balance should be taken into account by education leaders and managed by them being innovative, flexible and considerate during decision-making and delegation, to assure that the workload is not incompatible with personal and/or family needs and a balanced life. By assessing applicants to ensure a person-job fit and assigning personnel to responsibilities that fit their individual personalities, talents and preferences, as well as the measures described in 3.5.2.13, considerate education leaders may be able to create a sound working environment in which educators may develop an accurate self-esteem, feel safe, valued and competent, as well as experiencing job satisfaction.

3.4.4   Establishing a sound working environment

Zigramy, Blanchard, O'Connor and Edeburn (2004: 37, 43) proposed that although personality and behaviour are 40% genetically determined, 60% is determined by the physical and socio-emotional environment, interaction and experiences. Puch (2002: 155) mentions extensive research regarding the effect of the physical environment on emotions. Sensory stimuli such as sunlight, temperature, colour and sounds, as well as symbols and artefacts may influence emotions, as well as job satisfaction and are seen in friendliness, warmth, cognitive and physiological responses. The physical environment plays an important role in the emotional messages educators perceive; how much the school values them and cares about them. The environment additionally contributes to successful learning and teaching: stressed or relaxed and calm; stimulated, bored or frustrated educators and learners. Noise, temperature, smell and lighting could be stressful and irritating and may also influence our emotions and job satisfaction (Fourie, 2006: 61; Weare, 2004: 124, 126, 127).

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It is not only the physical environment that is important in emotions, motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. The socio-psychological environment, as seen in how people are treated, workload, interpersonal relationships, psychological safety, psychological meaningfulness and motivation in a safe, healthy and supportive environment where engaging work allows for challenges, growth and recognition by an EI leader, is even more important in affecting attitudes, cognitive abilities, learning, stress, well-being and job satisfaction (Goleman, 2006: 274; Prins, 2006: 126, 134; Fourie, 2006: 62).

Since happy people are healthier, more productive and achieve better results, education leaders should endeavour to create an environment and relationships that increase positive affective states in schools as organisations (Prins, 2006: 137). The former do not generally prevail in SA schools as indicated by growing dissatisfaction amongst educators and a number of them who want to leave teaching, according to the HSRC (2005), Olivier and Venter (2003: 186), Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005: 266), as well as Monteith, Smith and Marais (2001: 88 – 91).

It is the education leaders' responsibility do to everything in their power to assure a sound physical work environment or allocate school funds to improve the physical facilities and prevent degradation and even vandalism. As important as the latter is, the socio-emotional environment is the sole responsibility of the principal, which may be determined by taking the previously discussed determinants of job satisfaction into account through educator-centred leadership. These determinants and what principals may do to effectively implement a socio-emotionally healthy environment in their schools will be summarised in Table 3.1.

3.5 SUMMARY

Many education leaders assume homogeneity amongst educators and equate job satisfaction with policy and conditions of service which include salaries. However, the heterogeneity amongst educators' personalities, talents, abilities expectations, needs and person-organisation fit should be creatively accounted for by principals' leadership practices. These practices will enhance educator morale, the quality of education, the achievement of organisational goals and a high level of job satisfaction. The latter may

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only be fully understood through EI leadership that incorporates the determinants of job satisfaction, as shown in Table 3.1, to ensure quality education.

However, according to McEwan (2003: xvi) and Sigford (2005: 9, 17), no leader is perfect in all the competencies, but "are all works in progress", but should be proficient in the critical mass thereof, as well as in leadership and management strategies (cf. 2.7). What education leaders may do to effectively implement EI leadership practices to enhance job satisfaction is summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: What education leaders may do to effectively implement EI leadership practices to enhance job satisfaction

EI leadership practices and determinants of job satisfaction	Actions that may be taken by education leaders to enhance leadership and job satisfaction
Emotional awareness	• Self-awareness: self-confidence to establish a vision but staying humble by being a servant leader. • Social awareness: understand the impact of decisions and behaviours on others. • Have empathy and focus on people not processes. • Respond to educator needs and situations. • Let educators feel valued and known.
Understanding and use of emotions	• Understand the influence of different emotions and use them to persuade educators to use their abilities and potential by letting them experience job satisfaction. • Inspire and affirm educators.
Emotional management	• Prevent emotional hijacking. • Avoid impulsive actions and do what is right according to core purposes and ethical values. • Deal tactfully with others in stressful situations. • Manage anxiety, conflict and stress. • Objective rational and strategic thinking. • Promote self-efficacy among educators.

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	• See opportunities not only challenges.
Create and communicate a shared vision.	• Think holistically to see the bigger picture while learning from past experiences. • Incorporate educator inputs in the development of a positive vision and goal setting for the school's future. • Enthusiastically communicate the vision clearly and understandably to keep focusing on priorities, inspire, give hope and direction. • Believe in what you are saying. • Be reflective about goals and behaviour.
Empower educators and develop educator abilities and leadership through delegation.	• Delegate responsibilities and authority according to needs, abilities, commitment and preferences to specific accountable educators and stand back. • Develop educator leadership by appropriate support and training when necessary. • Encourage personal and professional development. • The intention of delegation should be aimed at personal growth. • Communicate such intentions and their full extent and responsibilities to the educator(s) without manipulation. • Set realistic objectives. • Give educators choices and accept "no" as an answer, within limits and without preferential treatment and the marginalisation of such educators.
Take diversity and individualism into account.	• Take the talents, preferences, experience, needs, beliefs, values and training of educators into account when tasks are delegated and in work allocation.
Mutual trust.	• Trust educators to be successful in their tasks by not micromanaging them through too much control. • Be available, accessible and communicate openly. • Empathetically support when asked. • Have sound knowledge of curricula.
Be assertive and set	• Be clear about goals, values, beliefs and priorities.

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an example.	• Practise what you preach.
	• Keep focusing on priorities and goals to be achieved.
	• Take advantage of opportunities.
	• Control emotions to prevent being, or be perceived, as aggressive.
	• Be assertive concerning high expectancies and success.
	• Act with compassion, integrity, humility and be patient.
Responsibility and autonomy.	• Accept responsibilities.
	• Allow educators to accept responsibility and act autonomously and independently, with the necessary authority, to achieve set goals without looking over their shoulders all the time.
	• Focus on results and not methods or beaurocracy.
Constructive feedback.	• Be hard on standards but soft on people.
	• Apply acceptable and known evaluation criteria.
	• Coach and support educators.
	• Do not tolerate mediocrity, but augment positive attitudes by being enthusiastic and finding something to praise.
	• Focus on strengths and not weaknesses.
	• Praise in public, criticise privately.
Engage in participative leadership and decision-making.	• Share decision-making with educators whenever possible to let them know what problems are being encountered and share in solutions to let them share ownership, experience buy-in and feel valued.
	• Set successors up by encouraging personal development.
	• Focus on priorities.
Encourage achievement	• Delegate challenging and stimulating assignments to educators in which they may be successful by taking their abilities, aspirations, talents, needs and experience into account but allow a work-life balance.
	• Seek opportunities which may promote achievement, enhance self-actualisation and build self-esteem.
	• Engage educators in important ideal-orientated goals.

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	• Communicate positive expectations.
	• Respect risk takers and support them.
	• Support and encourage educators when needed.
	• Break large tasks up into smaller achievable goals.
	• Evaluate objectively with controllable and impartial assessment criteria.
	• Promote positive attitudes by giving positive feedback.
	• Recognise, praise and celebrate achievements.
	• Let educators know they are doing something meaningful to enhance self-efficacy and self-worth.
Recognition	• Know what is going on in the school – walk the halls.
	• Set measureable, fair and achievable goals.
	• Always express honest appreciation for tasks accomplished by at least saying "thank you".
	• Give objective and constructive feedback but ensure accountability.
	• Recognise and creatively praise and/or reward contributions and achievements appropriately to let educators feel valued and to build self-esteem.
	• Celebrate achievements.
Flexibility and adaptability	• Be flexible and adapt leadership style to the situation and needs of the staff.
	• Be open-minded see the larger picture, as well as possibilities.
	• Be flexible in work allocation by taking abilities, preferences and personal situations into account.
	• Allowing autonomy and trust educators to be successful.
Providing for advancement.	• Develop leadership through delegation and training.
	• Evaluate objectively for best person-job fit before making appointments.
Providing incentives.	• Give moral as well as monetary incentives to get and retain the best educators.
	• Remunerate educators for extra-curricular activities.

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	• Provide technological aids; for example, computers.
Enhancing personal and interpersonal relationships.	• Develop key personal skills. • Be a character builder. • Inspire educators through positive and enthusiastic feedback. • Open two-way communication which includes active listening to others' viewpoints. • Consider individual needs and differences and utilise them for the common good of everybody. • Create a positive, affirming, trusting, caring and supportive environment through constructive relationships in order to enhance educator well-being and self-esteem. • Develop EI, particularly in incapacitating deficiencies. • Encourage culture building based on values. • Facilitate teamwork. • Create win-win situations.
Be innovative, creative and take calculated risks.	• Diagnose needs, initiate change and challenge the status quo by taking calculated risks to improve the organisation and not only for the sake of change itself. • Implement change according to proper procedures. • Break daily routines when necessary but honour and build traditions. • Act on intuition and test assumptions. • Provide intellectual stimulation. • Support innovation. • Inspire educators by letting them feel competent and valued.
Resilience and determination.	• Take a stand on acceptable standards and behaviour. • Persist – do not give up on educators who experience problems to achieve goals – inspire them. • Do not give up on hard to solve problems – it may be demotivating for educators. • Promote life-long learning as self-development.

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| | • Stand criticism and view it as feedback. |
| | • Do not try to change people – influence them. |

The above illustrates various dimensions to be followed up by the quantitative investigation that will be utilising the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) as instrument. Table 3.1 furthermore reveal the relationship between the determinants of job satisfaction from the literature and the job satisfaction indicators addressed by the MSQ as given in table 4.3, reflecting on the validity of the instrument.

3.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Goleman, Bar-On, Kouzes and Posner, Collins, Sigford, as well as many other proponents of EI and leadership, found the competencies mentioned in Table 3.1, to be crucial in effective leadership practices towards motivation and job satisfaction. The latter is central to sound school governance and excellence in education. These competencies should furthermore be objectively evaluated to determine the potential effectiveness of education leaders and the job satisfaction educators may experience, since job satisfaction is a crucial component of effective education. The relationship between EI, leadership and its influence on job satisfaction will be quantitatively investigated in Chapter 4.

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CHAPTER 4

QUANTITATIVE INVESTIGATION:
RESEARCH DESIGN AND REPORT OF DATA

4.1   INRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is a quantitative empirical investigation to explore the influence of the relationship between EI and the related leadership practices of Free State principals on the main determinants that mediate job satisfaction. In order to achieve this objective, the preliminary studies, quantitative methodology, instruments used and the processes followed by the researcher in the data gathering will be described in this chapter. However, the main focus of this chapter will be on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the quantitative data gathered in relation to the grounding perspectives of EI in Chapter 2 and job satisfaction in Chapter 3.

Research, according to Cooper and Schindler (2006: 4, 22), as well as Leedy and Omrod (2005: 2), is a planned and systematic process of collecting, analysing, interpreting and disseminating relevant dependable data, information and insights via an ethical scientific method. This is then used reliably by decision makers to increase their understanding of a phenomenon with the intention of guiding managerial decisions in ways that activate the organisation to take appropriate actions to maximise the organisations performance. In this exploratory investigation it was attempted to achieve the latter by describing and practically exploring the relationship between EI, leadership practices and the occurrence of job satisfaction as a social phenomenon and to adapt knowledge and identify practical issues that should be addressed in further research (Newman, 200: 21, 23).

To provide a substantial report on the effect of EI and the leadership practices of education leaders on educators' job satisfaction, it was necessary to undertake a preliminary study regarding the job satisfaction of educators based on the findings of the relationship between EI and leadership in a previous study (Oosthuyse, 2006), as will be described in 4.2. A literature study regarding the role of EI in leadership, Chapter 2, as well as in job satisfaction, Chapter 3, was also undertaken to determine the influence of education leaders' leadership on educator job satisfaction from contemporary literature. Chapter 4 will thus report the quantitative data on the subject

of the self-rated EI of education leaders and their self-rating and educators' rating of their leadership practices. Chapter 4 will furthermore, quantitatively report the job satisfaction of educators and the correlation between EI and job satisfaction, as well as between education leaders' leadership practices and job satisfaction. ANOVA's research on the influence of gender, age, qualification levels and years of experience on the job satisfaction of educators will additionally be analysed.

To achieve the objectives of determining the EI of school education leaders, how educators in the Free State experience their leaders' leadership and the educators' level of job satisfaction, a pragmatic multi-method of inquiry was conducted. This multi-method employed both a quantitative approach, as a positivistic or scientific paradigm described later in this chapter, and a qualitative approach as a post-positivistic or interpretive paradigm as described in Chapter 5. These different approaches should be seen as complementary based on the purpose of the study, which is to accommodate diverse worldviews in solving complex issues. In this investigation, the qualitative study followed the quantitative study sequentially to highlight aspects emphasised by the quantitative phase (Creswell & Clark 2007: 5, 23, 29; Thomas, 2003: 6, 7).

Neuman (2000: 17), as well as Creswell and Clark (2007: 32 – 34), see the complementary ways of a multi-method approach wherein quantitative data condense data in order to see the bigger picture. Qualitative methods on the other hand, are data enhancers insofar as they explain quantitative data and enhance understanding by portraying key aspects of cases more clearly. The blending of different complementary methods, in addition, improves the reliability and validity of the research because the qualitative approach compensates for the weaknesses of the quantitative approach and *vice versa*. By looking at the same phenomena from different angles, it is more likely that a better insight will be gained into the issues at stake (Cooper &Schindler, 2006: 219; Neuman, 2000: 125).

This chapter will first provide an overview of the preliminary study concerning the level of job satisfaction among Free State educators and then follow with an investigation in terms of exploring the affect of EI and leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators, quantitatively. The quantitative methodology, data collection instruments and the data that emerged will then be discussed.

4.2   PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

A previous study by Oosthuyse (2006) established a positive correlation between EI and leadership practices. This relationship encouraged the researcher to conduct a preliminary investigation to explore the influence of the former on the job satisfaction of educators in the light of their dissatisfaction mentioned in Chapter One (cf. 1.1).

This preliminary study among educators explored:

- Whether educators experience job satisfaction; and
- Whether they consider changing to another job.

The results of the preliminary study indicated that 80% of the educators experience little to moderate satisfaction and that 65% seriously contemplated looking for another job, if available. According to the preliminary study, the highest dissatisfaction was caused by low salaries, almost no advancement possibilities and a workload that kept educators too busy with schoolwork, resulting in too little personal time, departmental policies, ineffective recognition and a lack of achievement possibilities.

This level of dissatisfaction prompted the researcher to investigate whether this is the prevailing situation in Free State schools and provide guidelines by reviewing the relationship between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction.

In the previous investigation by Oosthuyse (2006) the EQ-Map (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997) was used to verify the EI of education leaders (principals and deputy principals) (cf. Addendum B). A Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1993) was used to determine the leadership practices of the said education leaders as rated by them and as rated by educators on their staff (cf. Addendum C).

4.2.1   Data collection instruments

The EQ-Map and Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) were used as data collection instruments in the preliminary study and will thus be discussed briefly.

- **EQ-Map**

A standardised self-reporting questionnaire, the EQ-Map (cf. Addendum B) was posted to 34 functional Free State secondary and primary school education leaders (principals and deputy principals) who agreed to participate, and thus formed the purposive convenient sample, to establish their EI. Thirty principals and deputy principals returned useable questionnaires. This test enabled the researcher to identify problem areas in EI competencies that were important in leadership practices, in order to make recommendations that should lead to improved leadership and job satisfaction. There appears to be a high correlation between EI and leadership according to the experts mentioned in Chapter One and in research by Oosthuyse (2006).

The EI abilities that were evaluated by the EQ-Map were clustered by the researcher according to the EI domains shown in Table 4.1. Table 1 also indicates the number of items that were utilised in the questionnaire to assess the different abilities but also contributed to the validity and reliability.

Table 4.1: EI abilities and number of items of the EQ-Map clustered according to the EI domains (cf. Addendum B)

EI DOMAIN	EI ABILITIES (according to the EQ-Map of Cooper and Sawaf)	NUMBER OF ITEMS
1. Emotional Awareness	Self-awareness	10
	Emotional Expression	9
	Emotional Awareness of others	13
2. The understanding and use of emotions	Compassion (Empathy)	12
	Outlook (Enthusiasm)	8
	Intuition	11
	Trust	10
	Personal Power	13
	Integrity	9
3 Controlling Emotions	Intentionality	14
	Creativity	10
	Resilience	13
	Interpersonal Connections	10
	Constructive Discontent	13

The measurements of the EQ-Map are part of the quantitative approach, given that the results were numerical. The participants had to complete each scale of the EQ-Map by circling the numbers 3, 2, 1, 0 on the scale provided to describe their experiences of emotions. 0 indicated not at all, 1 – a little, 2 – moderately well and 3 – very well. Some of the items were reverse scored to add to the validity and reliability. The scoring entailed that the total of each column had to be calculated by adding up the circled numbers of each column. The totals of the columns for each scale were added to achieve a numerical score for each scale. Those totals were then carried over to the EQ-Map Scoring Grid to determine the level of the participants' EI.

- **Leadership Practices Inventory**

The standardised Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) of Kouzes and Posner (1993: 35, 69 - 73) (cf. Addendum C) was used in this investigation to establish the level of leadership practices of the 34 participating education leaders to rate themselves,

together with how six randomly sampled educators on their staffs rated their leaders' leadership. Thirty education leaders returned both useable EQ-Maps and LPIs since one could not be used without the other. Of the 204 questionnaires sent to educators, 151 useable questionnaires were returned.

The 30 items of the LPI focused on the human and interpersonal dimensions of leadership that were postulated as EI leadership abilities. A five-point Likert scale was used to establish to what extent principals engaged in these particular leadership practices. On the Likert scale a 1 indicated that they rarely engaged in such an activity; 2 as engaging once in a while; 3 sometimes; 4 as fairly often; and a 5 indicated that they engaged very often in that activity. The 30 items of the LPI were clustered into five major components that numerically measured the leadership practices in which the participating principals engaged, as follows:

- *Modelling the way* – leaders should act consistently as an example according to clear organisational values that focus on priorities in order to achieve goals. Leaders who model the way build commitment by offering choices and by planning small wins when they break big projects down into achievable steps.
- *Inspiring a shared vision* – contagiously enthusiastic leaders solicit the emotions of others in sharing a common dream and vision for the future. A positive and hopeful future they believe in is expressively communicated, as well as how future personal interests could be realised by the shared vision. These leaders know their followers, learn from previous experience, test assumptions and act on intuition.
- *Challenging the process* – leaders should seek challenging opportunities and assignments to be innovative in breaking free from routine and challenge the status quo. Leaders should furthermore be willing to take risks, honour risk takers and treat their own and others' mistakes as learning opportunities.
- *Enabling others to act* – cooperative and trusting relationships are maintained through delegation and power sharing that involves and strengthens employees' sense of ownership. Such leaders allow employees to act autonomously and use their discretion. The leaders should be accessible and create opportunities for interpersonal interaction.
- *Encouraging the heart* – leaders recognise and acknowledge the contribution and accomplishments of others in pursuing the shared vision by praising, rewarding and by celebrating those accomplishments. Leaders should make a point of letting the whole organisation know of the accomplishments of an employee or group; these leaders love

their work; they provide feedback and create support networks.

The LPI could be regarded as reliable, since it had a reported test-retest reliability of >0, 90 and an internal reliability of 0, 80 (Kouzes & Posner, 1993: 79). The items of the LPI additionally show content and construct validity since the LPI is based on everyday lived experiences and competencies regarding leadership practices (Cooper & Shindler, 2003: 234; Kouzes & Posner, 1993: 80).

The number of EQ-Maps and LPIs distributed and returned are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Instruments distributed and returned per sample group

INSTRUMENT	TARGET GROUP	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED	NUMBER OF USEABLE RESPONSES	RESPONSE RATE %
EQ-Map	Principals	34	30	88
LPI	Principals	34	30	88
	Educators	204	151	74

4.2.2 Report of data: Emotional intelligence and leadership practices

Although Oosthuyse (2006) had already investigated the relationship between EI and leadership practices (cf. 4.2), for reflective purposes and for the interpretation of the current data, it is necessary to include his findings as they form the foundation of the present investigation.

The raw data from the EQ-Map and LPI of each of the 30 education leaders and the data from the six educator LPI scores (fewer but not less than four from some schools) of their respective education leader were kept together and analysed separately. The data were used to calculate the mean scores for each of the LPI domains (Table 4.3). The totals of each of the EI domains (Table 4.1) of the education leaders were calculated and converted to a mean score out of 30 for comparative purposes. The data from the LPI and EI were used to determine the correlations between each of the EI domains,

as well as the EI outcomes and each of the five leadership dimensions. The STATA data processing program was used to calculate the correlations.

To compute the correlations in this exploratory study, the leaders' EI scores were used as the independent variable that was manipulated by the researcher. The leadership practices' dimensions were the dependant variables to determine the effect of EI on leadership (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 40; Neuman, 2000: 127). Linear regressions were then used to determine the correlational tendency between EI and leadership practices of education leaders. Two leaders, who totally overrated their EI and leadership practices when compared to the educators' rating, were eliminated. This elimination of the outliers and the extrapolation of the data resulted in a more realistic coefficient and tendency (Hopkins, 2000: 1-3). As a consequence, it may be reasonably assumed that these leaders lacked self-awareness and an awareness of others' emotions seeing that they overestimated their EI, and leadership practices, demonstrating the problem of inflated self-rating.

The steps as described by Hopkins (2000) were followed to eliminate those outlier scores, via extrapolation, to obtain the results in Table 4.3 and 4.4.The quantitative data of the preliminary investigation will now be presented and the relationships between EI and leadership practices discussed. The results obtained from the LPI will be presented in Table 4.3 and those of the EQ-Map in Table 4.4.

Table 4.3: Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI).

N = 30. Maximum score = 30. *Average = average of leader + others.

LEADER NO.	AVERAGE * CHALLENGING THE PROCESS	AVERAGE * INSPIRING A SHARED VISION	AVERAGE * ENCOURAG-ING OTHERS TO ACT	AVERAGE * MODELLING THE WAY	AVERAGE * ENCOURAG-ING THE HEART
1	20,5	19,5	20,5	22,5	21,5
2	18,2	16,3	16,1	17,3	17,7
3	24,7	26,3	26,0	27,0	25,8
4	25,3	22,2	24,8	26,8	25,8
5	28,0	28,3	27,8	27,5	28,5
6	23,8	21,8	27,0	24,6	24,2
7	24,0	23,5	21,6	24,6	22,0
8	21,5	20,3	23,5	24,3	21,3
9	24,4	21,6	23,6	23,2	22,0
10	23,2	22,6	25,4	24,2	25,2
11	24,7	24,2	24,2	23,7	24,7
12	25,3	21,8	25,8	25,5	24,8
13	26,0	27,5	28,5	28,7	29,8
14	26,7	23,3	24,5	26,0	26,2
15	24,2	23,6	23,0	24,4	23,0
16	20,5	19,5	20,5	22,5	21,5
17	25,3	23,5	23,5	25,7	26,7
18	22,6	23,8	24,2	22,8	24,4
19	22,2	23,2	23,7	24,5	23,2
20	19,2	17,3	23,2	20,7	22,8
21	23,8	21,8	27,0	24,6	24,2
22	26,0	24,8	27,3	25,8	26,6
23	22,3	23,8	26,3	24,0	24,8
24	21,7	21,4	22,0	23,0	22,4
25	27,7	26,7	28,5	27,3	26,0
26	25,2	24,7	26,7	24,0	27,3
27	20,8	20,7	17,8	21,3	16,0
28	25,3	23,5	23,5	25,7	26,7
29	23,2	22,6	25,4	24,2	25,2
30	26,0	27,5	28,5	28,7	29,8

No specific order was followed and the leader number bears no resemblance to the number that was on the completed questionnaire.

Table 4.4: Emotional Intelligence of education leaders

(EQ-Map of Cooper and Sawaf as adapted).

N = 30.

Maximum score = 30.

LEADER NO.	AWARENESS	EMOTIONAL CONTROL	UNDERSTANDING AND THE USE OF EMOTIONS
1	22.73	26.45	23.49
2	24.85	27.14	23.65
3	24.55	28.26	23.33
4	20.30	22.22	21.90
5	29.09	22.52	26.51
6	16.67	22.11	21.27
7	20.00	23.83	19.05
8	20.30	26.05	23.49
9	21.52	24.75	19.52
10	17.58	22.76	22.86
11	23.64	21.11	18.89
12	19.09	24.02	21.75
13	22.12	26.69	21.59
14	20.61	22.60	23.49
15	18.48	24.25	20.79
16	18.79	21.96	19.84
17	20.00	21.00	22.38
18	20.61	26.43	24.13
19	24.55	25.76	26.19
20	20.30	22.38	21.90
21	27.58	23.10	28.73
22	23.33	25.72	23.33
23	20.00	21.33	20.32
24	23.33	22.89	20.32
25	22.42	27.90	22.86
26	25.15	28.86	24.44
27	19.39	24.57	20.48
28	20.00	21.00	22.38
29	17.58	22.76	22.86
30	22.12	26.69	21.59

The information in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 were then used to compute the correlations between EI and leadership practices as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Report of correlational analysis between EI and Leadership Practices

	LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY									
	Challenging the Process		Inspiring a Shared Vision		Enabling Others to Act		Modelling the Way		Encouraging the Heart	
EQ-Map	Coef.	δ	Coef.	δ	Coef.	δ	Coef.	δ	Coef.	δ
Emotional awareness	.3436*	.1405	.5234**	.1400	.3213*	.1694	.2644	.1275	.4290**	.1757
Emotional control	.3643*	.1336	.5507**	.1292	.3634*	.1605	.2936	.1207	.3325*	.1797
Understanding and the use of emotions	.3791*	.1996	.4722**	.2215	.5332**	.2208	.3827*	.1711	.5879**	.2382

 * Significant (p = 0,05) (r $\geq$ 0,31). ** Significant (p = 0,01) (r $\geq$0,42). N = 30

4.2.2.1   Relationships between EI and Leadership Practices

The aim of the investigation by Oosthuyse (2006) was to explore whether a correlation existed between EI and leadership practices (cf. 4.2). As can be seen in Table 4.6, a significant and even highly significant positive correlation between EI and leadership practices was found. Although schools as organisations could not be fully comparable to business and industrial settings, these findings were in line with local and international research in industry and businesses (cf. 2.1; 2.4).

Table 4.5 indicates a significant positive correlation between all the EI dimensions, namely: emotional awareness 0,3436; emotional control 0,3643; as well as the understanding and the use of emotions 0,3791; and the leadership practices of challenging the process. The EI dimension of emotional awareness included the competencies of self-awareness, emotional expression and an emotional awareness of others. Emotional control included intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections and constructive discontent. Understanding and the use of emotions include compassion, outlook, intuition and integrity. EI thus plays an important role in an innovative and experimenting attitude, of being willing to take risks in seeking out new opportunities, of staying up to date, as well as of learning from mistakes as advocated by Kouzes and Posner (1993).

Although leaders were proficient in the majority of the EI abilities, the EQ-Map Scoring grid indicated a few problem areas regarding certain EI abilities that are important to sound leadership: Close to 30% of the respondents were vulnerable in the area of self-awareness that should form the basis of intuition, trust and empathy; 56% of the respondents rated themselves low on compassion, which could result in low empathy towards other people and 26% could not express their emotions appropriately. The EI abilities of empathy, resilience, a positive outlook, intuition and self-awareness are important as they are the key to staff retention according to researchers; for instance Weare (2004: 122, 123) and Kuter (2004: 24). However, most of the respondents were well aware of emotions in others, but their lack of empathy could harm their interpersonal relations. They could also hamper the leaders' risk-taking since they could fail to treat mistakes as learning opportunities; this will be further investigated in the qualitative investigation reported in Chapter 5.

A high level of EI could be essential to coping with extreme work pressures and high stress levels that 80% of the education leaders indicated as affecting them emotionally and physically. EI could enable them to cope with prevailing conditions while maintaining positive interpersonal relations, such as constructive discontent and positive interpersonal relations. In the latter area almost 52% were not proficient according to the EQ-Map. In addition, almost 26% of the leaders did not feel that they perform optimally. This could be as a result of the high level of work pressures and stress experienced or of a lack of empathy and resilience that have a negative effect on their interpersonal relationships. EI training could improve this situation by helping education leaders to focus on achievements and not only on deficiencies and problems.

Highly significant correlations were furthermore found between all the EI dimensions (cf. 4.2.1; Table 4.5) and inspiring a shared vision (cf. 4.2.2), as a leadership practice. The correlations for emotional awareness 0,5234, emotional control 0,5507, as well as the understanding and use of emotions 0,47722, proved that EI is crucial in creating and maintaining positive emotions and enthusiasm for a shared vision; to be committed to a common goal and interests, through articulating a future that should be

created. 33% of the respondents were rated as vulnerable regarding a positive outlook and could react negatively when in stressful situations.

Additional positive correlations were also found between EI and the leadership practice of enabling others to act. Emotional awareness (0,3213), and emotional control (0,3634) were significant, but the understanding and use of emotions were as expected, highly significant at 0,5332. These correlations were indicative of the role of EI in strengthening others by making them feel important, strong and influential through involvement in cooperative goals through collaborative and mutually trusting relationships, where they are treated with respect. The greater majority of leaders could therefore be able to motivate others to act, as only 18% of the respondents rated themselves as vulnerable regarding the relationship quotient of the EQ-Map.

The correlation of 0,3827 between the understanding and use of emotions and modelling the way is significant and emphasised the role of leaders in establishing consistent values and beliefs in an organisation by acting as models that are consistent with their and organisational values. These leaders focus on priorities and achieve small wins by breaking projects up into smaller achievable parts, thereby keeping projects on course as indicated by the LPI.

Although the correlation between emotional awareness, emotional control and modelling the way was not as significant as in the other dimensions, the correlation between emotional awareness (0,429), the understanding and use of emotions (0,5879), and encouraging the heart was highly significant. There is also a significant correlation of 0,3325 between controlling emotions and encouraging the heart. The latter indicated the role EI plays in recognising and encouraging persistence, acknowledging the accomplishments of others, as well as encouraging them to persevere in pursuance of a shared vision. The EQ-Map however, indicated that almost 50% (14 of the 30) of the respondents rated themselves lower than proficient in resilience – the ability that may cause them to give up on problematic tasks or employees who experience problems or when executing difficult tasks.

As the former results were obtained from a homogeneous group in a purposive convenient sample, the findings could not be generalised across other settings and groups. The latter could be investigated in future research by including other cultures and education environments such as found in townships.

The researcher then took the formerly described exploratory study, which found a strong positive correlation between EI and leadership practices, a stage further by investigating the influence of the discussed EI and leadership practises on job satisfaction experienced by educators.

4.3   PRIMARY INVESTIGATION: RESEARCH DESIGN

The preliminary investigation found significant positive correlations between EI and leadership practices. The primary investigation aims to establish the influence of this relationship between EI and leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators. The methodology and research methods, the instrument, population and sampling, as well as the quantitative data gathered, will be discussed in this part of the Chapter.

4.3.1   Methodology and research methods

Seeing that this chapter represents the quantitative phase of this investigation, the quantitative methodology that underlies it and the quantitative research methods employed will therefore be discussed. Quantitative methods, as a positivistic paradigm, focus attention on precise measurements in a systematic and standardised research procedure of specific controlled aspects of phenomena or events and people (Fouché & Delport, 2007: 71; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 141). The results of quantitative studies are usually in numerical form and are often statistically explained by an 'objective' researcher who should observe and measure, whilst taking care not to contaminate data through personal involvement (Jansen, 2007: 2; Glesne & Peshkin, 1991: 6 in Thomas, 2003: 2).

The researcher may use these quantitative results to present emerging theory, knowledge, attitudes or perceptions in easily replicable research that strives to eliminate the human factor as far as possible. The researcher should thus always

attempt to be fair, honest, unbiased and truthful. Theory in quantitative research is often causal if the relationship is one of cause and effect, and deductive as it tries to explain relationships among variables, concepts, definitions and propositions through inferences and inductive conclusions advanced to explain and provide insight into phenomena (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 47, 141, 152, 198; Neuman, 2000: 40, 52, 55, 66, 123, 126, 157). Such explanations and insights are often achieved by determining the magnitude of correlation between measured variables, as will be undertaken in this chapter (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 94; Thomas, 2003: 85). Since this is an exploratory study employing a purposive convenient sample, further research should be undertaken to verify and generalise the explanations and insights.

To quantitatively establish to what extent the EI and leadership practices of school principals mediate the level of job satisfaction experienced by their staff, an exploratory quantitative study was conducted. The purpose of this exploration was to gain insight into the phenomenon and develop questions for further research in formal studies in this new area of investigation (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 139, 140, 143; Neuman, 2000: 21). The latter applies to this study, since the researcher could not find any studies linking EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction in South African schools and found only a few worldwide, thus warranting this and further investigations.

Both inductive and deductive reasoning was used in this multi-method investigation. The deductive approach of this quantitative phase, started with an abstract, logical relationship among concepts of the theoretical framework regarding EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction as a grounding perspective in Chapters 2 and 3, respectively. The inductive qualitative process of understanding and interpreting the phenomena in context will be presented in Chapter 5 (Jansen, 2007: 2; Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 58; Thomas, 2003: 94). The former theory may then be explored against the analysed data of the empirical evidence that may lead to discovering the trend or relationship between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction. This is because the sample was too small to generalise in this exploratory study. Theory guided the design of the study and the interpretation of the results and was refuted, extended or adapted on the basis of the results by conducting empirical research to test a theory (Neuman, 2000: 49, 50, 61). In deduction there is a strong bond between reason and conclusion. The conclusion followed from the reasons given while the reasons imply the conclusion and represent confirmation (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 32).

Given that data and methodology are interdependent, the methodology should take the character of the data collected into account to be able to solve the research problem; the required data thus dictate the research methodology (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 93, 94). In this study the quantitative phase preceded the qualitative investigation as the positivistic numerical outcomes of the quantitative instruments indicated problem areas which provided a base line for the qualitative investigation of Chapter 5, so as to learn about more detail regarding responses. The latter was needed because of the complexity of the research that required more comprehensive answers than only the quantitative numbers (Creswell & Clark 2007: 11, 13, 80).

To achieve the objectives of this investigation, the preceding philosophical underpinnings of quantitative research should be put into practice to determine the relationship and significance of the relationship between the EI of education leaders, the leadership practices of education leaders and the job satisfaction of educators, with the variables being numerically measured for statistical analysis. The following self-administered questionnaire was posted to participants to determine the relationship between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction via triangulation:

4.3.2   Research instruments

In this investigation the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (cf. Addendum D) was used to determine the job satisfaction of the educators alone. Since this investigation builds on the previous study by the researcher, the data obtained by the EQ-Map and LPI in that study (cf. 4.2), will be utilised in the statistical analysis of the influence of EI and leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators as determined by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) in the current investigation. The same schools and educators were used in the sample of the current study to be able to draw valid and reliable conclusions. Since the EQ-Map and LPI have been discussed already as instruments (cf. 4.2), only the MSQ, the rationale for the choice of the instruments and the sample of this primary investigation will now be discussed in detail.

4.3.2.1   Rationale for the choice of instruments

The EQ-map and LPI were used as instruments in the previous study to quantitatively determine the relationship between the EI and leadership practices of education leaders (cf. 4.6). The data from the latter will form the underpinning of this investigation which aims at establishing the influence of the positive relationship found between EI and leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators; this will be quantitatively measured by the MSQ in the current study. The MSQ is used in this investigation because it is the most practicable at this stage. While scientific requirements call for measurements to be reliable and valid, operational requirements call for measurements to be practicable.   Practicality is the economy, convenience and interpretability of instruments and its results are manifested in educational and psychological tests (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 323).

▪   Economy: The MSQ self-reporting questionnaire is efficient in terms of time, effort and money as it is readily available and easy to score. This is important in research as some instruments may either be very expensive or not easy to obtain. Since self-addressed and stamped envelopes were included for the return of the questionnaires, it saved the researcher a lot of travelling expenses and time.

▪   Convenience: The MSQ as an instrument was straightforward to administer since it had simple printed instructions, the completion time was relatively short, and more particularly, educators perceived the design and layout as very practical. A self-report questionnaire should also be convenient for the respondents since it gives them time to consider their answers. The extent of the MSQ furthermore allowed the researcher to distribute it throughout the province at the same time, either personally or by post.

▪   Interpretability: The detailed and clear instructions with examples, without crowding the material, made it easy for participants to answer the MSQ. For the researcher, it was easy to interpret this instrument since detailed procedures and instructions for administration, scoring keys and instructions, guides for test use and the reliability were available.

The pre-coded raw data were entered into a computer by the researcher. The statistical analysis was done by a research assistant at the School of Education at the University of the Free State, specialising in statistics and using the SPSS programme. This quantitative study implemented the Triangulation Method by triangulating the data

between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction. In this attempt to understand and enhance the validity of the study, the findings from the standardised questionnaires were used to provide a basis for the qualitative analysis to follow in Chapter 5, as in the exploratory design. The final conclusions may probably provide a holistic view of the topic as the inputs from the different methods may alter the outcomes as soon as the emerging variables are put together (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 63, 73, 76; Thomas, 2003: 45).

4.3.2.2   Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The researcher used the short form of the standardised Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (cf. Addendum D), a self-report instrument, to determine the level of job satisfaction of educators in the purposive convenient sample of Free State schools (cf. 4.3; 4.6). The researcher decided on the widely used MSQ as it is easy to use, understand and is applicable to various occupational groups. It is, furthermore, highly rated for its validity, reliability, content, norm availability and language level (Fourie, 2006: 119; Pii, 2003: 94). Of the 204 questionnaires sent to educators 151 useable questionnaires were returned.

The MSQ covers 20 indicators of job satisfaction, which focus mainly on the utilisation of the different motivators in order to determine the level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and work conditions of the educators. The latter indicated a level of internal consistency because of the homogeneity among items and the high correlation or similarity among the items of an instrument (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 322). A five-point Likert scale was used to numerically evaluate the level of job satisfaction in this quantitative part of the investigation. On the Likert scale, a 1 indicated that they were very dissatisfied with that aspect of their job; 2 meant dissatisfied; 3 meant that they could not decide whether they were satisfied or not; 4 indicated that they were satisfied with that aspect; and a 5 meant that they were very satisfied with that aspect of their job. The items of the MSQ were clustered into six categories as in the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) as indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Clustering of the MSQ items

CLUSTER	INDICATORS OF JOB SATISFACTION ADDRESSED BY THE ITEMS OF THE MSQ
Achievement	• Ability Utilisation: To do something that makes use of the educator's abilities. • Achievement: The feeling of accomplishment educators get from their job.
Comfort	• Activity: Being able to be kept busy all the time. • Independence: The chance to work alone on a job. • Variety: The chance to do different things from time to time. • Compensation: Salary in relation to the work done. • Security: The way education provides for steady employment. • Working Conditions: The physical working conditions.
Status	• Advancement: The chances of advancement in education. • Recognition: The praise educators get for a job well done. • Authority: The chance to tell other people what to do. • Social Status: The chance to be somebody in the community.
Altruism	• Co-workers: The way colleagues get along with one another. • Social Service: The chance to do things for other people. • Moral values: Being able to do things that do not go against their conscience.
Safety	• Departmental policies and practices: The way policies and practices are implemented. • Supervision – Human Relations: the way leaders handle their subordinates. • Supervision – Technical: The competency of principals in making decisions.
Autonomy	• Creativity: The chance of trying their own method of doing the job. • Responsibility: The freedom to use their own judgement.

A questionnaire that determined the biographic information of the participants was also included. The information requested included the participants' post level, type of school, gender, age group, years of teaching experience, terms of employment and qualification level.

The above questionnaires, including a self-addressed envelope for the return thereof were posted to all the respondents simultaneously. All the respondents received identical sets of questionnaires. The questionnaires were coded to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality, but allowed the researcher to keep the questionnaires of education leaders and the educators' rating of them together for statistical processing. The same educators who had to complete the LPI also completed the MSQ to add to the validity and reliability of the study.

As already mentioned, the researcher should remain in the background in quantitative research, but Delport (2007: 168) suggested that the researcher should be telephonically available if problems were experienced with the questionnaires. The latter was the case in this study, since the quantitative questionnaires were posted to the participants. A letter which accompanied the questionnaires requesting participants to phone the researcher if any problems were experienced, included both the telephone number and cell phone number of the researcher.

4.3.3 Population and sampling

A relatively homogenous group of functional schools, as identified by the Free State Department of Education, were selected as a sample to limit factors that could influence the research as there are different views regarding the role of culture and ethnicity in EI and leadership practices (Goleman, 1998: 353). Regarding the latter, Craig and Hannum (2006: 1), as well as Wa Kivulu (2003: 251) indicated that differences between cultures and language, the Simpson's paradox, may be problematic and lead to the incorrect interpretation of data when data of heterogeneous cultural and language groups are combined because of different patterns of self-other agreement. This could occur because of the different approaches

of Afrocentric collectivism and Eurocentric individualism (Niemann, 2008: 36). The role of these differences should be investigated in follow-up studies.

A purposive convenient sample of 34 Free State functional primary and secondary school education leaders was compiled for this exploratory study (cf. 4.2.1). The researcher selected the education leaders' sample members purposefully to conform to the criteria by being judged as part of the functional best performing schools in the Free State province. Although a convenient sample is not the most reliable and precise nonprobability sampling method, it met the sampling objectives as it could still give acceptable results. In this exploratory study only subjects that were representative because of practicality regarding sampling costs, time constraints or unavailability of subjects in some instances, were contacted (Strydom, 2007b: 202; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 323, 422 – 424).

To facilitate the compilation of this purposive convenient sample, education leaders were first contacted personally or telephonically to obtain their informed consent prior to the distribution of questionnaires, since only the results pertaining the LPI and MSQ of education leaders who completed the EQ-Map were used in the investigation. This was to ensure that the collection of data protected the personal integrity of the researcher and respondents by being ethical regarding privacy, anonymity and confidentiality as legal and moral choices about behaviour and relationships with others (Strydom, 2007a: 59). The latter method was followed in order to avoid non-cooperation or feelings of exploitation, because of the possible sensitivity of education leaders to expose themselves regarding their EI, leadership practices and subsequent ability to create an environment that would augment job satisfaction.

Six educators were selected on a random nonprobability basis per education leader to complete an LPI regarding their education leader's leadership practices and an MSQ to determine the educator's experience of job satisfaction under the leadership of that specific principal (cf. 4.2.2). Thereby bias was eliminated because error could be estimated for the different instruments and only the results of respondents who completed both the LPI and MSQ were used in this investigation. To improve the representativeness of the population, those six educators had to represent both genders where possible, and included different age groups and thus years of

experience. The subjects additionally had to have three or more years of experience in a school situation so as to be able to make a meaningful contribution (Strydom, 2007b: 193, 196, 202; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 422 – 424). Only the EQ-Map and LPI of education leaders who had four or more complete LPI and MSQ ratings by educators, per leader, were used in the statistical analysis. The MSQ was distributed to 204 educators of which 151 (74%) were returned.

Both education leaders and educators who participated in this research were safeguarded against psychological or physical harm or adverse consequences from research activities. The researcher guarded against stress, loss of self-esteem, coercion, deception, the invasion of privacy and loss of dignity by obtaining the informed consent of participants and assured the respondents of the nondisclosure of their identity and the confidentiality of all personal information seeing that the results would be reported anonymously (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 23, 24, 116; Neuman, 2000: 9, 92, 93, 96, 126).

The advantage of the purposive convenient sample was that the respondents were willing and available to participate and accessible to the researcher. However, the disadvantages and limitations to the study were that it could lead to bias in selecting the participants and that the sample could not be representative of the population and this could influence the validity of the study. However, the aim of this study was not to generalise but to establish whether relationships existed between variables.

4.3.4 Validity of the data

According to Delport (2007: 160), as well as Leedy and Omrod (2005: 92, 97), the validity of an instrument, in this instance the MSQ, is the extent to which the instrument measures the concept intended to measure. The latter allows the researcher to draw truthful conclusions concerning cause-and-effect and/or relationships from the data. Several forms of validity may be found in research literature, of which external and internal validity is the most important. External validity of research findings is the data's ability to be generalised across persons, groups, settings, treatment variations and times. Internal validity is the ability of a research instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 318; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 92).

However, the biggest threat to external validity is differences between groups (Fourie, 2006: 124, 127). Since this investigation is an exploratory study in developing emerging theory that involved a homogeneous purposive sample and attempted to establish whether a relationship existed between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction, it did not test hypotheses or lay claim to be generally applicable. Differences could very well occur if the same research involved different settings, culture and language groups, as indicated earlier in the chapter. The latter should be clarified by further research.

According to Delport (2007: 161, 162), Cooper and Schindler (2006: 319, 320), as well as Leedy and Omrod (2005: 92), validity is widely classified in four major forms:

- **Face validity** is to what extent the instrument looks like measuring a superficially specific attribute. As it is subjective it is not very reliable, but is important in ensuring the respondents' cooperation. The MSQ definitely complies with this type of validity since the items are all indicators of job satisfaction according to the motivational theories, in particular Herzberg's theory (cf. 3.4.3).

- **Content validity** applies to the MSQ since the content of the items provide full coverage of the appropriate domains of job satisfaction and of the relevant investigative questions. The instruments furthermore contained a representative sample of elements of the subject matter regarding job satisfaction to be considered adequate coverage in appropriate proportions. The contents of the MSQ were thus fully representative of the body of knowledge on the subject matter.

- **Criterion-related validity** reflects the adequate capturing of relevant aspects of the criterion, perspectives and related measures by the MSQ to form a framework that should enable the researcher to estimate the existence of current relationships linking EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction.

- The **Construct validity** of the MSQ considers both the theory and measuring instrument by matching up and measuring characteristics and inferred behaviour, such as motivation, that were not directly observable. (Delport, 2007: 161, 162; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 319, 320; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 92).

Validity may however, be affected by the Hawthorne effect also called reactivity, when people change their behaviour when they know the hypothesis or know that they are involved in research. The perceived experimenter expectancy could additionally sway the results. In this study the researcher attempted to curb both of these problems by using a multi-method that involved replication, triangulation and a representative sample of the target group (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 94).

4.3.5 Reliability of the data

A measurement procedure is reliable if it supplies consistent results under the same conditions in repeated trials (Delport, 2007: 161; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 93). Reliability is a contributor to validity but not a sufficient condition for validity. Reliability is about the estimates of the extent to which a measurement is free of random or unstable error when temporary and situational factors do not interfere. The latter implies that reliable instruments work well under different conditions at different times – the basis for stability, equivalence and internal consistency (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 321). To enhance reliability instruments should be administered consistently in a standardised fashion and adhering to criteria (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 93).

Delport (2007: 163), Neuman and Kreuger (2003: 179 – 180) suggested that reliability could be increased by: Clearly conceptualising all constructs, using more precise measures that pick more detailed information up or the use of more indicators of a variable to measure each aspect, as already explained with each instrument. Reliability may additionally be increased by the use of pilot studies, as with job satisfaction and by using the already established relationship between EI and job satisfaction by Oosthuyse (2006), as the foundation of this study. Pre-tests, before applying the final version, could also help to increase the reliability of a study. Test-retest stability and the number of indicators in the EQ-Map, LPI and MSQ were, in addition, found to be consistently high. Consistent results were reportedly secured with repeated measurements of the same person/group with the same instrument in a test-retest correlation over an interval of two weeks to a month, but in less than six months. The equivalence was also reported to be high as not much variation was introduced by different investigators (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 321, 322).

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was used to measure the internal reliability or internal consistency, by indicating to what degree all the items in a test measure the same attribute (Huysamen, 1993: 125 in Pii, 2003: 96). The high number of significant correlations between the overall job satisfaction and the different clusters of job satisfaction also indicated a high reliability (cf. 4.6.3.1).

4.4 PRIMARY INVESTIGATION: DEMO- AND BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

As mentioned in 4.2, the pre-coded raw data were entered into a computer by the researcher. This data were then statistically analysed by a research assistant, specialising in statistics, at the School of Education, and using the SPSS program.

The biographical profile of the 151 respondents from the 30 Free State schools is illustrated in the following graphs:
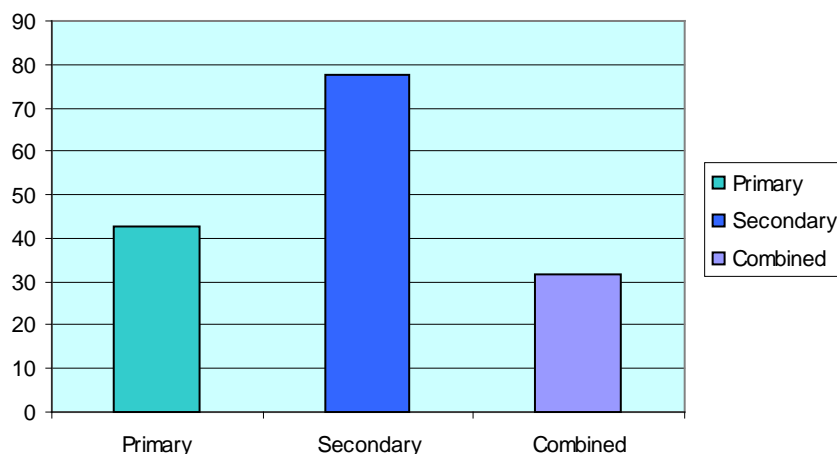

Figure 4.1: Number of respondents from the different types of schools

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, the respondents represented the following types of schools: 42 (26,6%) of the 151 educators were from primary schools; 78 (49,4%) from secondary schools; and 31 (19,6%) from combined primary and secondary schools.

_____
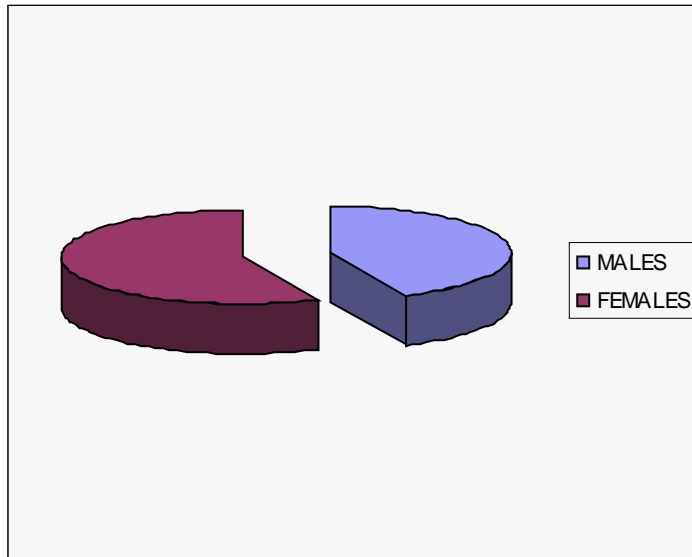
Figure 4.2: Number of educators according to gender

The gender of the respondents of the sample constituted 66 (43%) males and 85 (57%) females, as indicated in Figure 4.2; this could be considered as representative of the gender ratio found in Free State schools.
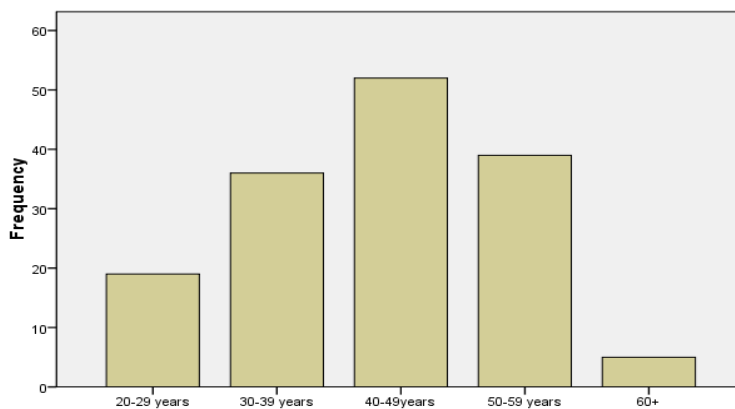

Figure 4.3: Number of respondents according to age

Figure 4.3 illustrate that 19 (12%) of the respondents were between 20 – 29 years old; 36 (22,8%) fell in the 30 – 39 years group; 52 (32,9%) were between 40 – 49 years of age; 39 (24,7%) were in the 50 – 59 year category; and 5 (3,2%) in the 60+ category. This could also be considered as a representative sample of the different age groups. Age distribution is important in this investigation because the literature in Chapter 3 indicated possible differences in job satisfaction of younger and older employees. Figure 4.4

represents the number of respondents according to their years of experience in education.
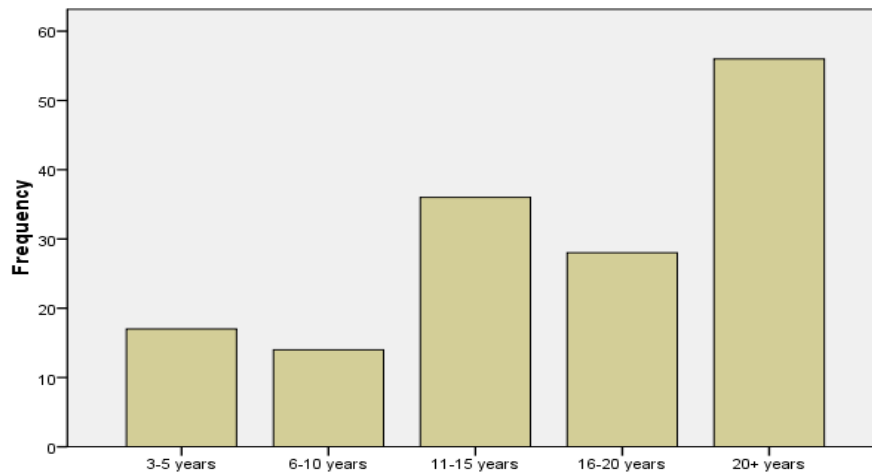

Figure 4.4: Number of educators in the different categories of years of experience

It may be seen in Figure 4.4 that the respondents had the minimum or more than the minimum of three years of experience as set out in the criteria. As the majority had more than 11 years experience, their contributions could enhance the results of the study. This and high number of educators with 20+ years experience furthermore contributed to the reliability and the validity of the study. The latter could also be an indication of the increased average age of educators (SATU, 2009: 1) since the age of the educators was not known when the sample was compiled.
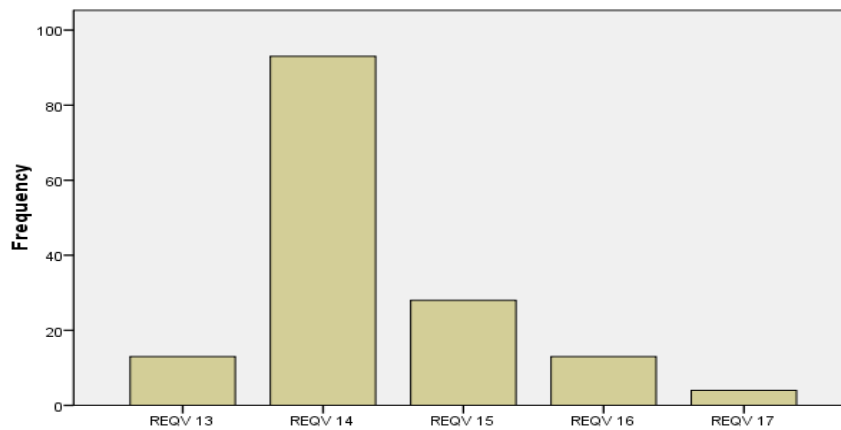
Figure 4.5: Number of respondents according to their qualifications

It is clear from Figure 4.5 that the majority of educators had 4 or more years of formal education. The raw data indicated that the few with a three year qualification were mostly to be found in primary schools or in some instances in combined schools and could thus also possibly be from the primary section. However, there were educators in post level one posts who were on REQV 16 and 17.

The previous biographical information thus confirms that the sample was representative of different age groups, genders, qualification levels and years of experience. These factors may influence the homogeneity and the job satisfaction of the different groups because of different approaches to education as a job, and will be investigated later in this chapter. The results obtained from this purposive convenient sample were quantitatively analysed to establish the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership practices, as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction and also between EI and job satisfaction.

4.5 REPORT OF DATA

Since the relationship between EI and leadership practices has already been established, the main focus of this study is on the relationship between leadership practices and job satisfaction, as well as between EI and job satisfaction. Triangulation of the data revealed by the EQ-Map, LPI and MSQ was undertaken to determine the relationships between EI, leadership and job satisfaction.

4.5.1 Leadership practices and job satisfaction

To determine the correlation between leadership and job satisfaction, the raw data of the LPI and MSQ of each of the 30 education leaders and the data from the six educators' LPI and MSQ rating scores (fewer than six but not fewer than four in some cases) of their respective education leaders were again kept together and analysed separately as was done with the EQ-Map and LPI. The data were then used to calculate the mean scores for each of the job satisfaction domains as reported in the MSQ.

The results of the clustered items of the MSQ, Table 4.7, revealed the following results:

Table 4.7: Level of job satisfaction according to the MSQ clusters

MSQ	Achieve-ment		Comfort		Status		Altruism		Safety		Autonomy	
Level of job satisfaction	No. of respon-dents	%	No. of respon-dents	%	No. of respon-dents	%	No. of respon-dents	%	No. of respon-dents	%	No. of respon-dents	%
Very dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.3	1	0,7
Dissatisfied	5	3,3	0	0	10	6,6	1	0,7	12	8,2	9	5,9
Neutral	18	12,0	15	10,1	42	27,8	6	4,0	39	25,9	18	11,9
Satisfied	78	51,9	102	67,7	73	48,3	65	43,0	67	44,3	69	45,7
Very satisfied	50	32,9	34	22,2	26	17,2	79	52,3	31	20,3	54	35,8
Total	151	100	151	100	151	100	151	100	151	100	151	100

(Refer to Table 4.3 for the full information regarding the items included in each cluster)

Table 4.7 provides a clear indication that the majority of educators were satisfied by most of the aspects of job satisfaction. If the number of dissatisfied and very

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dissatisfied rated clusters are added together, it amounts to only 3,2% or 5 out of 151 educators for the achievement cluster which included ability utilisation and feelings of accomplishment; 0 for the comfort cluster which included being independently actively busy with a variety of activities in a secure and sound work environment, while being compensated in relation to the work done. 6,6% (10 educators) for the status cluster which included indicators of job satisfaction such as advancement, recognition, authority and social status, only 0,7% or 1 educator was dissatisfied in the altruism cluster This addressed the relations between co-workers, being of social service and being allowed not to do things against their moral values.

Educators were more dissatisfied with the safety cluster regarding the departmental policies and practices and the relations and technical supervision, with 9,5% or 14 educators, but were more satisfied with their autonomy, in which 6,6% were not satisfied. The autonomy cluster included the items regarding creativity the educators were allowed to employ and whether the principal approved and encouraged the use of their own judgement and were thus able to assume responsibility. However, if the neutral or undecided respondents were added to the above, as they were still not satisfied, the percentage would increase substantially. It therefore appears at this stage from Table 4.7 that aspects of the achievement, status, safety and autonomy clusters (cf. 4.3.2.1) should be further investigated quantitatively to establish the personal stances of the respondents regarding aspects of dissatisfaction.

However, in a cluster an item that was rated as being very dissatisfying could be neutralised by other items that the respondent rated as being satisfied or very satisfied with. The cluster could then provide a mean score for a specific cluster that seems to indicate overall satisfaction. The latter could also happen in the real job situation when people could be dissatisfied by some aspects of their job, but other highly satisfactory aspects compensate for the former. The dissatisfaction could, on the other hand, lead to frustration and lower productivity holding the organisation back, particularly if educators focus on the aspects they were dissatisfied with, and emotional contagion were to play a role. In order to investigate which individual items caused the most dissatisfaction, the raw data of the MSQ were analysed and these items were qualitatively probed by in depth interviews as described in Chapter 5.

The average scores, standard deviation and variance of the different job satisfaction clusters are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Average scores, Standard deviation and Variance of educator job satisfaction

	Achievement	Comfort	Status	Altruism	Safety	Autonomy
Valid (N)	151	151	151	151	151	151
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	4.15	4.12	3.77	4.48	3.74	4.11
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4	5	4	4
Std. Deviation	.747	.557	.813	.594	.918	.871
Variance	.558	.310	.661	.353	.843	.759

The mean scores (>3) and median (>4) of Table 4.8 confirm the previously mentioned overall satisfaction. By taking the standard deviation and variance as the spread of data around the average for the different clusters into account, the general satisfaction of the sample can be seen (Jansen, 2007: 19). However, the mean score of 3,74 for the safety cluster was the lowest of all the clusters and with a standard deviation of 0,918 and a variance of 0,843 the safety cluster had the largest variance in responses, as well as the most dissatisfied educators. The safety cluster included the policies and practices, as well as supervision as human relations and technical competencies. The status cluster, which included advancement, recognition, authority and social status, had a mean score of 3,77 but a standard deviation of 0,813 and a variance of 0,661. The latter is a supplementary substantiation for in-depth qualitative investigation of the safety and status clusters as will be described in Chapter 5.

To investigate the importance of leadership practices towards job satisfaction, a statistical correlational analysis was done.

4.5.1.1   Correlation between the leadership practices (LPI) and overall job satisfaction (MSQ)

A correlational analysis, with the LPI clusters as the independent variable and the job satisfaction clusters as the dependent variable, was done to establish the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of the sample, as determined by the MSQ, and the clusters of the LPI. Table 4.9 contains the results of this analysis.

Table 4.9: The correlation between overall job satisfaction and the clusters of job satisfaction

Leadership Practices		Challenging the process	Inspiring a shared vision	Encouraging others to act	Modelling the way	Encouraging the heart
Job satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.381*	.245	.373*	.366*	.440**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.191	.043	.047	.015
	N	30	30	30	30	30

* Significant (p = 0,05), (r $\geq$ 0,31).

** Significant (p = 0,01), (r $\geq$ 0,42).

When the overall job satisfaction experienced was compared to the different clusters of the LPI, it could be seen that there was a significant correlation of 0,44 between overall job satisfaction and encouraging the heart. The latter refers to the education leaders' ability to recognise and praise others' contributions and accomplishments, together with feedback and support. There were also significant correlations between job satisfaction and challenging the process (0,381) by being innovative and challenging the status quo; encouraging others to act (0,373) by cooperative relationships; trust and power sharing that allows autonomous action; and modelling the way (0,366) by setting an example in the pursuance of priorities and goals. Although inspiring a shared vision of a hopeful future (0,245) was not that significant, it was still positive (cf. 4.2.1.2). Significant and mostly highly significant correlations also existed between the different clusters of the LPI.

In accordance with the theoretical foundation of job satisfaction (Chapter 3) the relationship between the components of job satisfaction, as indicated by the MSQ and the principals' leadership practices will be investigated through a correlational analysis presented in Table 4.10. This may reveal which leadership practices are the most significant in securing job satisfaction.

Table 4.10: The correlation between leadership practices (LPI) and job satisfaction (MSQ)

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES (LPI)		JOB SATISFACTION (MSQ)					
		Achieve-ment	Comfort	Status	Altruism	Safety	Autonomy
Challenging the process	Pearson Correlation	.414*	.317*	.183	.079	.385*	.425**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.088	.332	.680	.036	.019
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Inspiring a shared vision	Pearson Correlation	.338*	.192	.109	-.020	.344*	.179
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068	.310	.568	.916	.063	.345
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Encouraging others to act	Pearson Correlation	.435**	.336*	.179	.113	.374*	.346*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016	.069	.345	.552	.042	.061
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Modelling the way	Pearson Correlation	.451**	.268	.186	.120	.337*	.395*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.152	.324	.528	.068	.031
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Encouraging the heart	Pearson Correlation	.509**	.348*	.296	.165	.346*	477**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.059	.112	.382	.061	.008
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30

*Significant ($p = 0,05$), ($r \geq 0,31$). ** Significant ($p = 0,01$), ($r \geq 0,42$).

The aim of this investigation was to establish the influence of EI leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators in the Free State province. As it was previously found that significant and highly significant positive correlations existed between EI and leadership practices (cf. 4.6.2.1), the next step was to determine the relationship

between leadership practices and job satisfaction to enable the researcher to triangulate the variables, namely EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction.

As seen in Table 4.10, significant and highly significant correlations were found between all the clusters of leadership practices and the job satisfaction clusters of achievement, comfort, safety and autonomy. The other two clusters of job satisfaction, namely status and altruism, were positively correlated although not that significant, except between inspiring a shared vision and altruism that showed a very slight negative correlation. The significance of these correlations will now be discussed.

4.5.1.2   Relationship between leadership practices and job satisfaction

Table 4.10 indicates that a highly significant correlation of 0,425 exists between the leadership practice of **challenging the process** and autonomy as a contributor to job satisfaction. Challenging the process implies that education leaders should be innovative risk takers, challenge the status quo and devise stimulating opportunities and assignments while viewing mistakes as learning opportunities. The autonomy cluster on the other hand, included the job satisfaction indicators of creativity so as to permit educators to try their own methods and the freedom to use their own judgement. Significant correlations furthermore exist between the leadership practice of challenging the process and achievement (0,414), thus making use of educators' abilities, as well as comfort (0,317) and safety (0,385) as job satisfaction domains. Comfort incorporated the job satisfaction indicators of activity, variety, compensation, the security of steady employment and sound physical work conditions.

These correlations confirmed that education leaders who exhibit the leadership practice of challenging the process, by seeking challenging opportunities and assignments to be innovative, in breaking free from routine and challenging the status quo, afforded educators a much higher level of job satisfaction. These education leaders were furthermore, willing to take risks, honour risk takers on their staff and treat their own and others' mistakes as learning opportunities. These education leaders thus allowed educators autonomy in being creative and responsible for their actions and the concomitant results. Educators additionally experienced a sense of achievement when their abilities were utilised fully in achieving set goals and results. The former contribute to job comfort as they cater for a variety of independent activities in secure and physically,

as well as psychologically sound working conditions. Because these education leaders were innovative risk takers who challenged the status quo, the educators experienced safety in the way policies and practices were implemented. The human relations maintained between them and their supervisors, as well as the technical expertise of their supervisors, who kept up to date, furthermore enhanced the educator job satisfaction (cf. 4.3.2.1 Table 4.3).

There were additional significant correlations between **inspiring a shared vision** as a leadership practice competency and achievement (0, 338), as well as safety (0, 344) as prerequisites for job satisfaction.

By inspiring a shared vision, enthusiastic education leaders should enlist the emotions of others by skilfully communicating a shared, positive and hopeful future which they believe in. The latter include the realisation of personal interests through a shared vision. In addition, these leaders know their followers; learn from previous experience; test assumptions and are able to act on intuition. The inspiration by the communicated shared vision, takes personal interests into account, enhances achievement by encouraging and utilising all the educators' abilities to feel that they have accomplished something worthwhile. The enthusiasm and positive communication could lead to improved human relations between education leaders as supervisors. Since leaders who inspire a shared vision believe in themselves and what they are envisioning while they test assumptions and are able to act on intuition, they could be seen as technically competent in making decisions (cf. 4.2.2).

A further highly significant correlation of 0,435 is to be found between education leaders who could **encourage or enable others to act,** as sound interpersonal relationships; thereby helping educators to feel trusted and valued by utilising their abilities, and achievements towards job satisfaction. Significant positive correlations could additionally be identified between encouraging others to act and job comfort (0,336), safety (0,374) and autonomy (0, 346).

The highly significant and significant correlations between encouraging and enabling others to act as a leadership competency, with comfort, safety and autonomy as contributors towards job satisfaction emphasises the importance of leadership in achieving job satisfaction.   Encouraging others to act and build cooperative

relationships and trust that strengthen others and help others to feel important and capable by utilising their abilities in achieving goals, keep them actively busy. Educators should furthermore be involved in planning decision-making and problem solving to experience ownership. The latter could be achieved through delegation that allows and encourages educators to act creatively, autonomously and independently in executing a variety of tasks for which they should accept responsibility. The principal should always be accessible to assist (cf. 4.2.1; 4.2.2; Table 4.4 & 4.6).

A highly significant correlation of 0,451 which existed between leaders that **modelled the way** and educators who experienced achievement in their jobs, showed the importance of leaders who act as models. The correlations of 0,337 and 0.395 between safety and autonomy as part of job satisfaction and modelling the way as a leadership competency furthermore indicated how important it is for leaders to be role models.

By modelling the way leaders act consistently as an example according to personal organisational values that focus on priorities in order to achieve goals. Leaders who model the way build commitment by offering choices that utilise the creativity, responsibility and abilities of employees. Such leaders help educators to experience achievement by planning small wins when they break big projects down into smaller achievable steps (cf. 4.2.2; Table 4.4 & 4.5).

The highest significant correlation of 0,509 existed in this part of the investigation of leaders who were able to **encourage the hearts** of educators toward achievement. Encouraging the heart includes recognising achievements and allowing and encouraging independent, creative and responsible actions. A highly significant correlation of 0,477 also existed between encouraging the heart and autonomy in job satisfaction. The correlations of 0,348 between encouraging the heart and the comfort domain, as well as 0,346 between encouraging the heart and the safety domain is additional confirmation of the significant role of leadership in job satisfaction experienced by educators.

The above-mentioned highly significant and significant correlations between the leadership practice of encouraging the heart and achievement, autonomy, comfort and safety as indicators of job satisfaction, stresses the importance of encouragement and

recognition as positive feedback in achieving job satisfaction. In order to achieve goals, education leaders should encourage educators to be creative and think innovatively in order to realise their potential while engaging them in activities that utilise their abilities. Educators should furthermore be allowed to act independently in creative activities that include a manageable variety of tasks for which they should assume responsibility, or they could get bored or experience burn-out, even in sound working conditions. The positive correlation between safety and encouraging the heart imbues education leaders with high decision-making competencies that maintain good interpersonal relations (cf. 4.2.2; 4.6.2.1; table 4.4 & 4.6).

Although the correlations between the leadership practices of challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging others to act, modelling the way and encouraging the heart did not show significant correlations with the job satisfaction domains of status and altruism, the correlations were all positive except for between inspiring a shared vision and altruism that was very slightly negative at -0,02 (cf. 4.2.2; 4.6.2.1; Table 4.4 & 4.6).

From this overall positive correlation between the leadership practices of principals and job satisfaction experienced by educators, it may be deduced that an education leader's leadership practices could have an immense influence on the job satisfaction of educators. As this was an exploratory study in functional schools, further investigation is imperative by involving a larger sample that is representative of different settings and cultures, so as to be able to generalise.

At this stage it may be concluded from the correlational analysis that the EI of education leaders could be a predictor of and an influence on their leadership practices. A leader's leadership practices again play a major role in the job satisfaction of educators. The influence of the EI of education leaders on the job satisfaction of educators will be investigated in the next part of this study.

4.5.2 Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

To determine the relationship between EI and job satisfaction by using a correlational analysis, EI formed the independent variable and job satisfaction the dependent variable. The results are tabulated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: The correlation between EI and job satisfaction

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE		JOB SATISFACTION					
		Achievement	**Comfort**	**Status**	**Altruism**	**Safety**	**Autonomy**
Awareness	Pearson Correlation	-.129	-.046	-.072	-.281	-.145	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.497	.810	.705	.133	.444	.805
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Managing emotions	Pearson Correlation	.043	-.190	-.130	-.388*	-.026	-.329*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.822	.315	.495	.034	.893	.076
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30
Understanding and the use of emotions	Pearson Correlation	.072	.098	-.068	-.003	-.041	.064
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.704	.607	.720	.988	.828	.735
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30

*   Significant (p = 0,05), (r $\geq$ 0,31). ** Significant (p = 0,01), (r $\geq$ 0,42).

Contrary to the former positive relationships between EI and leadership practices, as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction, significant negative correlations of -0,388 existed between the EI domain of emotional control and the job satisfaction cluster of altruism, as well as -0,329 between emotional management and autonomy towards job satisfaction. Emotional management includes the EI competencies of intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections and constructive discontent. Altruism, on the other hand, comprises getting along with co-workers, being of social service and not compromising one's values. Autonomy again, includes creativity and responsibility. The EQ-Map indicated that many education leaders experience problems in expressing their emotions appropriately and in conveying their discontent constructively (cf. 4.6.2.2). These negative correlations may thus indicate that too much emotional management may possibly have negative effects

on job satisfaction regarding education leaders' expression of their vision, their interpersonal relations, moral values and being of social service. The latter may additionally lead to the perception that principals are insensitive, are aloof and lack empathy. However, if a principal focuses too much on relationships and too little on the successful accomplishment of tasks, it may impair successful leadership, giving direction and enforcing the necessary standards. It may, in addition, possibly hamper creativity and allow autonomous actions because educators feel insecure because of the education leader's lack of direction and goal-setting (cf. 4.2.1; 4.2.2; 4.6.2). These problem areas will be further qualitatively investigated in Chapter 5.

As indicated in Table 4.11, the positive correlations between emotional control and achievement, as well as the understanding and use of emotions and achievement, comfort and autonomy are too insignificant on which to base any conclusions. The other EI and job satisfaction domains indicated only very small insignificant correlations and will thus not be discussed.

A factor that may have influenced the results is that particularly the sample of education leaders was relatively small for this exploratory study and could have had a negative effect on the reliability and validity of the results. As stated previously, a further investigation using a more representative sample should be undertaken. Another problem could be the reliability of the self-report questionnaires for EI as indicated by those who overrated themselves (cf. 4.2.1; 4.6.2). The ideal would have been to have educators rate the EI of principals as well, but that could have resulted in fewer respondents because it is such a sensitive issue. An additional factor that may have had an effect on the results is the Hawthorne effect, when people change their behaviour when they are involved in research. The perceived experimenter expectancy could therefore also have resulted in principals that under-rated themselves. The ideal would be to investigate the relationship between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction using a much more representative sample of the total population, since this exploratory study found highly significant correlations between EI and leadership, as well as between leadership and job satisfaction.

Moreover, in education the education leader is not solely accountable for all the factors that may influence job satisfaction. The education leader is responsible for leadership in the school, with which the respondents were generally satisfied, but the managerial

role of the Department of Education regarding salaries, departmental policies and practices, as well as advancement could not be overlooked. The latter were the items with which the respondents were the most dissatisfied. The role of the heads of the different departments should also not be neglected in the job satisfaction educator's experience; their role represents another field of investigation for further research.

However, the results of Table 4.11 may furthermore be indicative of the fact that although principals may have a high EI but lack competent leadership practices as actualised EI (cf. 2.3), they may not have a positive effect on the job satisfaction of educators. It furthermore confirms that it is not always the most likeable persons that make outstanding principals and whose educators experience job satisfaction if they are not efficient in leadership practices or are hampered by beaurocracy (cf. 3.4.7).

4.5.3   Difference of means in terms of job satisfaction as experienced by the various groups: gender, qualification levels, age groups and teaching experience of educators

According to research in the UK by for example, Evans (1998) Oshagbemi (2003) and Weare (2004), different genders, qualification levels, age and experience in a job may influence the job satisfaction of educators. The t-tests for significance and one-way Anova analysis was done to statistically determine if any differences existed between different groupings in the sample based on age, gender qualification level and years of teaching experience as discussed in 4.5.

4.5.3.1 The relationship between job satisfaction and gender

To determine if significant differences in the job satisfaction of the different genders existed, a t-test of significance was conducted, the results of which are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: T-Test for job satisfaction according to gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Achievement	Male	68	4.12	.761	.094
	Female	90	4.14	.758	.082
Comfort	Male	68	4.12	.545	.068
	Female	90	4.09	.570	.062
Status	Male	68	3.65	.779	.097
	Female	90	3.85	.779	.085
Altruism	Male	68	4.42	.583	.072
	Female	90	4.49	.610	.066
Safety	Male	68	3.74	.871	.108
	Female	90	3.71	.974	.106
Autonomy	Male	68	4.14	.726	.090
	Female	90	4.04	.981	.106

The mean scores (>3), indicated by Table 4.12, indicate that on average, all the educators are satisfied with all of the job satisfaction indicators (cf. 4.6.2; Table 4.3; 4.7; 4.8 & 4.10). Table 4.12 additionally indicates only slight differences between the mean scores of job satisfaction experienced by males and females. It appears though, as if females were on average slightly more satisfied by their status category. However, if the standard deviation for the status cluster for males were to be taken into account, many may have been <3. The latter implies that males specifically, were not as satisfied with their advancement, recognition, authority and social status. The latter will be explored further in Chapter 5. Males were, on the other hand, slightly more satisfied with the autonomy (creativity and responsibility) they experienced.

Females found the indicators of altruism as involved the relations with co-workers, being of social service and of possessing moral values, also more satisfactory than males. If the standard deviation is brought into the equation, many should have scored <3 for altruism. On analysis of the raw data, it transpired that it was particularly the departmental policies and practices, for which the principal is not responsible, but could have an impact via the implementation, which had very low scores. The latter will also be investigated in Chapter 5.

To further investigate the differences between the identified groups, the role of different qualification levels on job satisfaction was investigated.

4.5.3.2 The job satisfaction of educators according to different qualification levels

Since the literature indicated differences in the job satisfaction of employees with different qualification levels, an ANOVA was completed using the qualitative results of the MSQ. These results are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: One-way ANOVA for differences in job satisfaction between groups with different qualifications (ALPHA 0.05).

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Achievement	Between Groups	8.793	4	2.198	4.192	.003*
	Within Groups	76.558	146	.524		
	Total	85.351	150			
Comfort	Between Groups	4.019	4	1.005	3.469	.010*
	Within Groups	42.286	146	.290		
	Total	46.305	150			
Status	Between Groups	4.385	4	1.096	1.808	.130
	Within Groups	88.503	146	.606		
	Total	92.887	150			
Altruism	Between Groups	2.456	4	.614	1.754	.141
	Within Groups	51.094	146	.350		
	Total	53.550	150			
Safety	Between Groups	3.108	4	.777	.906	.462
	Within Groups	125.210	146	.858		
	Total	128.318	150			
Autonomy	Between Groups	7.404	4	1.851	2.491	.046*
	Within Groups	108.476	146	.743		
	Total	115.881	150			

* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.13 indicates that significant differences exist between the satisfaction domains of achievement, comfort and autonomy and sample groups with different qualification levels.

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The differences in job satisfaction between different qualification levels are indicated by the multiple comparisons in Table 4.14. Only the relevant data will be shown in the text. The complete table may be seen in Addendum E.

Table 4.14: Multiple comparisons of the job satisfaction of respondents according to qualification level

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Qualifications	(J) Qualifications	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Achievement	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.226	.214	.830	-.82	.37
		REQV 15	-.071	.243	.998	-.74	.60
		REQV 16	-.154	.284	.983	-.94	.63
		REQV 17	**1.250***	**.414**	**.025***	.11	2.39
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.226	.214	.830	-.37	.82
		REQV 15	.154	.156	.860	-.28	.59
		REQV 16	.072	.214	.997	-.52	.66
		REQV 17	**1.476***	**.370**	**.001***	.45	2.50
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.071	.243	.998	-.60	.74
		REQV 14	-.154	.156	.860	-.59	.28
		REQV 16	-.082	.243	.997	-.75	.59
		REQV 17	**1.321***	**.387**	**.007***	.25	2.39
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.154	.284	.983	-.63	.94
		REQV 14	-.072	.214	.997	-.66	.52
		REQV 15	.082	.243	.997	-.59	.75
		REQV 17	**1.404***	**.414**	**.008***	.26	2.55
	REQV 17	REQV 13	**-1.250***	**.414**	**.025***	-2.39	-.11
		REQV 14	**-1.476***	**.370**	**.001***	-2.50	-.45
		REQV 15	**-1.321***	**.387**	**.007***	-2.39	-.25
		REQV 16	**-1.404***	**.414**	**.008***	-2.55	-.26
Comfort	REQV 13	REQV 14	.057	.159	.996	-.38	.50
		REQV 15	-.132	.181	.949	-.63	.37
		REQV 16	.154	.211	.949	-.43	.74
		REQV 17	**.904***	**.308**	**.031***	.05	1.75
	REQV 14	REQV 13	-.057	.159	.996	-.50	.38
		REQV 15	-.189	.116	.482	-.51	.13
		REQV 16	.097	.159	.974	-.34	.54
		REQV 17	**.847***	**.275**	**.020***	.09	1.61
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.132	.181	.949	-.37	.63
		REQV 14	.189	.116	.482	-.13	.51
		REQV 16	.286	.181	.511	-.21	.78
		REQV 17	**1.036***	**.288**	**.004***	.24	1.83
	REQV 16	REQV 13	-.154	.211	.949	-.74	.43
		REQV 14	-.097	.159	.974	-.54	.34
		REQV 15	-.286	.181	.511	-.78	.21

		REQV 17	.750	.308	.111	-.10	1.60
	REQV 17	REQV 13	**-.904***	**.308**	**.031***	-1.75	-.05
		REQV 14	**-.847***	**.275**	**.020***	-1.61	-.09
		REQV 15	**-1.036***	**.288**	**.004***	-1.83	-.24
		REQV 16	-.750	.308	.111	-1.60	.10
Autonomy	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.052	.255	1.000	-.76	.65
		REQV 15	-.066	.289	.999	-.86	.73
		REQV 16	.000	.338	1.000	-.93	.93
		REQV 17	1.327	.493	.060	-.03	2.69
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.052	.255	1.000	-.65	.76
		REQV 15	-.014	.186	1.000	-.53	.50
		REQV 16	.052	.255	1.000	-.65	.76
		REQV 17	**1.379***	**.440**	**.018***	.16	2.59
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.066	.289	.999	-.73	.86
		REQV 14	.014	.186	1.000	-.50	.53
		REQV 16	.066	.289	.999	-.73	.86
		REQV 17	**1.393***	**.461**	**.024***	.12	2.67
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.000	.338	1.000	-.93	.93
		REQV 14	-.052	.255	1.000	-.76	.65
		REQV 15	-.066	.289	.999	-.86	.73
		REQV 17	1.327	.493	.060	-.03	2.69
	REQV 17	REQV 13	**-1.327***	**.493**	**.060***	-2.69	.03
		REQV 14	**-1.379***	**.440**	**.018***	-2.59	-.16
		REQV 15	**-1.393***	**.461**	**.024***	-2.67	-.12
		REQV 16	-1.327	.493	.060	-2.69	.03

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 (95%) level.

As indicated by the significant mean differences in Table 4.14, educators with the highest qualification levels in this investigation found achievement as ability utilisation and the feeling of accomplishing something worthwhile, comfort as a variety of activities that keep them purposefully busy, independence, compensation, the security of steady employment and good working conditions less satisfying than the other qualification levels. Autonomy that included being allowed to be creative and responsibility insofar as they were allowed to use their own judgement were also rated as significantly less satisfying at the higher qualification levels. These areas will thus also be investigated qualitatively in Chapter 5.

This finding corresponds with the current literature which indicates that the higher qualification levels may find the above factors less satisfying, because educators with excellent qualifications who approach their work as a career find their expectancies of advancement not met (cf. 3.3.4; 3.5.2; 3.5.6). The latter may be less satisfying, or even dissatisfying, as it includes their evaluation of their contribution, self-esteem, and

recognition, perceptions of achievement, autonomy and responsibility as important motivators according to Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland (cf. 3.3.1; 3.3.3; 3.3.5; 3.5.1; 3.5.4).

No significant differences were manifested in the satisfaction levels between the qualification levels regarding the domains of status, altruism and safety (see Addendum 3). The influence of age on the job satisfaction of educators will be investigated since it is usually older people who possess higher qualifications.

4.5.3.3 The job satisfaction of educators according to different age categories

The relationship between the age of the respondents and their job satisfaction is presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: One-way ANOVA for differences in job satisfaction between groups according to the different age categories

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Achievement	Between Groups	6.647	4	1.662	3.083	.018*
	Within Groups	78.704	146	.539		
	Total	85.351	150			
Comfort	Between Groups	4.459	4	1.115	3.889	.005*
	Within Groups	41.846	146	.287		
	Total	46.305	150			
Status	Between Groups	6.610	4	1.652	2.796	.028*
	Within Groups	86.278	146	.591		
	Total	92.887	150			
Altruism	Between Groups	3.256	4	.814	2.363	.056
	Within Groups	50.294	146	.344		
	Total	53.550	150			
Safety	Between Groups	11.013	4	2.753	3.427	.010*
	Within Groups	117.305	146	.803		
	Total	128.318	150			
Autonomy	Between Groups	10.678	4	2.670	3.705	.007*
	Within Groups	105.203	146	.721		
	Total	115.881	150			

* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.15 indicates that significant differences exist between the job satisfactions of different age groups. Only altruism at 0,056 was not significant at the 0,05 level but very close to it. Multiple comparisons between the job satisfactions of different age groups yielded the results shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Multiple comparisons of the job satisfaction of respondents according to the age groups

Tukey HSD   (0,05)

Dependent Variable	(I) Age group	(J) Age group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Achievement	20-29 years	30-39 years	.276	.208	.675	-.30	.85
		40-49 years	.392	.197	.276	-.15	.94
		50-59 years	**.655***	**.205**	**.015***	.09	1.22
		60+	.726	.369	.287	-.29	1.75
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.276	.208	.675	-.85	.30
		40-49 years	.115	.159	.950	-.32	.56
		50-59 years	.378	.170	.175	-.09	.85
		60+	.450	.350	.701	-.52	1.42
	40-49 years	20-29 years	-.392	.197	.276	-.94	.15
		30-39 years	-.115	.159	.950	-.56	.32
		50-59 years	.263	.156	.443	-.17	.69
		60+	.335	.344	.867	-.61	1.28
	50-59 years	20-29 years	**-.655***	**.205**	**.015***	-1.22	-.09
		30-39 years	-.378	.170	.175	-.85	.09
		40-49 years	-.263	.156	.443	-.69	.17
		60+	.072	.349	1.000	-.89	1.04
	60+	20-29 years	-.726	.369	.287	-1.75	.29
		30-39 years	-.450	.350	.701	-1.42	.52
		40-49 years	-.335	.344	.867	-1.28	.61
		50-59 years	-.072	.349	1.000	-1.04	.89
Comfort	20-29 years	30-39 years	.307	.152	.261	-.11	.73
		40-49 years	.378	.144	.070	-.02	.77
		50-59 years	**.576***	**.150**	**.002***	.16	.99
		60+	.474	.269	.401	-.27	1.22
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.307	.152	.261	-.73	.11
		40-49 years	.071	.116	.974	-.25	.39
		50-59 years	.269	.124	.195	-.07	.61
		60+	.167	.256	.966	-.54	.87
	40-49years	20-29 years	-.378	.144	.070	-.77	.02
		30-39 years	-.071	.116	.974	-.39	.25
		50-59 years	.199	.113	.406	-.11	.51
		60+	.096	.251	.995	-.60	.79
	50-59 years	20-29 years	**-.576***	**.150**	**.002**	-.99	-.16
		30-39 years	-.269	.124	.195	-.61	.07

		40-49 years	-.199	.113	.406	-.51	.11
		60+	-.103	.254	.994	-.81	.60
	60+	20-29 years	-.474	.269	.401	-1.22	.27
		30-39 years	-.167	.256	.966	-.87	.54
		40-49 years	-.096	.251	.995	-.79	.60
		50-59 years	.103	.254	.994	-.60	.81
Status	20-29 years	30-39 years	.408	.218	.338	-.19	1.01
		40-49 years	.293	.206	.616	-.28	.86
		50-59 years	**.671***	**.215**	**.018***	.08	1.26
		60+	.558	.386	.600	-.51	1.63
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.408	.218	.338	-1.01	.19
		40-49 years	-.115	.167	.958	-.58	.34
		50-59 years	.263	.178	.578	-.23	.75
		60+	.150	.367	.994	-.86	1.16
	40-49 years	20-29 years	-.293	.206	.616	-.86	.28
		30-39 years	.115	.167	.958	-.34	.58
		50-59 years	.378	.163	.144	-.07	.83
		60+	.265	.360	.947	-.73	1.26
	50-59 years	20-29 years	**-.671***	**.215**	**.018***	-1.26	-.08
		30-39 years	-.263	.178	.578	-.75	.23
		40-49 years	-.378	.163	.144	-.83	.07
		60+	-.113	.365	.998	-1.12	.90
	60+	20-29 years	-.558	.386	.600	-1.63	.51
		30-39 years	-.150	.367	.994	-1.16	.86
		40-49 years	-.265	.360	.947	-1.26	.73
		50-59 years	.113	.365	.998	-.90	1.12
Altruism	20-29 years	30-39 years	.156	.166	.881	-.30	.62
		40-49 years	.165	.157	.832	-.27	.60
		50-59 years	.428	.164	.075	-.03	.88
		60+	.484	.295	.474	-.33	1.30
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.156	.166	.881	-.62	.30
		40-49 years	.009	.127	1.000	-.34	.36
		50-59 years	.271	.136	.271	-.10	.65
		60+	.328	.280	.768	-.45	1.10
	40-49 years	20-29 years	-.165	.157	.832	-.60	.27
		30-39 years	-.009	.127	1.000	-.36	.34
		50-59 years	.263	.124	.220	-.08	.61
		60+	.319	.275	.773	-.44	1.08
	50-59 years	20-29 years	-.428	.164	.075	-.88	.03
		30-39 years	-.271	.136	.271	-.65	.10
		40-49 years	-.263	.124	.220	-.61	.08
		60+	.056	.279	1.000	-.71	.83
	60+	20-29 years	-.484	.295	.474	-1.30	.33
		30-39 years	-.328	.280	.768	-1.10	.45
		40-49 years	-.319	.275	.773	-1.08	.44
		50-59 years	-.056	.279	1.000	-.83	.71
Safety	20-29 years	30-39 years	.133	.254	.985	-.57	.84
		40-49 years	.413	.240	.426	-.25	1.08
		50-59 years	**.772***	**.251**	**.021***	.08	1.46

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		60+	.305	.451	.961	-.94	1.55
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.133	.254	.985	-.84	.57
		40-49 years	.280	.194	.603	-.26	.82
		50-59 years	**.639***	**.207**	**.020***	.07	1.21
		60+	.172	.428	.994	-1.01	1.35
	40-49 years	20-29 years	-.413	.240	.426	-1.08	.25
		30-39 years	-.280	.194	.603	-.82	.26
		50-59 years	.359	.190	.327	-.17	.88
		60+	-.108	.420	.999	-1.27	1.05
	50-59 years	20-29 years	**-.772***	**.251**	**.021***	-1.46	-.08
		30-39 years	**-.639***	**.207**	**.020***	-1.21	-.07
		40-49 years	-.359	.190	.327	-.88	.17
		60+	-.467	.426	.808	-1.64	.71
	60+	20-29 years	-.305	.451	.961	-1.55	.94
		30-39 years	-.172	.428	.994	-1.35	1.01
		40-49 years	.108	.420	.999	-1.05	1.27
		50-59 years	.467	.426	.808	-.71	1.64
Autonomy	20-29 years	30-39 years	.168	.241	.957	-.50	.83
		40-49 years	.378	.228	.463	-.25	1.01
		50-59 years	**.781***	**.237**	**.011***	.13	1.44
		60+	.474	.427	.801	-.70	1.65
	30-39 years	20-29 years	-.168	.241	.957	-.83	.50
		40-49 years	.209	.184	.786	-.30	.72
		50-59 years	**.613***	**.196**	**.018***	.07	1.16
		60+	.306	.405	.943	-.81	1.42
	40-49 years	20-29 years	-.378	.228	.463	-1.01	.25
		30-39 years	-.209	.184	.786	-.72	.30
		50-59 years	.404	.180	.169	-.09	.90
		60+	.096	.397	.999	-1.00	1.19
	50-59 years	20-29 years	**-.781***	**.237**	**.011***	-1.44	-.13
		30-39 years	**-.613***	**.196**	**.018***	-1.16	-.07
		40-49 years	-.404	.180	.169	-.90	.09
		60+	-.308	.403	.941	-1.42	.81
	60+	20-29 years	-.474	.427	.801	-1.65	.70
		30-39 years	-.306	.405	.943	-1.42	.81
		40-49 years	-.096	.397	.999	-1.19	1.00
		50-59 years	.308	.403	.941	-.81	1.42

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 (95%) level.

As indicated in Table 4.16, the significant mean difference of 0,655 between the 50 – 59 year age group and the 20 – 29 year group regarding achievement indicates that the older group is less satisfied in the achievement domain. The significant mean difference of 0,576 for comfort and 0,671 for status between 20 – 29 and 50 – 59 indicates that these domains are more satisfying for the younger category of educators.

The 0,772 mean differences for safety between the 20 – 29 and 0,639 between the 30 – 39 year groups when compared to the 50 – 59 year group indicate that safety is also more satisfying for the younger educators. Autonomy (0,781) for the 20 – 29 year group and 0,613 for the 30 – 39 year category were additionally more satisfying for the younger categories. The latter findings corroborate other research discussed in Chapter 3, and will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

Since age and rank are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction (cf. 3.5.6), older educators in lower ranking posts may be less satisfied or dissatisfied when their expectations are not met. These educators may be less motivated (cf. 3.3.1; 3.3.3; 3.3.5) as they may perceive their unmet expectations as a lack of achievement; ability utilisation, achieving something worthwhile, and the recognition of their efforts through promotion and a sense of personal power (cf. 3.5.1; 3.5.2; 3.5.4; 3.5.6).

4.5.3.4   The job satisfaction of educators according to different levels of experience

The differences in job satisfaction between groups with different levels of experience were determined by means of a one-way ANOVA and are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: One-way ANOVA for differences in job satisfaction between groups with different levels of experience

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Achievement	Between Groups	6.909	4	1.727	3.215	.015*
	Within Groups	78.442	146	.537		
	Total	85.351	150			
Comfort	Between Groups	3.157	4	.789	2.670	.035*
	Within Groups	43.148	146	.296		
	Total	46.305	150			
Status	Between Groups	2.039	4	.510	.819	.515
	Within Groups	90.848	146	.622		
	Total	92.887	150			
Altruism	Between Groups	1.699	4	.425	1.196	.315
	Within Groups	51.851	146	.355		
	Total	53.550	150			
Safety	Between Groups	6.327	4	1.582	1.893	.115
	Within Groups	121.990	146	.836		
	Total	128.318	150			
Autonomy	Between Groups	4.021	4	1.005	1.312	.268
	Within Groups	111.860	146	.766		
	Total	115.881	150			

* Significant at the 0.05 (95%) level.

The one-way ANOVA's results for job satisfaction for the different levels of experience indicate that there are significant differences between groups in their job satisfaction regarding the domains of achievement and comfort. The latter will be further investigated by the multi comparisons of Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 presents only those areas where the significant differences in the achievement and comfort domains existed. The full table may be viewed in Addendum F.

Table 4.18: Multiple comparisons of the job satisfaction of respondents according to years of experience (Tukey HSD)

Dependent Variable	(I) Teaching experience	(J) Teaching experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Achievement	3-5 years	6-10 years	.563	.265	.214	-.17	1.29
		11-15 years	.567	.216	.070	-.03	1.16
		16-20 years	**.742***	**.225**	**.011***	.12	1.36
		20+ years	**.670***	**.203**	**.010***	.11	1.23
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.563	.265	.214	-1.29	.17
		11-15 years	.004	.231	1.000	-.63	.64
		16-20 years	.179	.240	.946	-.48	.84
		20+ years	.107	.219	.988	-.50	.71
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.567	.216	.070	-1.16	.03
		6-10 years	-.004	.231	1.000	-.64	.63
		16-20 years	.175	.185	.879	-.34	.68
		20+ years	.103	.157	.965	-.33	.54
	16-20 years	3-5 years	**-.742***	**.225**	**.011***	-1.36	-.12
		6-10 years	-.179	.240	.946	-.84	.48
		11-15 years	-.175	.185	.879	-.68	.34
		20+ years	-.071	.170	.993	-.54	.40
	20+ years	3-5 years	**-.670***	**.203**	**.010***	-1.23	-.11
		6-10 years	-.107	.219	.988	-.71	.50
		11-15 years	-.103	.157	.965	-.54	.33
		16-20 years	.071	.170	.993	-.40	.54
Comfort	3-5 years	6-10 years	.328	.196	.455	-.21	.87
		11-15 years	.332	.160	.237	-.11	.77
		16-20 years	**.506***	**.167**	**.024***	.04	.97
		20+ years	**.435***	**.151**	**.036***	.02	.85
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.328	.196	.455	-.87	.21
		11-15 years	.004	.171	1.000	-.47	.48
		16-20 years	.179	.178	.853	-.31	.67
		20+ years	.107	.162	.965	-.34	.56
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.332	.160	.237	-.77	.11
		6-10 years	-.004	.171	1.000	-.48	.47
		16-20 years	.175	.137	.707	-.20	.55
		20+ years	.103	.116	.901	-.22	.42
	16-20 years	3-5 years	**-.506***	**.167**	**.024***	-.97	-.04
		6-10 years	-.179	.178	.853	-.67	.31
		11-15 years	-.175	.137	.707	-.55	.20
		20+ years	-.071	.126	.980	-.42	.28
	20+ years	3-5 years	**-.435***	**.151**	**.036***	-.85	-.02
		6-10 years	-.107	.162	.965	-.56	.34
		11-15 years	-.103	.116	.901	-.42	.22
		16-20 years	.071	.126	.980	-.28	.42

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 (95%) level.

Table 4.18 indicates that achievement, the mean difference of 0,742 for the 16 – 20 year experience group and 0,670 for the 20+ years of experience, as well as comfort, 0,560 and 0,435 respectively for the same experience categories, were less satisfying for educators with 16 or more years of experience than for those with less experience and warrants further qualitative exploration in Chapter 5. No significant differences were found between the other domains of job satisfaction and experience as may be seen in Addendum F.

These results imply the same factors as those for age and qualification levels as it is usually older educators who have more experience and higher qualifications. Educators with many years of experience in lower ranking posts may be dissatisfied when their expectations are not met for the same reasons suggested for lower job satisfaction experienced by older and better qualified educators. The lack of promotion may be perceived as a lack of achievement; ability utilisation, recognition and achieving something worthwhile (cf. 3.4.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.2.5; 3.5.4; 3.4.6), resulting in their being less motivated to achieve goals (cf. 3.3.1; 3.3.3; 3.3.5).

4.6   OVERVIEW OF FINDINGS

This investigation indicated that the highly positive relationship between EI and leadership practices found in a previous study may influence job satisfaction. The latter applies to job satisfaction concerning the positive correlation found between leadership practices and job satisfaction but no significant positive relationship could be found between EI and job satisfaction – an area that needs further investigation.

Highly significant and significant positive correlations existed between all the EI domains and those of leadership practices (cf. 4.6.2). The most significant correlations were to be found between: First of all, emotional awareness and the leadership abilities of challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart; secondly, between emotional control and challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart. Thirdly, the understanding and use of emotions correlated positively with the leadership abilities of challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modelling the way and encouraging the heart.

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Positive correlations were furthermore found between leadership practices and job satisfaction. These correlations were the most significant between the leadership practices of challenging the status quo and job satisfaction regarding achievement, comfort, safety and autonomy. Inspiring a shared vision additionally correlated positively with achievement and safety while encouraging others to act correlated positively with achievement, comfort and safety, autonomy. Leaders who modelled the way had the most influence on achievement, safety and autonomy. Positive correlations were also found between the leadership ability of encouraging the heart and job satisfaction regarding achievement, comfort, safety and autonomy (cf. 4.6.3).

No significant positive correlations were manifested between EI and job satisfaction as explained. The EI domain of emotional control correlated significantly negatively with the job satisfaction domain of altruism, as well as autonomy. The latter may have implications regarding the intentionality shown in the vision, creativity, resilience and not letting relationships flout task accomplishment (cf. 4.6.4) This facet in particular, needs further investigation in future research. However, at this stage the findings confirm the literature that differentiates between inherent and actualised EI (cf. 2.3), insofar that it is not the most likeable principals who could effect job satisfaction among educators if they are not efficient leaders or when their leadership is impaired by beaurocratic interventions from the Department of Education (cf. 3.5.2.5; 3.5.7). Moreover, not all people with leadership abilities make first-rate principals with satisfied educators because of special circumstances which exist in schools (cf. 3.5.1).

The quantitative investigation found that the level of job satisfaction was influenced by the age, qualifications and experience of educators. No significant differences were found between job satisfaction experienced by the two genders (cf. 4.6.5.1). However, educators with the highest qualification levels rated their achievement; comfort and autonomy towards job satisfaction significantly lower than those with lower levels (cf. 4.6.5.2). The 20 – 29 year age group found the achievement, comfort and status domains more satisfying than the 50 – 59 year group of educators. Both the 20 – 29 year and 30 – 39 year old groups additionally found safety and autonomy more satisfying than the 50 – 59 year group (cf. 4.6.5.3). Achievement and comfort were found to be more satisfying to educators with fewer than 16 years of experience than to those with more than 16 years of experience (cf.4.6.5.4). Chapter 5 will investigate these different levels of satisfaction qualitatively from a more personal perspective.

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An overview of the findings that emerged from the quantitative investigation is reflected in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Trends from the quantitative investigation

DIMENSIONS	FINDINGS OF SIGNIFICANT POSITIVE CORRELATIONS	POSSIBLE LEADERSHIP IMPLICATIONS
Relationship between EI and leadership.		**Such leaders will probably**
	• Emotional awareness and challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart (cf. 2.6.1; 4.6.2.1).	• Have self-confidence to create a vision of a positive and hopeful future that generates innovativeness, seeks challenging opportunities, challenges the status quo, honours risk takers and focuses on people (cf. 2.6.1.1; 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.5; 4.2.2; 4.5). • Be aware of and integrate diverse educator aspirations, dreams, long-term future interests, abilities, potential, needs and preferences into a shared vision, as well as being involved in cooperative decision-making, planning, problem-solving and delegation to develop themselves, experience buy-in and accept ownership (cf. 2.6.1.2; 3.4; 3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.8; 4.5). • Allow autonomous and responsible decisions and actions while supporting and affirming people, allowing them feel that they are achieving something worthwhile which may make them feel valued and

		successful (cf. 2.6.1.2; 3.1.3.3; 3.4.2.6; 3.4.2.9; 4.5.1). • Recognise, reward and celebrate accomplishments creatively (cf. 3.4.3). • Be accessible and empathetic; listen actively in open two-way communication; be appropriately responsive and supportive according to the needs and situations (2.6.1.2; 2.7; 3.4.3). • Express appreciation by at least saying "thank you" (cf. 3.4.2.10; 4.2.2). • Treat mistakes as learning opportunities by giving constructive feedback (cf. 2.7; 3.4.2.7; 4.2.2). • Be able to break free from daily routines when needed (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.13; 4.2.2; 4.6.2.2). • Test assumptions and treat others with trust, dignity and respect (cf. 2.6; 2.7; 3.4.2.4; 3.5.2.7; 3.4.3; 4.2.2).
	• Managing emotions and challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart (cf. 2.6.2; 4.6.2.1).	• Be adaptable, flexible, creative and innovative in providing challenging assignments, experimenting, taking calculated risks, beating the status quo and breaking routines (cf. 2.6.3; 3.4.2.11; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Delegate important assignments with the necessary authority to allow creativity and autonomy in order to develop leadership, set individuals up for advancement and enhance others' self-worth by letting go of control

		(2.6.3; 3.4.2.2; 3.5.2.6; 3.4.2.12; 4.5.1).
		• Deal sensitively with others and with taxing situations – not reacting aggressively, impulsively or over-reacting (3.4.3.2; 3.5.3; 4.2.2).
		• Expressively communicate a shared vision they believe in themselves to focus on achievable goals and priorities, while thinking holistically 2.6.3; 3.4.2.1; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Engage their staff in participative leadership and decision-making (cf. 2.6.3; 3.5.2.8; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Encourage achievement by being resilient and supportive by keeping the staff informed and communicating high expectations (cf. 2.6.3; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.3.1; 4.5.1).
		• Foster resilience by focusing on the constructive and positive side of experiences and not give up when faced with seemingly insurmountable problems (cf. 2.6.3; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Be able to act on intuition without acting impulsively (cf. 2.6.3; 3.4.2.11; 4.2.2; 4.1).
		• Allow autonomy without interfering or micro-managing (cf. 2.6.3; 3.4.3; 3.4.2.6; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Create opportunities for social and professional interaction between staff (cf. 2.7; 3.4.3; 3.4.4).

		• Be accessible and supportive by being a servant leader (cf. 2.6.3; 2.7; 3.4.3.2; 3.4.4; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Express their gratitude for contributions no matter how small, give constructive feedback, recognise, reward and celebrate innovative achievements without being egocentric (cf. 2.6.3; 2.7; 3.4.2.7; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2 10; 3.4.2.13).
		• Find something good to praise in even the worst educator (3.4.2.10; 3.4.3).
		• Foster positive, strong and supportive interpersonal relations 2.7; 3.4.3; 4.5.1).
		• Attempt not to stereotype people (2.6.3; 3.4.2.3).
	• Understanding and the use of emotions and challenging the status quo, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modelling the way and encouraging the heart (cf. 2.6.2; 4.6.2.1).	• Approach tasks with enthusiasm and positive expectations by focusing on gains instead of problems to encourage achievement (cf. 2.6.2; 3.4.2.7; 3.1.3.3; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Be assertive and enthusiastic when communicating a positive vision of the future to enlist the staff in a shared vision by integrating their interests in the vision as a shared purpose (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.5; 4.5.1).
		• Trust personal intuition and persist in looking for and trying new innovative approaches to improve the organisation (cf. 3.4.2.4; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Act with personal integrity in all decisions, behaviours, delegation and

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		shared decision-making to empower educators, and not to appear as if the work-load is being shifted, to build trust and develop potential (cf. 2.6.2; 3.4.2.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Expressively communicate values, beliefs and expectations (cf. 2,7; 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Set an example, keep their word and do what is right in order to strengthen trust (2.7; 3.4.1; 3.4.2.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Know and be empathetic to a staffs' talents, expectations, needs, and workload, professional and personal problems and support them (cf. 2.6.2; 2.7; 3.5.2.2; 3.5.3; 4.5.1).
		• Persist in taking calculated risks even when faced with failure; learn from failures and the past (cf. 3.4.2.11; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Have a realistic sense of personal power and abilities (cf. 2.6.1.1; 2.6.2; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.8).
		• Find creative ways to break with routine without breaking valuable traditions (cf. 2.6.2; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.13; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Treat others with trust, empathy, dignity and respect by relinquishing control to enhance autonomy, innovativeness and creativity (2.6.2; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.6; 3.4.2.11; 4.2.2).
		• Focus on priorities but offer the staff

		choices, without preferential treatment, to build commitment and trust (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.8; 4.5.1). • Use intuition and creativity in showing appropriate appreciation for work done and recognition of achievements (cf. 2.6.2; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.10; 4.5.1).
Relationship between leadership practices and job satisfaction		**There is a high probability that good leaders will enhance the job satisfaction of their staff by**
	• Challenging the status quo and recognising achievement, providing comfort, safety and autonomy (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.6.3).	• Providing challenging assignments and taking innovative calculated risks to break free from the status quo; to make use of educators' abilities and potential to let them feel they are successful and accomplishing something worthwhile (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.9; 4.3.2.1; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Challenging the way things were done in the past to keep staff actively and independently busy with a variety of activities that utilise their abilities without effecting an overload (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.11; 3.4.3.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Being innovative and creative by using new approaches in implementing departmental policies and practices. For instance, by supplying new technological aids and not involving an educator in too many

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		learning areas (cf. 3.4.2.11; 3.4.2.13; 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.5.1). • Staying up to date with new innovative educational developments and approaches in order to be an effective leader and supervisor (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.5.1). • Developing EI and leadership competencies to enhance interpersonal relations (cf. 2.7; 2.9; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Cultivating their own as well as the staffs' resilience (cf. 2.6.3; 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.5.1). • Being creative in compensating staff for extra work they do (cf.3.1.3.2; 3.4.2.13; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Assuring staff of their steady employment (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Being creative in ensuring sound physical working conditions even from school funds, if the need arises (cf. 3.4.4; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). • Allowing educators to be innovative and creative by giving them a chance to try their own methods and use their own judgement (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.11; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
	• Inspiring a shared vision and providing for achievement and safety (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.6.3).	• Knowing the staff and accepting individual differences to be able to keep their future interests and abilities in mind when a shared vision is developed, so as to enable them to achieve success (cf. 2.6.1; 3.4.2.2;

		3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.11; 3.4.3; 4.5.1).
		• Enlisting the staff by enthusiastically communicating the vision of an exciting and hopeful future (2.6.2; 3.4.2.1; 3.4.3.1; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Learning from the past and enthusiastically emphasising positive long-term future interests that may be realised by implementing departmental policies and practices (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
	• Encouraging others to act and enhancing educators' achievement, comfort, safety and autonomy (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.6.3).	• Being adaptable in making use of educators' abilities through delegation and shared decision-making that involve them to successfully accomplish a variety of important tasks autonomously (cf. 3.4.2.11; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Involving educators in the planning of work allocation and problem-solving so as to accept ownership (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.8; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Letting staff use their own discretion and creativity in the way departmental policies and practices may be implemented in their learning area, without adding cumbersome school policies (cf. 3.4.2.6; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Treating educators as professionals and with respect and dignity during supervision by focusing on achievements (cf. 2.7; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Adding incentives to supplement salaries in relation to the work done

		(cf. 3.4.2.13).
	• Modelling the way and providing for achievement, safety and autonomy (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1; 4.6.3).	• Knowing the staffs' abilities and what is going on in the school to be able to put them in positions that utilise their full potential, enabling them to achieve success (cf. 2.6.1.2; 3.4.2.4; 4.2.2).
		• Improving commitment by giving the educators choices in work allocation in order to achieve success (cf. 3.1.3; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2).
		• Communicating achievable goals and setting standards to achieve them (cf. 3.4.2.6; 3.4.3.1; 4.5.1).
		• Breaking large tasks up into small achievable steps (cf. 3.4.2.9; 4.3.2).
		• Focusing on priorities to improve the successful accomplishment of tasks.
		• Clearly expressing values, beliefs and limitations regarding creativity and the implementation of departmental policies and practices to prevent misunderstandings (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.5; 3.4.2.8; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Being hard on standards but soft on people by setting clear and consistent communicated standards for people to adhere to (cf. 3.4.3.1; 3.4.2.6; 4.2.2).
		• Setting an example in every way and building on success (cf. 3.4.2.4; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
	• Encouraging the heart and improving achievement, comfort, safety and autonomy (cf. 4.2.2; 4.3.2.1;	• Treating staff as the most valuable asset and developing their full potential (cf. 2.1; 3.5.2.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Utilising the full potential and abilities

	4.6.3).	of staff to enhance their chances of achievement by being creative in decision-making – thinking outside the box (cf. 3.4.3; 3.5.2.2; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Supporting staff and providing feedback, recognition and appreciation by acknowledging contributions and achievements by informing the rest of the school of the good work done, or by at least saying "thank you" (cf. 3.4.2.7; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.10; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Allowing independence by preventing micro-management, but emphasising accountability by providing standards of acceptability and constructive feedback (cf. 3.4.2.6; 2.6.2; 2.6.3).
		• Allowing for goal-focused activities that keep staff constructively busy with a meaningful variety of work in which they may achieve success, while keeping a work-life balance in mind (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Supporting staff in the creative implementation of departmental policies and practices (cf. 2.6; 3.4.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Creating a social support network if the work-load becomes unmanageable (cf. 3.4.2.7; 3.4.3.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).
		• Linking rewards and incentives to performance (cf. 3.4.2.13; 4.2.2; 4.5).

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4.7   CONCLUSION

In this chapter the reasons for undertaking this quantitative analysis of the investigation of the relationship between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction were given. The methodology and the instruments were explained, as well as the rationale for using these particular instruments. The data were then presented and interpreted.

The significant positive correlations between the EI domains and leadership practices (cf. 4.6.2), as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction (cf. 4.6.3) indicated the importance of EI in leadership that may effect job satisfaction. The significant negative correlations between certain EI domains and job satisfaction (cf. 4.6.4) furthermore highlighted the fact that only EI without appropriate leadership practices will not make a successful leader. The latter confirms the balance needed between relationships and task-orientation, depending on the situation. EI is the key to determining that balance by enabling leaders to distinguish between intuition, what is in the best interest of the organisation and egoistic decisions. The relationship between EI, leadership and job satisfaction may be schematically presented as in Figure 4.6.
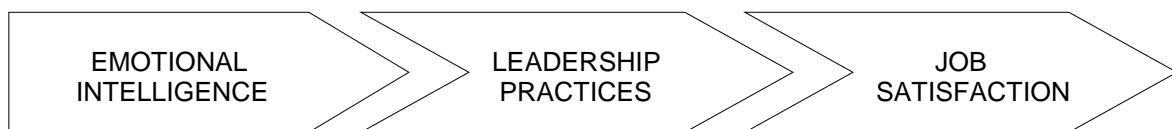
Figure 4.6: Schematic representation of the relationship between EI, leadership
**   and job satisfaction**

When the literature, as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, is considered in conjunction with the quantitative data of Chapter 4 and the raw data, certain aspects of EI and leadership practices that may have an effect on job satisfaction, as well as particular aspects of job satisfaction itself, should be investigated qualitatively to explore how educators experience it personally.

These aspects that will be addressed in Chapter 5 include for instance: ability utilisation, recognition, advancement, creativity, responsibility, independence, motivation, empowerment, communication, compensation, activity, implementation of

departmental policies, leadership development and shared decision-making as important leadership practices affecting job satisfaction. Since many principals rated themselves as lower than proficient in self-awareness as an important EI factor regarding self-confidence to forward a vision, focus on priorities and innovativeness, this will also be addressed in Chapter 5. Principals additionally manifested problems regarding emotional expression, as seen in constructive discontent and compassion in reaction to problems; this will also be investigated qualitatively in Chapter 5.

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CHAPTER 5

QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION:
RESEARCH DESIGN AND REPORT OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 presented the positivistic quantitative interrelatedness between EI, the leadership practices of education leaders and the job satisfaction of educators. The former indicated problem areas in the job satisfaction experienced by educators that acted as a baseline for this qualitative investigation. This chapter will then present the qualitative phase of this multiphase and multi-method study. The paradigmatic assumptions, methodology, data collection method, sample composition, the data and data analysis to identify emerging themes and insight into job satisfaction will be described. In-depth interviews were conducted with educators regarding their lived experiences, as well as their emotional and psychological needs that affect their job satisfaction and how education leaders responded to it. The results of the interviews will be discussed and a conclusion will be drawn up.

In this multiphase, mixed-method, exploratory study, the researcher endeavoured pragmatically to employ the epistemological assumptions of the inextricably intertwined quantitative paradigm, Chapter 4, and the qualitative paradigm, Chapter 5, as well as those data-collecting procedures methodologically appropriate to investigate the influence of EI on leadership and job satisfaction. This data- and methodological triangulation to a large extent neutralised bias because of data source, researcher and method by means of the variety of data sources and methods. The qualitative method has been indispensable since education, as a human science, has become so enmeshed that only a single approach to research would not be able to explain the full complexity of the experiences of human beings. In addition, an exploratory study enabled the researcher to be more open, flexible and inductive in approach (Creswell & Clarke, 2007: 23; de Vos, 2007b: 359 – 362, 364; Ogina, 2007: 9; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b: 55). By utilising the qualitative paradigm the researcher attempted to develop substantive theory grounded in the experiences of educators since job satisfaction is a people-centred and job-related attitude based upon subjective interpretations of reality

according to the social context in which they live (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004: 357) (cf. 2.1).

5.2   RESEARCH DESIGN

5.2.1 Method and methodology

There are different views regarding qualitative research depending on the different methods preferred by different researchers in the qualitative field. Examples of the latter could be found in Cooper and Schindler (2006: 143, 196), Leedy and Omrod (2005: 94, 133), Denzin and Lincoln (1994:1), Glesne and Peshkin (1991: 1), as well as Thomas, (2003: 1, 2, 6, 33) and Neuman (2000: 19, 123, 126). From these authors' definitions, qualitative research could be defined as: an interpretative, constructivist, naturalistic or post-positivistic approach to the subject matter that involves a (subjective) researcher who describes patterning characteristics or generalisations of people and/or events in reality in an attempt to come to an in-depth understanding or to interpret social phenomena. It is, amongst other issues, focused on providing a deeper meaning to phenomena or to real life experiences from the participants' personal perspectives, without comparing events in terms of measurements, frequency or amounts, but in a narrative form to present a coherent and consistent picture that emphasises the human factor.

The interpretivist or constructivist post-positivistic paradigm of the qualitative approach view social phenomena not as isolated from humans, since reality and knowledge are dynamically socially constructed by people actively participating in the research process. As a consequence, different individual realities that influence behaviour may thus exist. In this investigation the qualitative research attempted to understand the complex relativism of an ever-changing world of the lived reality and perceptions of EI leadership and job satisfaction from the participants' frame of reference in a naturalistic context. The latter were necessary as science does not occur in vacuum isolated from the real world and because the positivistic empiricism cannot reflect the full scope of people leadership (Neuman, 2000: 6; Heystek, 2008: 6). The personalised qualitative approach provided an individualistic description and interpretation of the experiences of education leaders. These personal ontological perspectives allowed the researcher to gain a balanced perspective of the phenomena and inductively construct meaning

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from the multiple versions of reality analysed and interpreted (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 22, 24; Ogina, 2007: 11, 21, 23; Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 4).

Qualitative research therefore, seeks to develop deeper understanding through meticulous descriptions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 198, 219). New emerging theory, that may form the basis for further study, can therefore be developed through the latter (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 94, 95). Qualitative research furthermore, involves hermeneutics since it is an interpretive social science that studies meaningful social action and interaction and not just the observable behaviour of people. Hermeneutics, as the basis of interpretivism (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 58), implies a cyclical process of understanding and interpreting the context in which the communication between researcher and participant takes place with the aim of explaining the influence of EI leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators (Jansen, 2007: 2; Thomas, 2003: 94). Nieuwenhuis (2007c: 101) emphasises the hermeneutical interpretation of textual data as a circle that refers to the logic between the understanding of the whole text and the interpretation of specific parts of it, while anticipating explanations that could guide the descriptions.

Qualitative research, for the reason given afore, often uses communication techniques, such as interviews, documents or transcripts. In this investigation, semi-structured interviews were conducted and e-mailed texts, as the researcher saw it as ideal mediums to extract feelings, emotions, motivations, expectations, opinions, experiences and perceptions that are important to the study. The latter could supply the researcher with the how (process) and why (meaning) of the phenomenon of job satisfaction and explain relationships among the variables of EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction. Exploratory studies, as in this instance, often use the qualitative method to create flexible structures for discovering emerging theory by addressing the 'what and how' questions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 139, 140, 143; Neuman, 2000: 21). In this investigation the study focused on 'how' EI is related to leadership and job satisfaction.

The complementary interpretivist and constructivist approach of this qualitative investigation allowed the researcher to build collaborative and trusting relationships with the participants giving meaning to experiences during the interviews in the

participants' natural environment. The latter gave education leaders, as the objects of study, voices to express their own personal interpretations and thoughts as they could 'speak for themselves' through expressing meanings shaped by their experiences of reality.

In addition, Neuman (2000: 17) saw quantitative and qualitative data as complementary insofar as it observes the phenomena from different angles: quantitative data condense data to enable the researcher to see the big picture. The constructivist qualitative approach on the other hand, enhances key aspects of the research as it is shaped from personal perspectives, 'from the bottom up', to broad patterns or themes and generates new theory interconnecting the themes (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 22, 23). The latter was applied in this study regarding the job satisfaction of educators, whereas the qualitative second phase of this research investigated areas highlighted by the quantitative study of Chapter 4. The blending of methods in triangulation may also improve the reliability and validity of the research because the different approaches compensate for the others' weaknesses (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 219; Neuman, 2000: 125).

'Objective' truth, which is truth totally unaffected by researchers' personal interests, beliefs and values, as proposed by the quantitative paradigm, is hard to achieve in several of the research paradigms. Subjectivity is inevitable insofar as the choice of questionnaires, questions, sources from which information is gathered; the classification and interpretation of data; the researcher's personal relationships, emotional connection and identification with respondents and phenomena investigated depend on the researcher (Thomas, 2003: 75, 78). According to Leedy and Omrod (2005: 133), qualitative experts such as Eisner (1998), Moss (1996) and Wolcott (1994), view an objective approach as undesirable or even impossible. Qualitative experts rather see a researcher as a medium to interpret social phenomena in an attempt to understand them from multiple valid subjective perspectives.

The aim of this constructivist investigation, which may contribute to the development of new theory, was to investigate, describe and conceptualise educators' own lived experiences and perceptions regarding job satisfaction and the role education leaders play in fulfilling educators' psychological and emotional needs.

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5.2.2   Data collection: Semi-structured interviews and mailed texts

In qualitative investigations, interviews are one of the primary data collection techniques. Interviews are usually conducted through personal interviews where individuals have to respond orally. However, with the introduction of the internet, gathering data by means of e-mails has become common practice (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 253; Thomas, 2003: 63). Both of these techniques of qualitative data gathering were applied in this research insofar as qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews, as well as e-mailed texts in this qualitative phase of the research. The latter may also be viewed as 'experience surveys' as they attempted to understand and to discover emerging theory about important issues from the subject's point of view through a content analysis of the reactions to open-ended questions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 204, 208, 145, 196). In the reaction-guided approach the researcher commenced with a number of concepts which were followed by open-ended questions. In accordance with Neuman's (2000: 61) views, the latter was applied in an attempt to gain insight into the causes of dissatisfaction and ideas that may identify particular relationships.

This investigation utilised semi-structured interviews, as well as e-mailed texts by means of the same carefully developed open-ended questions. These questions were prepared prior to the interviews according to the findings that emerged from the literature study in Chapters 2 and 3 and from the quantitative research as described in Chapter 4 (Strydom, 2007a: 59, 61; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 100, 101). Written permission from the Department of Education was obtained before the research commenced. In both cases (interviews and e-mails) the participants were contacted to ascertain their voluntary collaboration in participating in the research and to acquire their consent after a detailed disclosure of the nature of the research.

Interviews:

For the purpose of the semi-structured interviews the researcher provided the participants with the open-ended questions prior to the interviews in order to allow them to prepare them for the interviews (cf. 4.6.2.2; 4.6.3.2; 4.6.5; Table 5.1). The interviews were conducted outside official school hours. Appointments were made for

a time and place that was convenient to each participant. Before the interviews commenced, the participants were again briefed about the aim of the study and that the answers should reflect their personal experiences. Permission was asked from the participants to audio tape-record their responses for transcription and coding purposes. The participants were again assured of the confidentiality of their identity and the anonymity of their contributions, being referred to only by a number once recording started. Notes regarding non-verbal cues were also taken during the interviews. The participants were debriefed after the interviews by a brief discussion of uncertainties and the researcher's interpretation of their contributions, which gave them a chance to set misinterpretations right or elaborate on their contributions. The researcher furthermore expressed his appreciation for their contributions and assured them that the data would be referred back to them for confirmation that they had been interpreted correctly. (Strydom, 2007a: 66; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 102; Pii, 2003: 160, 162). However, a limitation regarding personal interviews is that interviewees might attempt to tell the interviewer what they think the interviewer wants to hear because of the Hawthorne effect or reactivity (cf. 4.4). The latter may be overcome by the e-mailed texts that were also utilised to gather qualitative data.

E-mails:

Because of extensive geographical coverage, fast access and economic restraints, the researcher and some educators preferred to answer the questions on the investigated aspects by e-mail. The same aspects were addressed in the mailed texts as the identical open-ended questions of the semi-structured interviews and were sent to these participants. These participants were also assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of the report. The participants then mailed their contributions to the researcher who conducted a text analysis. The latter permitted more direct comparability of responses as it eliminates question variability (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 200, 204, 205, 208).

Member checks were effected via e-mail, telephone calls and personal conversations to clear up issues or to elaborate on issues that emanated from the text analysis and semi-structured interviews. The data were furthermore referred back to the participants for their confirmation of the correct interpretation thereof.

The social activities organised by education leaders and their influence on the interpersonal relations and the job satisfaction of educators, as well as what educators think their principals can do to enhance their staff's job satisfaction, was investigated, in addition to the sources of dissatisfaction to establish the participants' stance on these aspects. This was done to enhance the recommendations that will be made in Chapter 6. The aspects and specific topics, developed from the quantitative results of Chapter 4, which indicated deficiencies in EI and leadership practices (cf. 4.2.2), as well as areas of job dissatisfaction (cf. 4.6.2 – 4.6.5), that warranted further qualitative investigation, are presented in Table 5.1.

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Table 5.1: Trends in EI, leadership and job satisfaction identified as contributors to educator dissatisfaction that was investigated qualitatively

JOB SATISFACTION CLUSTERS	ITEMS THAT INDICATED EDUCATOR DISSATISFACTION
Achievement	• Ability Utilisation: To do something that makes use of the educator's abilities.
Comfort	• Activity: Being able to be kept busy all the time. • Independence: The chance to work alone on a job. • Compensation: Salary in relation to the work done.
Status	• Advancement: The chances for advancement in education. • Recognition: The praise educators get for a job well done.
Safety	• Departmental policies and practices: The way policies and practices are implemented.
Autonomy	• Creativity: The chance to implement their own method of doing the job. • Responsibility: The freedom to use their own judgement.
EI DOMAINS THAT INDICATED DEFICIENCIES	**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IMPLICATED BY THE EI DEFICIENCIES THAT MAY CONTRIBUTE TO JOB DISSATISFACTION**
Self-awareness, emotional expression and constructive discontent	• Vision and goal-setting, • Ability to focus on key priorities, • Reaction to problems, • Communication, • Motivation, • Empowering educators and developing their leadership, • Training and development of capabilities that relate to the staff's development needs, • Engagement of staff in shared decision-making, • Innovativeness and willingness to take calculated risks.

The above topics were also made available in Afrikaans since some participants might have felt that they were more proficient in expressing their feelings and standpoints in

their home language. The Afrikaans texts and transcriptions were translated into English for reporting purposes to put them within the grasp of the wider population.

5.2.3 Selection of participants

For the purpose of the qualitative interviews which had to broaden the findings of the quantitative investigations in order to get 'under the skin' of the situation by exploring knowledge about and experiences of reality, it was not possible to pre-determine the number of participants because the investigation had to continue until theoretical saturation had been reached. The snowball approach, especially appropriate for qualitative studies as this, was followed in this qualitative phase of the investigation. The researcher started with a purposefully selected few volunteer participants from the **same population** as the purposive convenient sample of the quantitative study, which was deemed the best qualified to provide the richest and most descriptive first-hand data on job satisfaction. These subjects were then used to refer the researcher sequentially to others who could be representative of the gender, age and qualification spectrum of educators and the phenomena of job satisfaction and even extremities, in a continuous process of exploring data that could contribute to the development of new theory. These in turn, identified others until theoretical saturation was reached (Strydom & Delport, 2007: 330; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b: 80, 88; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 424; Leedy and Omrod, 2005: 145).

A maximum of two voluntary participants per school (from the same sample as in the quantitative investigation) had the potential to become involved in the qualitative investigation to allow for a higher validity and representativity (cf. 1.3.2.2; 1.3.3; 4.3). The participants furthermore, had to have three or more years' experience to participate. Although this sampling could lead to bias, the intention of this study was not to generalise but to develop new theory based on the relationships between the variables – predominantly through an in-depth understanding of the personal experiences of reality by the participants in this qualitative phase.

5.2.4   Data analysis

The content analysis of the participants' reactions to the open-ended questions was an ongoing systematic process of identifying and summarising the message content. The participants' reactions were read through several times after each interview or e-mail response to enable the researcher to understand the meaning of the data without bias. This was followed up by telephone calls, e-mails or personal contact to verify the interpretation. The behaviour, non-verbal and verbal cues, as well as the researcher's perception was added by 'memoing' the reactions of the participants to the open-ended questions (only in interview cases). The data were then analysed and interpreted regarding the participants' perceptions, values, attitudes, feelings, and experiences. Codes, in different colours, were allocated to phrases based on the contextual meanings of the phrases. Key factors, differences and/or dominant or significant themes and relationships between themes that emerged were then inductively identified and categorised according to the interpretative philosophy of the constructivist approach to understand how the participants interpreted job satisfaction (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c: 99, 101, 103, 104; Ogina, 2007: 50, 52).

The text analysis regarding the e-mailed text reactions was conducted in the same format as the semi-structured interviews since it contained exactly the same questions and was treated in the same way. The same information about the purpose of the study, assurances of confidentiality and anonymity, as well as probing and follow-up procedures as for the semi-structured interviews was followed.

The different themes were *a priori* coded according to the topics investigated (Table 5.1) to analyse the content of the participants' reactions to the open-ended questions of the semi-structured interviews and the e-mailed text reactions to identify specific contributors to educator job satisfaction. The latter was achieved by grouping evidence exposed by both the semi-structured interviews and the mailed reactions and to label ideas according to topics of similarity in order to reflect increasingly broader perspectives. The data analysis then proceeded from 'open' coding, to axial coding and then to selective coding and verification to generate an emerging understanding, explanation or substantive theory in line with the research question. Verbatim accounts

of the interviews were used in the data analysis, together with the unaltered texts of the mailed participants' reactions. Records of the raw data, coding and interpretation were kept for referencing and an audit trail (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 131, 132; Strydom & Delport, 2007: 338, 341 – 344; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b: 89; Nieuwenhuis, 2007c: 109, 110; Pii, 2003: 163).

5.3   DEBENDABILITY, CREDIBILITY AND TRANSFER-ABILITY OF THE DATA

The relevance of the terminology validity and reliability in qualitative research is questioned by distinguished qualitative researchers such as Guba, Lincoln and Denzin. These authors prefer the more recent terminology of credibility, dependability, verification and confirmability in the qualitative approach (Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 100). The achievement of the latter in this study will thus be discussed.

5.3.1   Dependability

Dependability or trustworthiness is viewed as an alternative to **reliability.** To reflect on the dependability of a study, it is necessary not only to view the phenomenon, but it also requires an understanding of the circumstances and the setting against which the investigation is conducted. In Chapters 2 and 3 of this study, a detailed description of the education environment is provided and it is accepted that the South African education arena is dynamic in nature. This acceptance of a dynamic and changing social world is in stark contrast to the positivistic quantitative research that assumes an unchanging world (De Vos, 2007: 346).

Dependability is of particular importance in qualitative research when several coders are involved, but in this study the latter had no influence since the researcher was responsible for all the coding himself. In addition, if other researchers should conduct the same study under the same circumstances using the same participants, they would probably come to the same conclusions, as this design provides a 'thick description' of all the variables at play so as the enhance the dependability of such results (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 135). However, such a replication is highly improbable.

5.3.1.1   Ensuring dependability during the execution of the research project

According to Smaling (1994: 81, 82), Goetz and LeCompte (1984: 213, 217), Miles and Huberman (1984: 231-243), as well as Guba and Lincoln (1982: 241-243), Denzin (1988: 511) and Pfaffenberger (1988: 28, 30), the following measures may contribute to limiting random errors during qualitative research:

- *Triangulation*

Four types of triangulation can be applied:

➢ Method triangulation: the use of more than one data-collection method to gather information. In this investigation, semi-structured interviews and mailed texts were used as qualitative approaches in conjunction with quantiitative methods that included the EQ-Map, LPI and MSQ as quantitative measures.

➢ Theoretical triangulation: the use of more than one theoretical perspective to interpret data as reflected by sometimes contrasting views in the interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative data gathering and interpretation, as for example those of Glesne and Peskin (cf. 4.2), as opposed to those of Eisner, Moss, Wolcott (cf. 5.2.1).

➢ Data triangulation: the use of two or more kinds of data sources. In this study data triangulation involved the personal perspectives of participants obtained by semi-structured interviews, mailed texts and a literature study that involved different resources.

- *Cross-examination (peer examination):* a method used to determine whether casual misinterpretations infiltrated the findings of the research. This was done by comparing these findings with the written work of other researchers.

- *Member checks:* contradictions in the findings were referred back to the persons studied for an explanation or a solution.

- *Auditing:* all information regarding the research was preserved, as well as the data, surveys and notes so that the findings can be verified by independent persons.

- *Mechanisation:* e-mail and audiotapes were utilised in the collection and storing of data, while a computer was used for the e-mails and the processing and storing of data.

In a mixed-method approach the onus rests on the researcher to draw meaningful and accurate conclusions from all of the sources of data in the study. Although it could be problematic to draw accurate conclusions and inferences from such a triangulated approach, it should provide better and more meaningful results than using only the qualitative or quantitative approaches alone, particularly when the qualitative second phase builds on significant indicators from the quantitative phase, as is the case in this study. Creswell and Clark (2007: 134, 146) call such results triangulation data.

5.3.1.2   Verification of the findings in view of enhancing dependability

The findings that emerged from this investigation largely conform to studies of the outcomes of other investigations regarding the influence of EI on leadership practices in corporate and industrial settings. As there is a lacuna of findings on the particular EI relationship in schools that this study addressed, the findings could not be confirmed *per se.*

It is however necessary to provide a *"thick description"* (Smaling, 1994:82 & Goetz & LeCompte, 1984:213-217) of aspects such as the status and role of the research subjects, the relevant characteristics of the participants, concepts that were used, methods of research and data analysis (cf. 5.2; 5.4; 5.5.2.1; 5.6.1). In order allow for accurate verification the research process should be described in sufficient detail to allow readers to draw conclusions from the data. Furthermore, respondent validation was additionally utilised by taking the conclusions back to the respondents to establish if they made sense to them and if they agreed with them (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 64, 134, 135; Ogina, 2007: 61; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 100). No attempt to generalise was made as this was an exploratory investigation that used a purposive convenient sample to investigate whether relationships existed.

According to Smaling (1994: 82) and Goetz and LeCompt, (1984: 213-217) it is also necessary to provide an *exposition* of the theoretical starting points and arguments

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underlying the various choices made in the research, which were explained in (cf. 5.1; 5.2).

5.3.2   Credibility and transferability

Goetz and LeCompte (1984: 221) indicate that researchers from both paradigms (positivistic and post-positivistic) should determine the degree of credibility and transferability by asking the following questions:

Are the researchers really measuring or observing what they <u>think</u> they are, and to what degree have the findings also been tested or refined by other research?

In quantifying research, validity usually concerns conclusions with regard to causal connections, such as when a connection between two variables yields a statistically significant coefficient of correlation (as in Chapter 4), but in terms of post-positivist thought this kind of empirical rigour is out of the question. It is rather a case of formulating techniques that "check the credibility of data and minimise the distorting effect of personal bias upon the logic of evidence" (Kamarovsky, In: Lather 1991:66). As in the case of reliability, it is thus essential to strive towards the elimination of systematic errors and, according to Smaling (1994:83-87), Campbell (1988:72), Goetz and LeCompte (1984:222-228), Miles and Huberman (1984:231-243) and Denzin (1970:201), the following measures can increase the credibility and transferability of qualitative data:

5.3.2.1   Credibility

Credibility, as an alternative to **internal validity**, ensures credibility *within* the research study insofar the subjects, variables and meaningful interactions were accurately identified and described within the parameters and context of the study. Research should therefore provide an accurate and trustworthy account of the proceedings and results by observing what was originally intended. In view of enhancing the credibility of this study, the following was done:

- Preparing a comprehensive register of data, notes of relevant actions or events, theoretical and methodological memoranda and categories of data established to be used during data analysis (cf. 5.2.1; 5.4);

- Establishing member checks were done by referring the data back to the participants to verify the correctness of the data and their interpretation, peer debriefing and audit trails to make corrections to categories and concepts formed (cf. 5.4);

- Guarding against bias and perspectives that the researcher may instill in the participants, as well as their prejudices that may influence their responses (cf. 5.2);

- Indicating whether the researcher's attitude has changed through exposure to the research;

- Striving towards a representative investigation, *inter alia* by making use of participants who are able to supply the needed information, as well as through the systematic analysis of data – creating a balance between 'letting the subject speak for itself' and using abstracted categories for analyses and interpretation. Although the snowball approach may not lead to a representative sample of the population, it may be viewed as representative of Free State educators as it included educators from different schools, genders, age groups, qualification levels and years of experience who teach different learning areas. However, this sample also comprised a culturally homogenous population from functional schools as described in the purposive convenient sample in Chapters 1 and 4 (cf. 1.3.3; 4.3; 5.1; 5.2.1; 5.4);

- Gathering data until the point of *theoretical saturation* has been reached. This means that the gathering of data was continued through the snowball approach, until no new affirmative or contrasting information was obtained. This stage was reached after the eighth participant was interviewed and the process of qualitative data gathering was terminated (cf. 5.2.1);

- Comparing data and indicating differences and similarities in the data (cf. 5.4);

- Searching for so-called negative or extreme data – 'theory driven data collection' to get a balanced perspective of the real situation (cf. 5.2.1).

Nieuwenhuis (2007b: 80) moreover suggested that the trustworthiness of the instruments and research could be improved by triangulating results as described (cf. 4.3.1; 5.4).

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5.3.2.2   Transferability

Transferability is regarded as an alternative to **external validity.** This implies that one set of findings should be applicable to another context – which could be problematic as it should be replicated within the same parameters, that is not always possible with qualitative research. Triangulation, using multiple cases and/or participants and more than one data gathering method, could however enhance generalisability (De Vos, 2007: 346; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b: 80). As this was an exploratory study conducted through a purposive convenient sample, the aim was not to generalise. However, the triangulation of data and method in this study could contribute to the generalisability, although it is not claimed to do so.

In providing a detailed explanation of the research process, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, theory-building will suffer from a "failure to protect our work from our own passions and limitations" (Lather, 1991: 69).

5.3.3   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Researchers should always act ethically so as not to harm the participants emotionally or infringe upon their rights to privacy and dignity. The participants' right to privacy and dignity was guaranteed by assuring them of the confidentiality and anonymity of their identities and implementing it by not referring to any person or school by name or by implication in the report (Strydom, 2007: 59, 61; Leedy & Omrod, 2005: 100; Mouton, 2004: 243 – 245).

The researcher attempted to be fair, honest, unbiased and truthful in this research. High ethical standards, responsible social behaviour and personal integrity were critical in particularly this qualitative research phase insofar it reflected the evidence accurately by having checks on the evidence. This research also sought the above by including safeguards against psychological or physical harm to participants or adverse consequences emanating from the research activities by protecting their human rights. The latter was accounted for by the researcher by guarding against stress, loss of self-

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esteem, coercion, deception, the invasion of privacy and loss of dignity, victimisation or the transgression of moral concerns by obtaining the informed consent of voluntary participants, the nondisclosure of identity and participant confidentiality. In order to obtain their informed consent, a brief description of the aim and nature of the study, the participants' role and the duration of the interviews was given. The researcher additionally strove to be a good listener, maintain data integrity and objectivity by preventing misrepresentation of the results by presenting the findings unambiguously and with justified conclusions (Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2007: 42; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b: 88; Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 23, 24, 116; Neuman, 2000: 9, 92, 93, 96, 126).

5.4   REPORTING OF THE DATA

As indicated earlier in this chapter (cf. 5.1; 5.2.1), Chapter 4 presented the quantitative relationships between the EI and leadership practices of principals and the experienced job satisfaction of Free State educators.

5.4.1   Identifying points of departure

In the preceeding part of this investigation specific leadership abilities and factors causing job dissatisfaction that needed further investigation, were identified (cf. 4.6; 4.7).

Although the mean scores of all the job satisfaction clusters indicated an acceptable level of satisfaction, the safety and status clusters had the lowest mean scores (3,74 and 3,77 respectively). However, when the standard deviations, variances and raw data from the MSQs' individual items were taken into account, it indicated that many educators were dissatisfied in these two clusters and that these dimensions should also be included in this qualitative investigation. More areas that should be investigated were revealed by the ANOVAs which indicated that the more experienced, older and better qualified educators were dissatisfied with aspects of the achievement and comfort clusters (cf. 4.6.3; 4.6.5; 5.2.1; Table 5.1).

The correlational analysis of the relationship between EI and job satisfaction revealed additional areas that should be investigated qualitatively. Because of the negative

correlation between emotional management and autonomy, creativity and responsibility warranted additional qualitative investigation. Moreover, the leaders' deficiencies in EI abilities to express their emotions appropriately in constructive discontent, as well as their reaction to problems, creativity, innovativeness and intentionality, as seen in a communicated vision and set goals, also needed further investigation (cf. 4.2; 4.6.4). The latter was further deemed necessary, because the better qualified, more experienced and older educators experienced dissatisfaction in the clusters of achievement, comfort and autonomy (cf.4.6.5).

Although different sub-groups revealed different areas of dissatisfaction, the indicators identified by this study as the main sources of dissatisfaction, as well as EI and leadership deficiencies were investigated as possible contributors to the latter, as indicated in Table 5.1.

The personal perceptions of the participants regarding the previous problem areas were explored in the qualitative phase of this investigation and will be presented and discussed. These issues to be followed-up by the qualitiative investigation included:

5.4.2 Findings

The findings regarding the qualitative investigation of the previous problem areas will now be presented and discussed.

5.4.2.1 Safety

The safety domain included the indicators of how departmental policies and practices were implemented, the human relations involved in supervision and the technical competency of the supervision. The educators were in general, satisfied with the relationships between them and their education leaders, as well as the technical competencies of their supervisor, and were therefore not further investigated in the interviews. However, the implementation of the departmental policies and practices appeared to be one of the biggest sources of dissatisfaction that needed further investigation.

5.4.2.1.1   The way departmental policies are put into practice

In the interviews the participants expressed themselves as follows about the implementation of departmental policies and practices:

Participant 1:

"It is quite a problem because the department often does not have the necessary facilities at its disposal to send out sufficient photocopies, CDs, e-mails, et cetera, to ensure speedy implementation. At the school one is then expected to apply – with retroactive effect – to the letter, which is very frustrating."

Participant 2:

"Policy is strictly adhered to in order to stay in line for 'best performing schools'. *This is very exhausting. It lowers independence, creativity and job satisfaction, as well as diverting the focus from the learner."*

Participant 3:

"Departmental policy is implemented to the letter. It is often very frustrating to you as an educator when you are expected to jump to bring about senseless changes to your subject every time the department changes something."

Participant 4:

"Sometimes policies are ignored; however, mostly they are implemented to the letter, without flexibility, or particular circumstances being taken into consideration, as if retaliating actions from the department are feared above what is best for our school."

Participant 6:

"He sticks strictly to the policy, but is also humane.   Should you not understand, or have the necessary knowledge, he will ensure that you contact experts, or receive training.   The heads of department also carry out their responsibility to help you apply policy properly.   This naturally improves job satisfaction, because you know where to get help and advice."

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Participant 7:

"Departmental policy is implemented as required. This always leads to frustration for us as educators, seeing that things must be changed regularly which takes time and causes stress."

Participant 8:

"All I know about the department is that they constantly change things in education, which makes our work more because they have demands that must be implemented immediately and exactly the way they want them. This causes us much more preparation, as well as having to change planning and class situations, which often feels quite impossible, so we feel they are not always aware of the impact of these changes. They probably have good intentions, but sometimes things are unpleasant because of the high demands and the strict application of policy".

These responses indicated that departmental policies and practices were implemented rigorously and that principals were not taking any risks and even adding to the workload. One of the problems that emerged was the department's incapacity to disseminate the information in time. Policies and directives often arrived after the implementation dates and educators had to adapt work already done; for instance year planning and portfolios, according to these new policies. Another problem seems to be the constant change and the inflexibility of the implementation of the policies without consideration for different situations. In addition, this caused a lot of frustration and stress due to uncertainty for the educators – educators are change-tired. It appeared to educators that the focus is on administration and not on what is meaningful and in the best interest of the learner.

Although the implementation of changes caused much frustration for the educators, some of them were proud to adhere to it since it made them eligible to be one of the *"best performing schools"* and being a pilot school for the implementation of new policies supposedly meant status, publicity and incentives from the department as illustrated by the response of participant 5.

Participant 5:

"Excellent! I believe we are one of only a few schools that try, as a school to adhere to departmental policies (whims and fancies) as far as is humanly possible. I think we may be regarded, in many respects, as pilot school for many new things."

The latter is an indication that even if principals do not have a choice in the implementation of departmental policies, the innovative ways in which they implement them and their positive mindset could influence the educators' attitudes towards the policies and lessen the frustration while enhancing job satisfaction.

Another job satisfaction domain with which many educators were dissatisfied was the status domain.

5.4.2.2   Status

The status domain included the following items: The chances for advancement, recognition in the form of praise they get for a job well done, authority and social status. Seeing that the educators were mostly satisfied or highly satisfied with the latter two items, the first two items were probed during the interviews.

5.4.2.2.1   The chances for advancement

Advancement, or rather the lack of it, was rated as the third highest cause of dissatisfaction among educators according to the MSQ results. Regarding the chances for advancement, the views expressed by the participants were:

Participant 1:

"These no longer exist. There is no way you can rise because you are experienced and cannot necessarily move to another town or province. White men must hold on to what they have and hope somebody dies; even then, someone of another colour or gender than they are can get it first."

Participant 2:

"Extremely weak. However, it doesn't bother me much, because I don't have great aspirations to become head of subject, and be kept even busier at no extra remuneration."

Participant 3:

"Chances are slim … this influences my job satisfaction very negatively. Why work harder if you have nothing towards which you can strive?"

Participant 4:

"Chances for promotion are indeed slim these days and could demotivate many of us. However, I don't think that's something individual schools/principals can do much about. The problem probably lies within the system."

Participant 5:

"May I ask … which chances for advancement?! It often leaves a bad taste in one's mouth when one realises that in the teaching workplace, it is irrelevant today whether one is a 'loafer', or whether one practises one's calling to the fullest in heart and mind – there is no advancement!! Today one only needs to live happily with one's own conscience!"

Participant 6:

"There are very few possibilities. Government does not create that many posts. This has never really influenced me. It is not a factor – I do my best by nature."

Participant 7:

"Possibilities for promotion are slim; this has a very negative influence on my job satisfaction. Why work harder if you have nothing higher and better to work for? One only does one's best for the sake of the learners."

Participant 8:

"I don't really see chances for promotion, unless I get a departmental post, which is not on the horizon right now. So, it is not going to happen soon. That makes one

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feel rebellious at times, because one works oneself to death for very little money,
so that one doesn't feel like doing all the extras expected of one".

The above comments indicated unanimous dissatisfaction and frustration among educators about their chances for advancement. Notwithstanding the latter, educators still gave of their best in the interests of the learners according to their personal values and were intrinsically motivated to contribute to the learners' development, as well as being grateful for a job. Advancement is important in achieving job satisfaction as experts view advancement as the recognition of achievement as a major motivator in achieving job satisfaction. As indicated by the quantitative results of Chapter 4, it is of particular importance to the older, more experienced educators with higher qualifications.

Although these policies could not be attributed to the principal, the principals should do everything in their power to offset the dissatisfaction in innovative ways, as will be given in Chapter 6. The quotations illustrate the effect of the slim chances for advancement on particularly older and more experienced educators and white males. A source of dissatisfaction, as identified by the participants, could possibly be the numbers game played by affirmative action and employment equity which may be perceived as not focusing on ability, competency and excellence.

Even delegation and empowerment is not able to offset the negative effects of this lack of advancement as participant 2 indicated that he/she is not interested in being a head of a learning area with more time-consuming responsibilities without being paid for it. This situation could cause educators to be less productive and enthusiastic and a reason why many intend to leave the profession. The interviews in addition, indicated that the IQMS was not regarded by educators as sufficient and proficient in differentiating between excellent and average educators.

How the participants felt about the recognition they receive from their principals, as part of the status domain, should also be probed in the interviews.

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5.4.2.2.2 Recognition of achievements

Opportunities to achieve and the recognition of achievements were also identified by the motivational theories as an important indicator of job satisfaction. The latter were indicated to be another cause of dissatisfaction amongst educators. To the question: "Does your education leader give you, as an individual, sufficient recognition for your achievements and for what you are doing at/for the school, and if he does, how?" the responses ranged between being satisfied to dissatisfied. Those satisfied responded:

Participant 2:

"Yes, in the staff room he does give recognition for achievements … sometimes also in person, should he bump into you."

Participant 4:

"I do not do my work for the recognition it may bring. However, I usually find the appreciation quite sufficient."

Participant 6:

"For achievements, when your learners have done well or something, he always congratulates you in the staffroom. Keeps abreast of everything. Hands out cards of congratulations … knows exactly what everyone does and contributes. He always expresses thanks for anything you do."

Participant 7:

"My principal regularly gives verbal recognition for what I contribute towards the school, although no verbal recognition can truly reflect how much time and energy one invests in a school."

Participant 8:

"Every time I, or someone else, does something or goes to a workshop or something else extra, he acknowledges it, especially in the staffroom but also during assembly. He thanks and congratulates, et cetera".

Nevertheless, not all the respondents were satisfied with the recognition they receive as indicated by the following responses:

Participant 1:

"I don't think so, for the simple reason that I don't think he is quite aware of all I do for and at the school. I don't think recognition and appreciation matter so much to a born teacher. Although it is pleasant, it does not make you a more satisfied worker."

Participant 3:

"Not really. One sometimes gets the idea that it is expected that one should spend all one's time and energy at school, irrespective of experiencing burnout, or neglecting one's family and personal life."

Participant 5:

"Sometimes. I think the education system today … with paperwork having priority … it's … we are losing all human feelings and interpersonal contact. To what purpose…? Definitely not to the child's advantage! Willing donkeys are often overloaded! I think our principals are totally out of contact with the reality of classrooms today, and are not always aware of what sacrifices are being made!"

These quotations were in line with the quantitative results insofar that many of the participants felt that their educaytion leaders did not give any or nearly enough recognition for what they do in/for the school; neither do they acknowledge their personal achievements and the sacrifices they make for the school. More disturbing is the fact that some of the educators felt that the education leaders are not in touch with what is going on in the classrooms because they are too busy with administration. This is a clear suggestion that recognition as a major motivator is not fully utilised, thus impacting negatively on job satisfaction, together with the fact that education leaders are out of touch with what is really going on in their schools because of their administrative work-load.

A few participants indicated that although they appreciate recognition, it did not matter that much to them. This is an indication of self-motivated educators with a strong

sense of self-efficacy whose performance is not dependent on the principal's recognition and praise.

When asked what type of recognition they expected from the education leader, the educators responded as follows:

Participant 1:

"I don't expect rewards in the form of money or awards; a sentence that says 'I see what you do, thank you' will do. Maybe he could notice – which he doesn't do, perhaps because he, too, bites off more than he can chew – that things are getting out of hand and could ask 'Can I get someone to help you?' "

Participant 2:

"That's good … leads to job motivation. As mentioned, we do get recognition in the staff room for achievements, but financial compensation for extra time, and overtime would be highly appreciated."

Participant 3:

"I expect at least spoken recognition for achievements and hard work. Bonuses would also help. A small token of thanks, such as vouchers or KFC during break would be much appreciated - just something small (if large salary increases are impossible) to show that what one does, is noticed.

There is, by no means, sufficient recognition for what one takes on, especially as far as sport is concerned, where one sacrifices as much as a week of one's holiday at a time for tours, etc., while it seems to be regarded, basically, as part of one's job. I have also put in many hours for a concert, as well as other cultural activities at school, for which I have received no recognition at all. This influences my job satisfaction very negatively. One feels as if one would rather work where one is appreciated."

Participant 4:

"I regard a proper 'thank you' as enough recognition, because it is a display of basic good manners. I can't complain of ever feeling that recognition and appreciation is lacking, but I have seen the contributions of colleagues being overlooked."

Participant 5:

"Thank you ... in words and deeds … will do. It is done mostly in passing. Recognition and appreciation serves as motivation … not only for me but also for the larger group of teachers."

Participant 6:

"Firstly … congratulations on your learners' achievements. Appreciation, at least, for what you do, ought to be shown; a word of thanks at least. That motivates you to uphold and even improve your standard of work. When someone appreciates what you do, you are motivated to do even more."

Participant 7:

"Spoken recognition is fine as far as achievements and time sacrificed for teaching is concerned. However, I would like to receive financial compensation for, for example, sports tours and courses, which I undertake and attend during holidays when other staff members rest.

I get quite a bit of recognition and appreciation for tasks taken on. However, as mentioned before, I'm not sure that I'll ever be appreciated enough in a school for all the extra hours, difficult parents, and stress that I have to handle. The principal probably doesn't even know about everything one does and suffers."

Participant 8:

"Well, it's mostly in words, but words mean a lot. Any positive word from the principal will motivate one to do a bit more ... anyway, I don't think he can really give more than that. There isn't money; that would be nice, but it doesn't happen".

These answers unmistakably indicate the importance of just 'thank you' as recognition for the time and effort put in for a job well done. Even though a few mentioned that they would have appreciated monetary contributions, in particular for school activities such as sports tours during holidays, others would appreciate a bonus or vouchers as a sign of gratitude, but at least a 'thank you'.

Recognition could encourage further achievement and should be utilised by education leaders to motivate educators while enhancing interpersonal dimensions through communication of positive experiences. In addition, recognition should build the self-esteem of educators as it makes them feel they are doing something worthwhile.

The lack of recognition, and even worse, the preferential treatment some educators receive, according to participant 4, can be very demoralising to those who are not treated equally. The latter could reflect on the education leader's integrity with a loss of trust in his/her leadership.

Another domain of job satisfaction that indicated areas of dissatisfaction explored by the interviews was comfort.

5.4.2.3   Comfort

The comfort domain included the items of activity, independence, variety, compensation, security and working conditions. Most of the educators rated their independence, security and working conditions from neutral to highly satisfactory. However, compensation as the salary educators receive compared to the work they do, was rated as the main source of dissatisfaction. To be able to be busy all the time was investigated in the interviews as it came to the researcher's attention that for educators, this item had a totally different meaning from that implied by the questionnaire – educators are too busy with too many activities and this is rated as the second highest source of dissatisfaction. The role of compensation in relation to the workload will now be investigated.

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5.4.2.3.1   Compensation

In some instances compensation could be seen as a motivator. In the interviews compensation was not discussed in view of the fact that it is an issue in which the National Department of Education is the main player and educators can challenge them only through their trade unions. The education leaders could consequently not be held responsible for salaries, but they should endeavour to counteract the dissatisfaction. If education leaders are not successful regarding the latter, and taking the workload into consideration, educators may leave education for other jobs since research has shown that even satisfied employees leave jobs that do not compensate them adequately.

However, when the researcher came into contact with educators from the larger cities and private schools in other provinces, it was realised that the principal and the School Governing Body (SGB) could play a role in improving the workload of educators in relation to their salaries, as will be discussed in the recommendations.

5.4.2.3.2   Activity: Being able to keep busy all the time

As mentioned, educators do not have a problem of being occupied with a variety of activities; their problem is to get everything done that they are supposed to do. Activity could also be linked to compensation since compensation should be in accordance with workload, which implies activities that keep educators busy. Regarding activities that kept educators busy, the following transpired from the interviews:

Participant 1:
"In the present set-up and with the curriculum, one is constantly busy planning and enriching … there are just not enough hours in a day! Add to this the afternoons and weekends one has to spend on extra-mural. That could make one look for a job with fixed hours."

Participant 2:
"The problem is not staying busy … there are too many school activities, which is very exhausting. Marking is also constantly on the increase. One just can't stay

*abreast. This could lead to burnout. An exhausted person is a negative person –
one that could easily opt out of teaching.”*

Participant 3:

*“I can't think of one moment that is not occupied by either marking or sport! I
wouldl rather say we are too busy, which influences my job satisfaction negatively.
It gives me the feeling that everything we do at the school is in a flurry.”*

Participant 4:

*“The day of a language teacher never has enough hours. I would appreciate more
time so that this need not always be so rushed.”*

Participant 5:

*“To be busy MEANINGFULLY at all times, is a winning situation … just don't know
if all the duplicating in teaching nowadays could be regarded as MEANINGFUL.
There are definitely better ways of being busy constantly, which would also be to
the advantage of the school, LEARNER and community.”*

Participant 6:

*“In teaching there is always too much work. There is always marking. There is
always sport. The problem is not to remain busy – it is to get through everything
that needs to be done. Syllabi expect too much for the time allocated and
available, with everything else too. One does not really have job satisfaction in this
regard, because one constantly worries about how to get everything done.”*

Participant 7:

*“There is more than enough work to keep me busy. One battles to keep up with
marking in between the sport. Sometimes one wishes for a little time in which to be
unhurried and to have some time for oneself as well as one's home. The constant
scurrying sometimes makes me negative.”*

Participant 8:

"It gets to one, as one is really very busy and one feels one's whole life is taken over, because the administration, extra sport, and extra-mural activities take up so much time; one gets so involved in all that, that one doesn't get to one's own life, which sometimes makes things rather unpleasant".

From the abovementioned it is apparent that educators are unanimous about a work overload resulting from curriculum changes, meaningless duplications, too much marking in relation to the available time, with added extracurricular activities. As remarked on by participants, the consequences could be negativity, contemplating quitting, quitting or burnout. Moreover, if people are to be too busy all the time, without enough personal time and tired all the time, distress with all its negative effects, could develop. The latter could be contagious and have negative effects on interpersonal relations, productivity and job satisfaction, which may not be in the best interest of the learners.

Even though departmental policies are very clear concerning marking and administration and education leaders are not responsible for all of the dissatisfaction, they should be empathetic and plan to ease the workload of educators or lose them, as will be discussed in Chapter 6.

From the abovementioned it appears as though educators feel overloaded and overworked and that their abilities are not fully utilised in meaningful activities to achieve imprtant goals. The more experienced and older educators, as well as those with the higher qualification levels were more dissatisfied in the achievement domain.

5.4.2.4   Achievement

It is very important for educators to feel that their abilities are utilised and that they experience a sense of achievement by accomplishing something worthwhile and meaningful in order to achieve job satisfaction. The latter may develop their full potential and self-esteem by engaging them in meaningful activities that allow them to be successful.

5.4.2.4.1   Ability utilisation

The question: "Does your schoolwork allow you to make use of all your abilities?" elicited the following responses:

Participant 1:

"That is the ideal, but I don't think it's always possible in specific subjects, nor with the division of work. I am fairly satisfied with the degree to which my skills, although not fully, are applied. He (the education leader) is also limited by what he can do with what (that is, the present staff) he has at his disposal."

Participant 2:

"Well, as far as possible. Circumstances don't always allow for one to apply one's area of skill. One obviously enjoys the work more if one does something for which one has a passion. One is then more successful, too."

Participant 3:

"My skills are applied very effectively; I am used in areas where I have experience and/or talent. My skills are fully utilised and I attend courses regularly to improve my skills. This improves one's self-confidence and job satisfaction."

Participant 4:

"My experience is that my skills and abilities are well utilised. Sometimes one realises that a colleague, for some unknown reason, is expected to do things he/she has no interest in or skill for."

Participant 5:

"Sometimes one gets the opportunity to find fulfilment in one's field of skill to one's own advantage, as well as that of the group as a whole who all benefit from one's skills and knowledge. However, in teaching one's expected many a time to show one's mettle in fields one would NEVER have tackled of one's own accord. I can really not say that this is to the advantage of anybody."

Participant 6:

"He (the education leaderl) endeavours to apply your skills as best and as far as possible. He is prepared to rearrange things in order to accommodate everybody. When you do something that you are capable of, you do it better. It causes no stress, and your work is so much better."

Participant 7:

"My skills are fully utilised. I would rather say that the problem at this school is that one is over-utilised, so that one often feels on the brink of burnout."

Participant 8:

"Not always, no. Because I have an Honours and have furthered my studies, I often feel that in class I don't seem to get to that which really interests me, that my studies were on, because there is no time for that. Because I have to coach sport, for which I have no real interest, I get to these things even less. In that respect, things are not very satisfactory."

The above quotations indicate that the majority of educators felt that not all their abilities are fully utilised, but they expressed their understanding of the dilemma of education leaders who have only so many educators and must fill the timetable according to the national educator-learner ratio. The latter may be the cause of the over-utilisation of some educators, as expressed by participants 5 and 7, which may cause burnout. All of the participating educators felt that they would be more satisfied, successful and feel that they were accomplishing something if they were used more in their ability-field. The latter may improve the educators' self-efficacy, would be for the common good of education and in the best interest of the learners. Participant 3 mentioned in particular, that if they are used in accordance with their abilities, they have more self-confidence and should be specially trained if used outside of their field of specialisation, as did the leader of participant 6.

Achievement and autonomy were two additional problem areas particularly for the educators with higher qualification levels and years of experience, as well as the older educators that were investigated because they are valuable and form a large portion of the workforce.

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5.4.2.5   Autonomy

It was the older, more experienced and more highly qualified educators who were more dissatisfied in the autonomy cluster. Since the autonomy cluster included creativity as the chance to try their own methods in doing the job, and responsibility as the freedom to use their own judgment, these facets of dissatisfaction were further quantitatively explored.

5.4.2.5.1   Creativity

To allow educators to be creative and act responsibly by accepting the responsibility for the outcomes, principals should be innovative, flexible and adaptable (cf. 3.5.2.5; 3.5.8). The creativity and innovativeness educators were allowed by their principals were first explored and then the innovativeness and willingness of the education leaders to allow the former were investigated. When the participants were asked to elaborate on the times they are allowed to be creative, innovative and challenge the status quo, the responses ranged from those who felt they were allowed to be creative and those who did not. The former group responded as follows:

Participant 2:
"The principal regards us as professional teachers and allows us to be creative. He welcomes our input, which is very motivating."

Participant 3:
"There were sufficient opportunities to think creatively in my subject, as well as in extra-mural activities. This nurtures a feeling of job satisfaction and relations of trust".

Participant 4:
"In one's classroom there is much room for creativity. As far as 'how things are done here' there are many things that seem impossible to change."

Participant 6:

"He doesn't have a problem should you wish to try something new, as long as the learners don't suffer any damage. Yes, it is pleasant to do what you are capable of and not be limited in your creativity."

Participant 8:

'Although one is often told what to do, and how to do it, I am fairly on my own in class so that I can decide what is right and what wrong, even if I have to follow other people's guidelines. To a certain extent I find this positive, because it then allows for some creativity, which is nicer than having to follow a recipe exactly the way other people tell you to do. That makes it better".

The previous participants, of whom four are younger educators, said that they were allowed to be creative and innovative in their learning area and in their extra-curricular activities. However, participant 4 agreed with the latter, but felt that they were not allowed to be creative in the total running of the school. The other participants, comprising more senior educators, experienced their education leaders' exploitation of their creativity and innovativeness more negatively, as illustrated by these responses:

Participant 1:

"It becomes difficult when all one's proposals are shot down … later one just leaves everything be and stops trying something different … one becomes negative."

Participant 5:

"There's not much room for that these days! I am quite individualistic and have to admit that I don't always dance to the present education tunes. These days many facilitators try to mould one to such an extent that there is very little room for one's own innovation and enthusiasm … and they are followed faithfully by the principal! Maybe my experience and my passion for teaching and education save me from this situation. To me the main focus at any given time is the education and subject training of the child entrusted to me!"

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Participant 7:

"Not really any opportunities to think creatively. Things are done the way the head of my department feels they should be. This affects my job satisfaction negatively and makes me feel like a robot only carrying out the tasks expected."

The participants who were more dissatisfied regarding creativity and innovativeness comprised the older group who has more experience as found in the quantitative study. The reasons for the latter may be that they want to be allowed more autonomy to do what they believe is right according to their professional judgement based on experience or simply that they find it difficult to adapt to the change brought about by the new educational system. It furthermore appeared as though the policies and practices restricted educators and principals from being creative and innovative and should be investigated in further research. Education leaders should be emotionally aware and able to use and manage emotions by being innovative and willing to take calculated risks so as to recognise the contributions of others by shared decision-making and being flexible and adaptable to encourage others to achieve in a psychologically stimulating environment. However, to allow educators to be creative, education leaders should also be creative, innovative and able to take calculated risks. Regarding the latter, the participants responded in the following ways:

Participant 1:

"No, not at all! If the outcome cannot be largely calculated, it will not be taken."

Participant 2:

"Our principal is very conservative and does not easily take a gamble. This promotes job satisfaction because it provides security, especially to temporary staff. However, at the same time, it can have a negative effect because it is very frustrating sometimes."

Participant 3:

"My principal does everything by the book and takes very few chances. It does not really affect me."

Participant 4:

"This is something else that happens only by way of exception. Mostly, things remain unchanged. Sometimes it lets you feel safe and competent, but it can be frustrating at times."

Participant 5:

"This answer links to the fact that we do not step back and decide from the start that something won't work. Although we often drag our feet, there is always something new happening at our school! We make things work!"

Participant 6:

"Yes, within limits, with new developments, and progress in the application of knowledge and skills. He is competent and keeps up with new developments. Will try something new if it will improve teaching, as long as it does not contravene departmental policy. Something new sometimes brings tension because one is unsure of its results, but it also makes one's work interesting."

Participant 7:

"I feel that the principal is indeed prepared to take informed chances. It does not really affect my job satisfaction, because some of the new things do make the work easier and more interesting. However, to avoid trouble, very little deviation from policy is allowed."

Participant 8:

"If it would be to the benefit of the school, he will take chances. He likes improving. For example, we have just bought new mini-buses because the previous ones presented us with many problems. This is but one example: he constantly works towards improvement".

The previous responses indicate that the majority of education leaders are conservative and in general, not very innovative or prepared to take risks. This may be attributed in part, to departmental policies and practices that do not allow them any leeway in doing things differently and the serious consequences of not complying with their dictates, even if their schools are successful and functional. It is interesting to

note that not every educator who indicated that his/her education leader was not very creative or innovative felt that he/she was not allowed creativity in his/her class.

Therefore, education leaders who preserved the status quo were not always experienced as negative as some respondents said that it contributed to an educator's experience of safety and competency. Nonetheless, innovative education leaders were perceived as being more up to date with the latest trends and educators experienced their work as more stimulating and interesting. The latter may be because of different personal reactions to change. The innovativeness of education leaders may influence their empathy and educators' perceptions regarding their workload, variety of activities and compensation. If educators are allowed to be creative and innovative they should also be granted the responsibility for the outcomes of their actions.

5.4.2.5.2   Responsibility

When educators were asked whether principals grant them responsibility insofar as they are allowed to use their own judgement, they responded as follows:

Participant 1:
"At my age I am quite capable of using my own judgement with good results. The principal allows this, even if only within limits. It serves to give me more job satisfaction."

Participant 2:
"Yes, I may use my own judgement, but our work is also controlled regularly. This serves as motivation to take care that one's work is always correct and up to date."

Participant 3:
"I am allowed to use my own judgement regularly, but only within the framework of departmental- and school policy; however, this affects my job satisfaction very little."

Participant 4:

*"This is something where teachers could be given more freedom, on condition that they **accept** responsibility for the consequences of judgement errors that might occur."*

Participant 5:

"We are allowed our own judgement, but at times one feels as if one is reined in tightly from the top. I think it's once again only a matter of time. We don't always have the time to get together, and that might lead to matters that require handling, being ignored!"

Participant 6:

"Yes, within limits. As long as you don't disadvantage learners, and stick to policy. It does not affect my job satisfaction."

Participant 7:

"Not always space to use my own judgement.   We are usually told how to undertake tasks under the supervision of the HOD. This affects my job satisfaction negatively."

Participant 8:

"This is also part of creativity and independence. There are fixed guidelines to be followed from the department as well as the school, but one is responsible for the results of the method one uses in class. Therefore, one takes more trouble to do one's classwork well, and one feels good about good results".

The majority of the educators felt responsible for their actions and that their education leaders allowed them responsibility, within certain limits that kept them in line; a few felt restricted by the constant supervision of HODs and the department. To allow educators to be creative and accept responsibility, specific tasks should be allocated to them to develop and empower them through delegation and shared decision making.

During the interviews the educators were also asked questions regarding the contribution of the specific EI and leadership practices of their education leaders regarding the latter that may influence their job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

5.4.3   EI competencies and Leadership Practices' influence on job satisfaction

Certain EI and leadership competencies that were identified as problem areas and may influence successful leadership and job satisfaction were thus investigated qualitatively. This included an education leader's self-awareness that should enable him/her to communicate a vision as goals and priorities to pursue, in order to provide a sense of purpose and motivate educators towards achieving job satisfaction. The participants were asked to describe the influence their principal's vision, motivation, communication, empowerment by delegating tasks and shared decision making, as well as professional, personal and leadership improvement, via training and created opportunities. Constructive discontent and expressing their emotions appropriately were investigated by asking the participants describe their leaders' reaction to problems.

5.4.3.1   Providing a vision and a sense of purpose

No achievement is possible without goals created by a meaningful vision. A principal's foremost duty is to create a vision of what should be achieved in the school and enable the staff to focus on core activities. The goals envisioned by the shared vision should enable the efficient leader to focus on key priorities and provide hope and encouragement to keep dreams and ideals alive. Since the vision and key priorities are related, the participants were asked if education leaders are able to focus on key priorities to realise their vision. The educators' perceptions of the vision created and communicated by their principal and goals as priorities focused on, were:

Participant 1:

"He really can put his mind to something, but sometimes he loses his head over something.   We are not always sure what his plans are … he changes them too easily without letting us into them. Focus is too often lost to accommodate people

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from outside the school instead of placing the learner, who is after all most important, first."

Participant 2:

"This he does very well; the principal is very purposeful. You know exactly where you and the school are going, what is expected of you and what must be achieved. This improves your job satisfaction and it helps to stay focused on what really matters, thus improving your job satisfaction because you do not waste time on some unnecessary things that consume your time and energy."

Participant 3:

"A vision was constantly held up and goals set. It was very effective as it gave one a framework of what one was intent upon. It definitely made my work more purposeful.

According to me, the principal prioritises very well, so that important matters are completed first. Educators are given a list of dates for the completion of important tasks. This promotes motivation and job satisfaction substantially."

Participant 4:

"A vision is usually set and defined, but often deviated from … normally because of a return to the old way of doing things. Priorities are probably an area where opinions will differ on WHAT exactly would be key priorities: what I regard as most important, somebody else could have much lower on the list."

Participant 5:

"As you may have picked up, he is positive in his approach to matters. He has specific goals that we must reach, and believes that we must make things work at grassroots level … for our own sake … it is our bread and butter … and the school, as well as the learners' future, depend upon us. As I've said before, I think most principals have lost touch with what goes on in a classroom; therefore, I have mixed feelings regarding the adherence to priorities. For me, the first priority of the school should be the education and academic training of the CHILD! I'm not sure that all of the focus of teaching lies there any longer!"

Participant 6:

"Yes, certainly. His being a Christian makes him purposeful. He is positive and organised, and everybody is aware of his vision for the school. He focuses on important matters, not on trivialities. He has the ability to differentiate between the important and the unimportant. He does not act hastily and always support us because he is well-informed on policy and other matters. He readily asks for help, should he be uncertain about something. He is focused, and this helps one to remain focused and not waste time, which helps much towards job satisfaction."

Participant 7:

"No set vision is held up; more just the goal that each of us do our very best every day. I react positively to this approach, seeing that one then takes one day at a time without being overwhelmed by an impossible vision."

Participant 8:

"He has a great vision and a sense of purpose. The principal's demands are high; he knows exactly what he wants but one knows clearly what is expected as he frequently reminds us in the staffroom about this. He will go out of his way to have the school perform at its best but, one is not pressured above one's capabilities. He sets us goals, very high goals, but it helps us grow and encourages us. He sometimes pushes us to improve on what we are doing, and makes it possible for us to do just that.

I think, in general, what he expects from us is important, but what we feel is sometimes less important, might not be his entire fault. Very often the thing we regard as less important comes from the department. So, the principal often has to have things carried out that we may think are unnecessary, but it is not his fault".

The interviews suggest that a clear and shared vision of goals to achieve is not always communicated to the staff. The latter then speaks for itself as to why many of the more experienced and older educators experience less satisfaction in the achievement domain of job satisfaction since activities may seam aimless and a waste of time.

According to the literature it is these educators with the highest expectations from their jobs that need achievement to endorse self-actualisation.

However, as indicated by participant 6, a vision may increase the focus on priorities and prevent time wasted on non-essentials. Participant 7 again indicated the importance of short-term achieveable goals and that a vision should not attemt to achieve the impossible.

The abovementioned is an indication that the same leaders who were not able to communicate a shared vision, were not able to focus on key priorities stemming from their vision with the same frustrating effects. Participant 5 doubted, when prompted, whether the best interest of the child is still a priority, implying too much emphasis on sport activities. The next step was to determine if those differences regarding a vision and goal-setting have an influence on the motivational abilities of principals. When a clear shared vision, with specific goals to achieve, is not created, those educators could be the most frustrated by such a deficiency in leadership practices.

It is as a result, not only obligatory for principals to create a vision, but they should also focus on key priorities and motivate educators to achieve those goals presented in the vision.

5.4.3.2   Motivation

To realise the goals that should be focused on as set out in the vision, education leaders should be able to motivate educators by being innovative and take calculated risks to achieve those prioritised goals, thereby enhancing staff job satisfaction.

Whether they see their principals as motivators, elicited various responses from the participating educators. These responses were:

Participant 1:
"Not really a motivator … too seldom honest and truthful with everybody. If he should get any resistance, he easily reconsiders."

Participant 2:

"He is a real Christian. To him, teaching has a higher purpose than merely getting a salary; therefore, one experiences far more job satisfaction."

Participant 3:

"The principal is a Christian and very humble. He constantly motivates us with Scripture, prayer and inspiring pieces. That improves my job satisfaction greatly."

Participant 4:

"Motivation is often only talk, which is believed by only a few; it has no real effect and does not contribute to job satisfaction in any way."

Participant 5:

"It serves as motivation and there is nothing better, more inspiring, than a positive attitude, as well as positive thinking on the part of the principal."

Participant 6:

"He always encourages you, and is involved and positive - including about your personal life. By his example he motivates you to give your utmost to your school at all times."

Participant 7:

"The fact that the principal sets an example in participation in and involvement with school activities, as well as his genuine friendliness serves as motivation to me and enhances my job satisfaction."

Participant 8:

"He definitely motivates us. As I've said, he has a way of motivating people by his positiveness and diligence, so that everyone tries to be like that. He is a good Christian who loves his learners. One can see his main concern is the children. This influences one positively regarding the children and the whole process of education".

The above clearly indicates what role an education leader as a model can be; his/her values and trust in the staff, as well as the encouragement and sense of purpose he/she gives to a staff's motivation and therefore job satisfaction. Without proper motivation and trust in the leader, nobody would believe in the created vision as expressed by participant 1 and 3. The latter may, as a consequence, impair goal-achievement and commitment, which again may lead to dissatisfaction because goals may be perceived to be non-existent, ever shifting, false or egotistical and will thus not be worthwhile achieving.

Job satisfaction may be further enhanced if the shared vision is properly communicated thereby engaging them in shared decision making and delegation that may develop their capabilities and leadership potential.

5.4.3.3   Communication

The level of interpersonal communication of education leaders, as a necessity in successful leadership towards job satisfaction by communicating a vision, set goals, motivation and encouraging educators, was described by the educators as follows:

Participant 1:

"Communication is not good enough. Some information is communicated either not at all, or too late. This displeases people and unnecessary conflict arises."

Participant 2:

"It is generally good … It prevents misunderstandings because everybody is well-informed … which creates a pleasant working environment."

Participant 3:

"Communication is fairly effective, and this promotes good relations and better job satisfaction, as one is constantly abreast with events in one's school."

Participant 4:

"There is room for improvement. There often are incidences of decisions that are not clearly explained, or even shared. This leads to confusion and dissatisfaction."

Participant 5:

"Communication is mostly good … although sometimes a little hurried and rash. Communication has a DIRECT effect on my job satisfaction because things that are changed at number 99, cause MAJOR frustration!"

Participant 6:

"Very good - to know exactly where, when and what to do. This helps one to have no stress, and to know in advance what to do. Less stress brings more job satisfaction."

Participant 7:

"Communication between the leader and staff certainly can improve. Channels of communication between heads of department and staff are also unclear. Ineffective communication causes conflict and poor job satisfaction."

Participant 8:

"Ever since I have been here, I have felt free to ask anybody if I didn't understand something … so, I would say communication is really good. It is important to the principal that we are all right. He asks us, as well as others if we are all right. We always know where we stand, and what is expected of us. We are always informed about what goes on at school".

Even though many education leaders are excellent communicators, it appears as if the same principals who were perceived as not recognising the achievements of their educators, not possessing or engaging staff in a shared vision or focusing on key priorities, appeared to be ineffective communicators. These education leaders additionally, appear to be not outstanding motivators or to empower and engage educators in shared decision making, as well as not being innovative risk takers. The latter may point towards the importance of communication in effective leadership.

To create a sound work environment and enhance interpersonal dimensions, education leaders should not only be effective communicators, they should also react appropriately and empathetically to educators' problems.

5.4.3.4   Reaction to problems

The education leaders' reaction to problems, as an indication of empathy and constructive discontent, could influence the emotional climate of a school and affect the autonomy educators are allowed, the trust they put in the leader and the responsibility educators will readily accept. The reaction to problems is furthermore, an indication of a principal's flexibility and adaptability and whether he/she is able to create a psychologically sound and safe working environment.

The responses regarding the education leaders' reaction to problems varies from a very positive diplomatic and considerate approach to problems, to taking control of situations. It appears that in general, these approaches were considered as very motivating and satisfying by educators, as illustrated by the participants:

Participant 2:

"He's very diplomatic and also very reasonable. This makes times of crises easier, and one experiences more motivation and job satisfaction because of his support."

Participant 3:

"The education leader is very strict as far as school problems are concerned, and one's work must be correct at all times, without exception, but as far as personal problems are concerned, he is extremely kind. This made me respect him, and caused me to work even harder, thus bringing me more job satisfaction."

Participant 5:

"The leader's reaction to problems directly influences the working environment. I have to credit the principal with the fact that even if he does not often agree with certain things, he never influences us negatively, but will rather convince us that these concern our bread and butter, and that we must make things work at grassroots level!"

Participant 6:

"Always very positive, and solutions must be found. The SMT and education leader devise plans to solve problems. This does not make one negative, because the problem is solved before one can worry too much about it."

Participant 7:

"The leader immediately takes control of problems; he tries to stay positive and helps you to solve your problem without humiliating you. He supports you and helps you. This affects my job satisfaction, as well as my attitude towards him extremely positively."

Participant 8:

"He handles problems very calmly and diplomatically. He won't make matters worse for a person who has problems. He really handles everything well, in a pleasant, calm way without being nasty. It makes things easier to know he won't bite one's head off if one makes a mistake. Even if it is something important, he handles problems very nicely. It puts one at ease and allows one to try things".

Those whose reactions frustrate educators and influence them negatively were perceived as:

Participant 1:

"Mostly makes me negative. I can't always see a problem the way he does. He sometimes makes things unnecessarily complicated, and wants to please and satisfy people from outside the school, instead of resolving the problem there and then."

Participant 4:

"Overreaction is often the norm … very frustrating. The principal is not always capable of thinking on his feet."

The positive approach may contribute to job satisfaction because educators are not afraid to take the initiative and make mistakes from which they can learn. This may nurture personal growth and the realisation of educators' full potential. By aa education

leader being considerate, educators may additionally feel that they are heard and count as individuals. In addition, leaders should provide a vision as a sense of purpose towards goal achievement.

Job satisfaction could be additionally enhanced by a staff's shared vision, shared decision making and shared delegation, thus developing their capabilities and leadership potential.

5.4.3.5   Empowering educators by developing their leadership

The development of educator leadership abilities is of utmost importance regarding succession, motivation and successful delegation. The interviewed educators expressed their perceptions concerning the development and utilisation of their leadership abilities in the following ways:

Participant 1:

"Maybe the management team have the opportunity, but not ordinary teachers; they simply receive instructions that say 'I said that is what you must do'."

Participant 2:

"It is done, as far as possible, by making each person responsible for certain tasks. However, opportunities are very limited."

Participant 3:

"I don't believe that there is any formal development of my leadership abilities; however, so far this has not had any effect on my motivation and job satisfaction."

Participant 4:

"Educators are afforded the opportunity to attend courses and some are sometimes given positions in which they can apply leadership."

Participant 5:

"I don't think there are many opportunities in education today in which the education leader has a role to play in empowering teachers regarding leadership. I

personally think there are TOO MUCH politics … racial questions and nepotism! I also believe jealousy, due to pressure in the workplace, has become a factor."

Participant 6:

"He tries to appoint everybody in posts for which they are qualified and have the necessary training. In a school everybody must act as a leader at times; for example, regarding sport, as well as organising functions. People are sent on courses and other opportunities for development. He is well-informed regarding such opportunities."

Participant 7:

"I don't believe that there has been any formal development of my leadership qualities. It has not had any effect on my job satisfaction so far."

Participant 8:

"I am not so sure about leadership development, but we have been exposed to recent developments. He is a stickler for his staff members' attending departmental training sessions and workshops. He always informs us about all possible courses and encourages us to attend. So, I would say that he tries to develop the staff positively."

The responses of the educators, point to the fact that not all educators are allowed to take part in decision making and in activities that may develop their leadership abilities. These educators may then be less committed and engaged, without the experience of ownership and buy-in in a psychologically nourishing work environment. To fully utilise the knowledge and capabilities of educators in a constantly changing profession, they should be allowed to embark on training that develops their capabilities and satisfies their personal developmental needs.

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5.4.3.6   Training and development of capabilities that relate to the staff's developmental needs

The inherent abilities and capabilities of staff should be improved and deficiencies addressed by continuous professional development related to the developmental needs of the educators. This is of particular importance as many educators are forced to teach learning areas and take charge of activities for which they are not properly trained. In this way, they may become more successful and experience a sense of achievement with less stress and an increase their job satisfaction.

To the question whether education leaders encourage their educators to undergo training that may develop their abilities and address their developmental needs, the educators' responses were:

Participant 1:

"At this stage training and development is largely done by the LFs in each learning area and by the school - absolutely nothing."

Participant 2:

"The leader motivates us and is strongly in favour of courses and opportunities for development … departmental and others. Some of these help one to do one's work better, which in turn, improves job satisfaction."

Participant 3:

"The staff is given opportunities to attend courses that address their development needs: the principal encourages this, and is always prepared for the school to cover costs if the courses are relevant. This is very motivating and has greatly raised job satisfaction."

Participant 4:

"I don't think that much of this exists and is a priority … only in the learning area by the LF."

Participant 5:

"In the past, talks by experts were organised, but the workload at present is such that educators will have to have lots of time before any aspect can be addressed meaningfully again … in the meantime there are the subject workshops."

Participant 6:

"As mentioned before, he keeps up to date with everything. He knows about every possible course and sends one to these. He also recommends good books to be read. He is a widely read person and often recommends appropriate reading matter, as well as certain courses that not only cover schoolwork. If one's personal needs are satisfied, one feels better and works better."

Participant 7:

"Staff members are given the chance to attend courses that address their need for development … the principal encourages this, and has always been prepared to have costs covered by the school if the courses are at all relevant. This promotes job satisfaction because one feels more competent and abreast of the latest developments."

Participant 8:

"We attend many courses and have learnt much in this way. These include departmental courses, as well as sport courses, such as netball. Recently, we attended courses at other schools that included motivation, as well as supporting learners with learning problems. If one has attended, he always thanks one. This is very motivating as one can see one's effort is appreciated".

Professional and personal development should be a priority for education leaders to empower educators by improving the educator knowledge and skills base with the intention of achieving excellence in education, as well as improving the overall job satisfaction of educators. The interviews however, suggest that the majority of principals focus only on immediate needs and do nothing regarding more long-term needs. Education leaders leave such matters to educators themselves or to the department and their learning area facilitators. These facilitators may only be adept insofar as it concerns the learning area and may not be capable of or required to

satisfy all the professional and personal developmental needs of educators. Leaders should address the latter as done by the principal of participant 7 and further discussed in Chapter 6, to improve educators' sense of self-worth, as well as quality education.

5.4.3.7   Engaging the staff in shared decision making

Educator involvement is vital for them to feel valued and appreciated and that they count as persons and thus experience job satisfaction. If educators are not involved in decision making, it may lead to detachment and reduced engagement, buy-in and ownership, as well as commitment. To establish whether education leaders engage their staff in shared decision making, the participants were asked to elaborate on the subject. The educator responses were:

Participant 1:

"It is sometimes done, but one usually gets the feeling that somebody else, or another group, will just change it again."

Participant 2:

"It does happen sometimes. At times this leads to lengthy discussions on relatively small decisions."

Participant 3:

"The education leader is very democratic in his decision making, and mostly we, as educators have a say in decision making, which makes one feel part of the organisation of the school and raises motivation and job satisfaction."

Participant 4:

"This does not happen often … At most, the management team gives input and the staff is informed or only asked for their approval."

Participant 5:

"At our school decision making is never a one-man-band. All staff members are asked regularly for input; otherwise, the management team is approached."

Participant 6:

"Yes … we have staff meetings once a term at which important decisions are taken and staff members can provide input. At our early morning meetings the staff is also approached for input and advice. One is less rebellious because one knows what the problems are and one has been involved in the decision-making process; therefore, one is more prepared to carry out the decisions."

Participant 7:

"The education leader listens to the staff's arguments and then makes a decision. It affects my job satisfaction positively, if he at least listens to the staff; however, he still has the final say."

Participant 8:

"He regularly involves the staff without allowing long, arduous discussions. He will take a strong stand while taking valid opinions of staff members into consideration. One feels much more positive when one is allowed an opinion, even when it differs from his … which doesn't happen too often because he considers everything very carefully with the SMT."

These responses indicate that 25% of education leaders do not engage their staff in shared decision-making on a regular basis. Some leaders again consult only the School Management Team (SMT). The latter consultation may be workable in crisis situations, but to employ such a strategy may be indicative of internal politics where only those who agree are involved. The older and more experienced educators particularly regard this as a source of dissatisfaction. The latter educators should be used as a source of knowledge that may enhance their sense of achievement, recognition; self-esteem and self-worth to further quality education, while enhancing interpersonal relationships.

Nevertheless, in some instances, education leaders should be more assertive to prevent shared decision making from becoming a long drawn-out process. However, as indicated by participant 7, the education leader often makes the final decision. The latter may be acceptable to some educators as the principal should accept final responsibility for the consequences of the decision and prevent the aforementioned

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drawn-out process. To involve educators in shared decision making may give rise to new ideas. Principals should then be innovative and ready to take calculated risks to put those ideas into practice. They should however, take the initiative in organising social activities that may contribute to the enhancement of job satisfaction.

5.4.4   Social activities organised by schools and their influence on interpersonal relations

In order to create a psychologically sound work environment and to enhance interpersonal relationships, as well as a sense of belonging, as powerful motivators, educators and principals should interact on a more personal level outside the school to get to know one another better, forge friendships, discover what is really important to others, as well as addressing stereotyping. The social interactions which comprised and contributed to job satisfaction, according to the interviewed educators, are the following:

Participant 1:

"Firstly, we have a tea for grandmothers, mothers and daughters. Then there is a braai for parents, teachers and Grade 8s after their camp. We also have receptions for parents and teachers after prize-giving, as well as an annual staff party. Apparently, these postively influence attitudes amongst the staff, as well as that of the community towards the school. They bring people together and motivate one to do one's best."

Participant 2:

"We braai and play Tenpin Bowling and also have other fun activities. These help to develop a team spirit; however, the same people seem to stick together, so not all mix. These occasions are essential to my job satisfaction."

Participant 3:

"Very few social activities are organised by the school. Nobody really has time in our terribly busy academic and extra-mural schedule to interact socially. This affects team building at my school extremely negatively."

Participant 4:

"Social activities are, with one or two exceptions, organised for the genders separately … braais or eating out. However, these groups, as well as the staff as a whole, have a relatively strong bond amongst themselves."

Participant 5:

"After sport - rugby, cricket, hockey and netball - we often have receptions where we have to provide the food. Training sessions for coaches also help with interaction so that we get to know one another better. Then there are the spring walk, Valentine's Day celebrations and 'civvies'-days. Opportunities to work together and socialise serve as the glue that binds the staff together."

Participant 6:

"We have a sports room. After sports meetings and cultural evenings, such as the revue, we get together there. These include our spouses. At the beginning of the year, we have a welcoming reception, as well as a year-end function at the end of the school year. These afford more contact amongst the staff so that one has more understanding of others' personal situations, and we are enabled to better support one another. This markedly improves interpersonal relations."

Participant 7:

"So far very few social activities have been organised by the school. We don't always have time to chat and socialise. This affects my job satisfaction negatively. One doesn't know others as well as one would like to."

Participant 8:

"At the beginning of the year we had a braai at school, staff only. That created a good spirit. On the leader's birthday we had dinner together at school, and enjoyed the company. There are all kinds of occasions, such as a reception for sponsors, during which we socialise with other people. All this creates a sense of unity, which is quite important. Every now and then we are treated to tea and cakes in the staffroom, and the principal genuinely encourages us to attend."

These abovementioned answers are an indication of the impact of socialisation on the job satisfaction of educators as suggested by the motivational theories. However, it seems that not all the education leaders realise the sense of belonging, cooperation, communication and job satisfaction that may be derived from social interaction and improved interpersonal contact. A lack of social interaction is exacerbated by the overload experienced by educators, as some felt that there is not enough time for both schoolwork and socialisation (cf. 5.6.3.2). Additionally, the problem that many of the social activities revolve around sport activities which may exclude educators who are not coaches and who focus on cultural and other intellectual activities should be addressed; for example, by the education leader of participant 2.

From the abovementioned is clear that some educators have reason(s) to be dissatisfied. To establish what the educators feel principals should do to improve their job satisfaction, the participants reacted as follows:

5.4.5   What educators think their principals could do to augment educator job satisfaction

To determine the educators' perspectives on what they think education leaders could do to improve the job satisfaction of their educators, the following question was posed: "What do you think your education leader can do to make his/her staff more satisfied with their jobs?" The answers included:

Participant 1:

"He could be more to the point. He should name people who are guilty and not speak into space. Be constructive by immediately suggesting how something should be handled. Cut people who speak too much at length."

Participant 2:

"Give children a hiding and put parents in their place!"

Participant 3:

"I feel the leader should support his teachers more and stop listening to ridiculous complaints from parents. It demotivates teachers at our school when they put loads

of time and energy into the learners and the school and he doesn't protect them against negative feedback from parents. Educators' phone numbers are put in learners' homework diaries, so parents and children alike can call teachers day and night, with no consideration of the educator's personal life or feelings. Therefore, the principal should change his opinion, from one where the parent comes first, to one where the teacher comes first. That would double teachers' job satisfaction and change their opinion of teaching as a career."

Participant 4:

"Most staff members, I think, would appreciate being able to apply their specific skills and interests, but most of all they would like being appreciated for their input and their creativity, which would improve job satisfaction."

Participant 5:

"I believe that if he was more aware of what really happens in every class, he would have a better understanding and appreciation."

Participant 6:

"I don't know if he can do more. He really has everybody's interests at heart … personal and academic. He could perhaps lift the administrative burden, but most of that is departmental about which nobody can really do anything, without landing in trouble with the department."

Participant 7:

"I think my education leader really tries to foster teachers' job satisfaction, and to improve it in spite of difficult teaching circumstances. He cares for his staff and always tries to act fairly. Most of the frustration is a result of admin, admin, admin from the department and about this, I don't think my principal can really do much.

What I do think he could address is proper compensation for facilitating sports tours, etc. Otherwise, I really think my leader's influence on my job satisfaction, as well as the school, is positive."

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Participant 8:

"I should think it would be possible if one could cut out some of the things sometimes; the demands that are put on schools. It would help if we could decide what is workable and what is not, so that we don't have to try all sorts of nonsense, knowing from the beginning that it won't work. It lowers one's job satisfaction if one knows one is busy with nonsense, but has to do it. Here and there it would be appreciated if he looked out for our interests a bit more, so that we could also feel what we do is meaningful."

From the interviews, it transpires that only 3 of the 8 participants feel that their education leaders do their utmost to ensure job satisfaction under the circumstances created by the Department of Education. To improve educator job satisfaction, education leaders should be more considerate of their staff's privacy as espoused by participant 3. They should, furthermore, be more considerate of the educators' plight by gaining factual first-hand knowledge of what educators endure in the classes, as indicated by participant 2. In addition, principals should recognise the place of educators in the system by respecting the rights of educators and their professionality by not wasting their time on trivialities and unfounded complaints by taking a stance in favour of their educators. The educators' skills and creativity should additionally be fully utilised in such a way that all educators may develop their full potential and not only those of a select few.

5.5   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A synopsis of the qualitative findings is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: **Trends revealed by the qualitative investigation into the job satisfaction, EI and leadership domains that contribute to educator dissatisfaction**

JOB SATISFACTION INDICATORS	PARTICIPANTS' REACTIONS REGARDING EDUCATION LEADERS' ABILITIES
Safety: • The way departmental policies and practices are put into practice.	- General dissatisfaction because of constant change. - Departmental incapacity and focus on administrative actions highlighted as main source of dissatisfaction.
Status: • The chances for advancement. • Recognition of achievements.	- Recognised as Department of Education's responsibility, but leaders may compensate in creative ways. - Overall dissatisfaction, but does not affect all educators equally. - Most educators satisfied, but room for improvement.
Comfort: • Compensation. • Activity: Being able to keep busy all the time.	- Not investigated qualitatively as it is not the leaders' sole responsibility in schools. - All educators highly dissatisfied because of too heavy a workload that allows too little personal time.

	- Extra-curricular activities place an extra burden on educators.
Achievement: • Ability utilisation: the chance for educators to make use of their abilities.	- Many educators' abilities under-utilised, but they understand the problems regarding the number of posts and the work allocation.
Autonomy: • Creativity.	- Policies do not allow room for creativity, but are allowed in the class itself. Sometimes too much supervision.
• Responsibility.	- Educators allowed to take responsibility for their actions, particularly in class.
EI AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	
Providing a vision and a sense of purpose.	- Apart from a few exceptions, the majority of leaders positively communicate a vision and goals to educators. - In some instances, too many deviations from the vision and goals.
Motivation.	- Most leaders are excellent motivators through their positive attitude and example.
Communication.	- Leaders in general excellent communicators of set goal, but some should focus on improving it.
Reaction to problems.	- The majority of leaders take charge in supportive and positive ways. - Room for improvement in a few cases where problems are ignored.
Empowering by developing leadership.	- Too little development of leadership.
Training and development of abilities related to developmental needs.	- Only one of the leaders actually promoted professional development. The rest depended on the Department of Education.
Engaging in shared decision making.	- The majority of leaders involve

	educators, but too much focus on leader and SMT in a few instances. - Pay attention to educator contributions.
SOCIAL ACTIVITIES THAT ENHANCE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS	- Well utilised, but may be improved. Too much focus on sport activities.
WHAT EDUCATION LEADERS MAY DO TO IMPROVE EDUCATOR JOB SATISFACTION	**Even though educators appreciate what their education leaders do, the leaders should:** - Support educators more and respect their privacy. - Relieve workload by focusing on priorities and allowing for more personal time. - Lessen the administrative load. - Address compensation for extra-curricular activities. - Address problems directly and not in general in the staffroom. - Improve ability utilisation.

The safety domain in particular, the way departmental policies and practices were implemented, appears to be one of the major sources of dissatisfaction. Education leaders contributed to the latter by their rigorous and inconsiderate implementation of policies by not taking any risks to adapt them to their school's situation. A problem that emerged was the frustration caused by the Department's incapacity to timeously disseminate the information. It appeared to educators as if the focus in education is on administration and not on what is meaningful and in the best interest of the learner, so as to be one of the *"best performing schools" (cf. 5.4.2.1).*

The status domain was another source of dissatisfaction regarding the chances for advancement and recognition of achievement. Both these are important as experts view recognition of achievement as a major motivator in experiencing job satisfaction. This was seen to be of particular importance to the older, more experienced educators with higher qualifications.

Although the number of promotional posts and salary increments are determined at national level, education leaders should not adopt a stance of zero accountability. They should be innovative and creative in doing everything in their power to offset the dissatisfaction by focusing on ability, competency, delegation, empowerment and excellence, which will be further discussed in Chapter 6. The data emphasise the slim chance for advancement for particularly older and more experienced educators, especially white males, and that the IQMS may not be regarded as sufficient recognition.

The comfort domain was another source of dissatisfaction that was investigated qualitatively. The main cause of complaint is the educators' perception of the lack of compensation they receive in relation to their workload, together with school activities that keep them too busy and infringe on their personal time. What education leaders may do to ease this problem will also be discussed in Chapter 6.

The particular role of ability utilisation in achieving job satisfaction was also probed qualitatively. The qualitative data confirmed the quantitative data in that it was particularly the more experienced, older and better qualified educators who were dissatisfied with the lack of promotional posts.

The leadership practices of creating a shared vision to focus on priorities and achievable goals, the education leaders' reaction to problems, educator empowerment by shared decision making, as well as leadership; personal and professional development was also investigated quantitatively. Education leaders' vision, particularly in short-term achieveable goals, and their communication abilities were shown to be important EI abilities and leadership practices that should be addressed by education leaders.

The conclusion drawn by the researcher was that although the majority of education leaders implemented the motivators as determinants of job satisfaction excellently, a few were deficient in fundamental areas regarding the latter, as well as leadership practices that may influence the self-confidence, self-esteem and job satisfaction of educators. These deficiencies may prevent educators from reaching their full potential

and the achievement of personal excellence, as well as in education. These areas should be addressed and will be discussed in Chapter 6.

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CHAPTER 6

CONCLUDING PERSPECTIVE AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The overarching purpose of this investigation was to establish the influence of education leaders' EI on their leadership practices and the effect of both these constructs on the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools.

To explore the relationships between the variables EI, leadership and job satisfaction, the researcher commenced with a literature review to determine what each of these concepts entails and then followed it up with empirical investigations to reveal the relationships and/or differences between the determinants.

This final chapter will provide a synthesis of the findings, which will be followed by recommendations on how job satisfaction may be improved through effective leadership. This will be done by integrating the outcomes from the literature study and the empirical investigations to form a sound foundation for making recommendations.

6.2   OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Chapter 1 gave a general orientation by setting out the need for this investigation based on previous research which indicated a high level of dissatisfaction amongst educators and that many intended leaving the profession. In addition, research in the corporate sector highlighted the importance of EI for effective leadership and the positive influence of EI and sound leadership practices on the job satisfaction and performance of employees. However, these corporate findings cannot be generalised and applied *per se* in schools which have different organisational specifics. The significance of effective leadership and educator job satisfaction in school-specific goal attainment and effective education was highlighted. Stemming from the latter, the

problem questions and purpose of the study were formulated and followed by the methodology, sampling and the chapter layout.

Chapter 2 provided a grounding perspective from the current literature of EI in general, critique against EI, as well as the role of EI in leadership and job satisfaction. A review of neurological research that links emotions and behaviour, as well as emotional contagion and its importance to leadership, was discussed. The EI domains, its associated competencies and the influence thereof on leadership and job satisfaction were analysed. How EI could be learned, with the aim of improving people leadership, and consequently job satisfaction, was also discussed briefly.

Chapter 3 focused on the different stances on motivation and job satisfaction in a grounding perspective from the contemporary literature. It transpired from the latter that motivation is an intention to engage in an activity that could lead to the satisfaction of a created or experienced need. Job satisfaction, amongst others, implies an employee's attitude towards his/her job through the fulfilment of his/her emotional, psychological and/or physical needs. The determinants of job satisfaction that could influence educator job satisfaction, their effects on educators and their implications for education were also addressed.

Chapter 4 described the quantitative methodology, the instruments used for data collection and the rationale for using these instruments. The quantitative data were collected by means of the EQ-Map, LPI and MSQ and the results were statistically analysed and interpreted to determine the relationship between the education leaders' EI and leadership practices and the job satisfaction of educators. The correlational analysis indicated significant and highly significant relationships between the EI domains of education leaders and the leadership practices domains. Significant and highly significant correlations also existed between the leaders' leadership practices and the job satisfaction of educators. However, the negative correlations between the EI of education leaders and the job satisfaction of educators, led to the conclusion that although some education leaders are endowed with a high EI, they may still not be effective in procuring job satisfaction from educators if they lack the required leadership practices.

Chapter 5 presented the qualitative phase of this investigation. This chapter investigated the problem areas identified during the quantitative phase (Chapter 4) by conducting semi-structured interviews with staff members from the selected schools, as well as e-mailed texts in some instances. These methods allowed the subjects to 'speak for themselves' concerning their job satisfaction. By employing quantitative as well as qualitative research methods procured triangulation of the data and, as such, enhanced the validity and reliability of this study as a whole.

The synthesis of the findings from this study and the consequent recommendations will thus be discussed in accordance with the objectives forwarded in Chapter 1 (cf. 1.2).

6.3   SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS

The findings of the literature studies on the subjects of EI, leadership and job satisfaction, presented in Chapter 2 and 3, as well as the empirical investigation on the influence of EI and leadership practices on job satisfaction in Chapter 4 and 5, were summarised and integrated into this section.

6.3.1   Objective 1: To provide a grounding perspective on EI, leadership and job satisfaction as necessities towards effective schools

A brief grounding perspective from the current literature on EI leadership and job satisfaction were provided as it formed the foundations of the empirical investigations.

Research by EI experts, for instance Bar-On (2005); Salovey, Mayer and Caruso (2002), Compton (2005), Higgs and Dulewitz (1999), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Goleman (1995, 1998, 2002), Bipath (2008) and others, indicated that in corporate and industrial settings, EI has a more significant influence on successful leadership than IQ or technical competencies. This implies that education leaders have to apply their EI competencies successfully to their leadership approach, while utilising their cognitive abilities, to be able to enhance the job satisfaction of educators (cf. 2.1; 2.7; 2.10; 3.5; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).

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Stemming from the definitions of the abovementioned researchers, EI was defined for the purposes of this study as: the perception and communication of emotions in the self (self-awareness) and in others (social awareness), as well as the understanding and use of personal and others' emotions to integrate emotions into motivation, problem solving and decision making by managing emotions to facilitate relationships (cf. 2.2). The latter is crucial in education leadership in order to influence educators to achieve goals and how this is perceived by educators. These perceptions may influence the educators' attitudes and thus job satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 3.2; 3.4.3; 3.6; 4.2.2). The impact of EI on successful leadership practices and the influence of that relationship on the job satisfaction of educators will now be shown.

Emotional awareness endows leaders with self-awareness, the foundation of EI, so as to be aware of their own emotions and be self-confident. Self-confidence is a basic leadership competency that allows leaders to communicate an inspiring shared vision, consult educators and be assertive in setting realistic goals to achieve. The successful achievement of goals again, is one of the prominent motivators and indicators of job satisfaction. Self-awareness helps leaders to know their strengths and limitations; needs and preferences and therefore to involve educators in shared decision making and the delegation of important tasks. Thus, achievement and self-actualisation are further enhanced as they allow educators to feel valued and that they are accomplishing meaningful assignments (cf. 2.6.1.1; 3.3.1.1; 3.3.1.2; 3.3.1.3; 3.5.2.1; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.5; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.3.1; 3.6; 4.2.2; 4.5.1).

Emotional awareness furthermore allows leaders to accurately perceive educators' emotions through social awareness, and thus the impact of their behaviour on educators is empathetic and considerate. Empathy and consideration are of particular importance in recognising the different needs, abilities, achievements and perceptions of educators, as well as the effect of the number of activities educators undertake, thereby influencing educators positively towards achieving success and job satisfaction. This ability allows leaders to see the bigger picture, be people-centred, allowing them and educators to grow personally and professionally, be resilient, creative, innovative and act autonomously instead of focusing on bureaucratic processes, honest, adaptable, responsible and trustworthy. Social awareness additionally enhances leaders' accurate emotional expression that enables them to

inspire, support and encourage educators to reach their full potential, affirm them and give constructive feedback which creates and enhances positive interpersonal relations and job satisfaction. These mentioned leadership competencies are vital to creating a psychologically sound environment towards the achievement of job satisfaction and staff retention (cf. 2.4; 2.6.1; 3.2; 3.3.1; 3.4; 3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.6; 3.4.2.7; 3.4.3; 3.4.4; 3.6; 4.2.2; 4.6).

EI additionally comprises the understanding and use of emotions to constructively guide leaders' relationships by using their cognitive analytical skills to recognise and understand the effects of their emotions, decisions and leadership behaviours on others' emotions that influence educator job satisfaction. This understanding is again influenced by their inherent personality, self-image, environment, previous experiences, culture, norms and values (cf. 2.5; 2.6.2; 3.4.3).

The understanding and use of emotions allow leaders to be assertive, self-reliant and act autonomously while being able to authentically and sincerely relate to others. The latter make it possible for leaders to motivate educators to reach their full potential by utilising their abilities, feel empathy, take perspective, be enthusiastic, optimistic and adaptable, handle conflict, communicate effectively and act with integrity. Only leaders who understand and use emotions are able to trust, inspire and respect educators enough to meet their needs in a trusting, caring, creative, innovative, nurturing and safe environment. The understanding and correct use of emotions additionally afford leaders the ability to match leadership style to emotion, situation, task and educator through shared decision making and delegation, by being flexible and without micromanaging educators. These leadership practices may enhance achievement, promote positive attitudes and job satisfaction by meeting their expectancies (cf. 2.4; 2.6.2; 2.7; 3.3.1; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.4; 3.4.2.5; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.11; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.5.3, 4.6).

In addition to emotional awareness and the ability to understand and use emotions, EI leaders should be able to manage their impulsive reactions and responses by rationally considering the effects of their behaviour and to plan strategically without manipulating educators. The self-confidence, instilled by self-awareness contributes to a positive self-attitude as a prerequisite for emotional management, since leaders' behaviour is determined by their thoughts. They should express their emotions

appropriately in a psychological, situational and socially appropriate and acceptable manner, particularly when coping with stressful situations or in conflict situations, without hurting educators or being emotionally overwhelmed. (cf. 2.4; 2.4.4; 2.4.5; 2.6.3; 2.7; 3.4.3).

To accomplish the above-said, leaders should match emotion to the task and be creative and resilient, assertive, flexible and adaptable in maintaining healthy positive interpersonal relationships, leadership practices, and provide constructive feedback resulting in win-win situations that empower educators. Leaders should always optimistically envision and plan for success, seeing their and others' mistakes as learning opportunities. To be successful, an education leader should be a model of a positive attitude, flexibility, adaptability, good humour and transparency to enhance the lives and the job satisfaction of their educators. Emotional management which creates a safe and sound environment, may additionally prevent leaders from being overwhelmed by their own and others' emotions and being emotionally hijacked (cf. 2,4; 2.4.5; 2.6.2; 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.4; 3.4.7; 4.2.2.; 4.5.2).

Emotional management furthermore enhances job satisfaction since leaders who are able to manage their and others' emotions usually treat other people with trust, respect, integrity, loyalty, and fairness by recognising educator contributions, achievements and worth. These abilities improve educators' self-esteem as they let them feel valued, involved and with a sense of self-worth, belonging and coherence; by involving educators in decision making and delegation they feel empowered. When leaders manage their emotions, they are also able to take calculated risks and trust other risk-takers to find innovative ways to achieve their goals through responsibility, autonomy, rapport and cooperation while dealing positively with mistakes or failure. Emotional management gives leaders the confidence to trust others and thus prevent micromanagement and manipulation by allowing educators to be creative, innovative, responsible, able to act autonomously and experience self-actualisation by achieving goals successfully. Leaders may often enhance job satisfaction by allowing innovative changes through challenging the process and by cutting through administrative red tape to create a better future for their organisation (cf. 2.6.3; 2.7; 3.3.1; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.4; 3.4.2.6; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.5; 3.4.4; 3.4.8; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6). Nevertheless, leaders should resist the over-management

of their emotions. This may be perceived as a façade and as inauthentic, detached and uncaring behaviour (cf. 2.6.3; 2.7).

However, if education leaders are not proficient in enough of the mentioned competencies, there are a myriad of tests to determine specific EI and leadership deficiencies that may be addressed through active learning and application to enhance the well-being, effectiveness and the job satisfaction of educators (cf. 2.8; 2.9; 4.2.2).

With the previous EI leadership competencies in mind, a literature study and a quantitative and qualitative investigation was undertaken to investigate what the major determinants of job satisfaction are.

6.3.2   Objective 2: To review the major determinants that influenced the job satisfaction of educators in Free State schools

Job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept. Interdependent relationships exist between the realms of EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction, which emanate from the individual's evaluation or perceptions of the job in the organisational context, leadership behaviours and need satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 3.3.1; 4.6.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6).

Underpinning the motivational theories of Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg, Vroom and McClelland are common factors whose realisation may result in job satisfaction, and involve: achievement, interpersonal relationships, self-actualisation and self-esteem. The satisfaction of those needs influence a person's attitudes and perspectives with regard to their work. Motivators are thus physical and/or psychological needs and/or expectancies and personal predispositions towards favoured outcomes. The education leader may thus play a significant role in recognising these needs and expectancies and should employ strategies to satisfy them (cf. 3.3.1).

Motivational leadership in education has, after all, the intention of influencing and inspiring educators to bring out the best in them and to realise their full potential by involving them in activities that make use of all their abilities in achieving personal and organisational goals. Educator expectancies should therefore be fulfilled and their needs satisfied in the quest for job satisfaction (cf. 3.1).

Job satisfaction could thus be seen as positive emotions and attitudes towards a job when individual needs are satisfied or expectancies are met by the job (cf. 3.4). Job satisfaction may not only improve effectiveness and performance, but also the physical and psychological health of educators, as well as improving interpersonal relationships. These contagious emotions may influence colleagues' and learners' attitudes, performance, flexibility, creativity and innovativeness, as well as their evaluation of the education leader (cf. 3.5). It is imperative for education leaders to recognise educators' specific needs and expectancies and satisfy them in order to generate positive attitudes towards education (cf. 3.2).

Stemming from the literature study in Chapters 2 and 3 (cf. 2.7; 3.4), education leaders should take the determinants of job satisfaction into account during all interpersonal interactions with their staff by being aware of educators' needs and emotions and provide suitable support (cf. 2.6.1; 3.4.2). The latter should also assist principals in decision making and help them to engage the appropriate leadership style according to the situation (cf. 2.7; 3.4.3).

Education leaders, for the abovementioned reasons, should take work distribution and the work itself into account to enable educators to experience a sense of achievement (cf. 3.4.4). In order to experience the latter, educators should be trusted and enabled to act independently, creatively, responsibly and autonomously (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.4; 3.4.2.6) according to a shared and inspiring vision (cf. 3.4.2.1) that is clearly communicated by an education leader who acts as a model (cf. 3.4.3.1). To enhance job satisfaction, education leaders should additionally be considerate (cf. 3.4.3.2) of educators' circumstances, values, individual talents and diversity (cf. 3.4.2.2) in order to utilise all their abilities fully (cf. 2.5.2) through delegation and shared decision making that involves and empowers educators (cf. 3.4.2). Educators as professionals should furthermore work in an emotional, psychological and physically sound working environment (cf. 3.4.9) in which they are allowed to develop and grow personally and professionally (cf. 3.4.2; 3.4.4). Educators should be engaged in meaningful tasks that utilise and respect their strengths and talents; an excessive workload should be prevented to permit a work-life balance (cf. 3.4; 3.4.2; 3.5).

Education leaders should furthermore recognise educator achievements and their contributions to the school and education as a whole, since such feedback and recognition may let them feel respected, valued and appreciated (cf. 2.6.1; 2.6.2; 3.3.3; 3.4.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.5; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.10). Participative leadership and decision making may further enhance the former, as they afford educators buy-in and ownership experience (cf. 3.5.3). Positive and open interpersonal relationships between educators and education leaders (cf. 3.4.7) are imperative as they may improve trust, respect and communication (cf. 3.4.2.3; 3.4.3). The perceived status of educators in their community and the educators' feeling that they are contributing something valuable to their community may also add to their job satisfaction (cf. 3.3.1; 3.4.2; 3.4.7). To effectively manage and implement these mentioned determinants, a leader should be adaptable and flexible by being emotionally intelligent (cf. 2.7; 3.4.2.11).

Advancement (cf. 3.4.2.12), the provision of incentives and job security (cf. 3.3; 3.4.2.13), the physical environment, as well as most policies and practices are determined at national or provincial level and thus not the responsibility of the education leaders. Notwithstanding the national or provincial level, the education leader may do a lot to alleviate current problems regarding the latter, as will be discussed in the recommendations.

The next step in the study was to establish the EI level of education leaders, their leadership practices and their influence on the job satisfaction of educators.

6.3.3 Objective 3: To empirically investigate the EI and related leadership practices of Free State education leaders with regard to the determinants that mediate job satisfaction in their schools

The positivistic numerical outcomes, emerging from the EQ Map and Leadership Practices Inventory will be summarised to indicate the interrelatedness between EI, leadership practices and job satisfaction. The interrelatedness between the various dimensions was determined by means of correlational analyses and an analysis of variances (ANOVA), as well as by triangulating the results of the different methods.

The relationship that emerged between EI and leadership practices will first be summarised.

6.3.3.1   Relationship between EI and Leadership Practices

Although schools as organisations have different characteristics and leadership structures from profit-inclined corporate settings, analogous, significant and even highly significant positive correlations were found between the EI and leadership practices of education leaders (cf. 2.1; 2.4; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 5.4.2).

The previous investigation by the researcher (Oosthuyse, 2006) revealed significant positive correlations between the EI dimensions, which comprised emotional awareness, emotional management, as well as the understanding and the use of emotions of education leaders and their leadership practices in achieving job satisfaction (cf. 2.6; 4.2.2; 5.4.3). The leadership practices included the domains of challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision and purpose, enabling others to act by developing their leadership and abilities according to their needs and engaging them in decision making. Modelling the way, particularly their reaction to problems, and encouraging the heart by motivating educators, were identified as important in the achievement of job satisfaction (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 5.4.3). Moreover, EI was highly significantly related to the leadership practices of communicating and inspiring a shared vision. The latter suggest the strong influence of EI in these leadership practices (cf. 2.7; 4.2.1.1; 4.2.2; 5.4.3.1; 5.4.3.3).

However, the qualitative data revealed that education leaders are not very innovative and equipped to take calculated risks (cf. 5.4.2.5.1). The latter applies specifically to the painstaking administration and implementation of departmental policies and practices that do not question the status quo (cf. 5.4.2.1). It may be that they are not allowed any flexibility by higher authorities. Education leaders are furthermore not very innovative in addressing the existing dilemma of the compensation educators receive in relation to their workload (cf. 5.4.2.3.1) and the burden of too many activities (cf. 5.4.2.3.2). In addition, education leaders do not utilise personal and leadership development as determinants of job satisfaction so as to enhance educator job

satisfaction (cf. 5.4.5.6). These areas may cause dissatisfaction and will be addressed in the recommendations (cf. 6.3.4).

It emerged from the qualitative data that the majority of education leaders were efficient visionaries with a clearly communicated vision and purpose for their schools and able to focus on key priorities (cf. 5.4.3.1). Notwithstanding the latter, a few leaders should focus more on communicating and creating a shared vision, as well as involving educators more by shared decision making in order to realise the vision (cf. 5.4.3.1; 5.4.3.7). The qualitative data furthermore revealed that the leaders were regarded as role models concerning their values, commitment, personal lives and conduct, but not all principals could be regarded as motivators (cf. 5.4.3.2). Principals should also become more aware of what is going on in their classes by 'walking the corridors' more often (cf. 5.4.2.2).

However, the EQ Map indicated that almost 14 of the 30 education leaders rated themselves lower than proficient in resilience. The latter deficiency may cause leaders to give up when they experience resistance when executing complex tasks, solving problems or dealing with problematic educators (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.6.5.1). In addition, the qualitative data indicated that many educators felt that they did not receive sufficient recognition (cf. 5.6.2.2). The latter may have negative effects on educator job satisfaction.

From the qualitative and quantitative data it transpired that the majority of education leaders were proficient regarding their EI abilities and leadership practices to facilitate educator job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the EQ Map scoring grid indicated problem areas regarding principals' EI abilities that may influence leadership practices and thus job satisfaction negatively. Almost 30% of the education leaders rated themselves as vulnerable in the area of self-awareness as the basis of intuition, trust and empathy and 26% experienced problems in expressing their emotions appropriately. The latter may hamper the leaders' acceptance of risks, as seen earlier, and they may therefore fail to treat mistakes as learning opportunities or not allow educators autonomy and creativity. The latter may indicate a leniency towards a more task-oriented attitude than being people centred. These deficiencies may be problematic since the EI abilities of

empathy, resilience, a positive outlook, intuition and self-awareness are important as they are the key to staff retention (cf. 2.1 3.5; 3.5.2.6; 3.5.2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.4).

The impact of the abovementioned describing a strong positive correlation between EI and leadership practices was further investigated by exploring the influence of the education leaders' leadership practises on the job satisfaction experienced by educators.

6.3.3.2   Relationship between leadership practices and job satisfaction

A correlational analysis between the leadership practices clusters, as determined by the LPI, and the job satisfaction clusters, as determined by the MSQ, revealed a significant link between overall job satisfaction and encouraging the heart as a leadership practice. Significant correlations were also found between job satisfaction and challenging the process, encouraging others to act and modelling the way. Although smaller, a positive correlation also existed between inspiring a shared vision and overall job satisfaction. The importance of these abilities was emphasised by the reaction of participants during the qualitative investigation (cf. 4.2.1.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 5.4.2).

A highly significant positive correlation existed between the leadership practice of challenging the process and of autonomy as a contributor to job satisfaction. Significant positive correlations furthermore existed between challenging the process and achievement, comfort and safety as job satisfaction domains (cf. 4.5.1). The latter, as well as the qualitative data, confirmed that education leaders should be innovative in looking for challenging opportunities and assignments, be willing to take risks in breaking free from routine and challenge the status quo to improve educator job satisfaction. These education leaders honour risk takers on their staff and treated their own and others' mistakes as learning opportunities. These leaders furthermore, allow educators to achieve by acting autonomously and independently, by utilising their full potential in being creative in a variety of independent activities. Educators will be encouraged to accept responsibility for their actions and the results in secure physically

and psychologically sound work environments. However, many education leaders were not innovative risk takers and did not challenge the status quo according to the qualitative data, and this caused educators frustration and stress. Notwithstanding the latter, a few educators experienced safety in the way policies and practices were implemented. The human relations maintained between them and their supervisors, as well as the technical expertise of their supervisors who stayed up to date, furthermore enhanced educator job satisfaction (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 5.4.2.1; 5.4.2.4; 5.4.3; 5.4.2.5; 5.4.4; 6.3.3.1).

Significant positive correlations additionally existed between the leadership practice of inspiring a shared vision and the job satisfaction domains of achievement, as well as safety (cf. 4.2.1.3). A vision is central to leadership as a process of influencing the activities of educators towards goal achievement. An inspiring and shared vision enables enthusiastic principals to evoke and communicate positive emotions by involving educators in creating a shared and inspiring vision of the future goals they believe in and take personal interest in. Such a vision enhances educator achievement by utilising all the educators' abilities in allowing educators to accomplish something worthwhile and letting them feel valued and cared for by involving them in shared decision making and the delegation of important tasks. Education leaders should therefore have self-confidence, know their and their educators' strengths and dreams, be technically competent, test assumptions and be able to act intuitively to effect the former while improving human relations (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.4; 4.2.2; 5.4.2.4; 5.4.3).

A further highly significant positive correlation was found between education leaders who were able to encourage or enable others to act and achieve in order to nurture job satisfaction. Significant positive correlations could additionally be identified between encouraging others to act and job comfort, safety and autonomy as contributors towards job satisfaction (cf. 4.2.2). These positive correlations emphasised the significance of leaders who encourage others to act by building cooperative and supportive relationships, as well as trust between educators and themselves by involving educators in shared decision making and delegation that let them experience ownership (cf. 3.4.2; 3.4.3). By encouraging educators to act and achieve goals by being busy with meaningful tasks they become responsible for and utilise their abilities; they feel valued, important and competent as they are allowed to act creatively, autonomously and independently.(cf. 3.4.2.5; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6).

As role models, education leaders who act consistently and in an exemplary fashion, according to values that focus on the achievement of prioritised goals, correlated significantly positively with educators' experience of achievement in their jobs. The significant correlations between safety and autonomy as part of job satisfaction and modelling the way as a leadership practice furthermore indicated the importance of leaders who act as models. The latter enhance job satisfaction since modelling the way builds commitment by utilising educator creativity, responsibility and abilities in order to experience achievement by breaking big projects down into smaller achievable steps (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1).

The relationship between encouraging the heart and achievement revealed a highly significant positive correlation, which was confirmed by the quantitative investigation. A highly significant correlation also existed between encouraging the heart and autonomy, comfort as well as safety regarding job satisfaction experienced by educators (cf. 4.5.1; 5.4.2). These results highlight the importance of encouragement and recognition as positive feedback in achieving job satisfaction (cf. 3.4.4; 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.4). For educators to feel they are achieving something meaningful, leaders should encourage educators by engaging them in decision making that concerns them (cf. 3.4.2.8; 3.4.29; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.7) and by maintaining positive interpersonal relationships (cf. 3.4.3; 5.4.4). Educators should also be engaged in a variety of independent, autonomous and manageable activities that utilise their full potential in order to achieve job satisfaction. Recognition of these achievements is a fundamental leadership action to effect job satisfaction in educators (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.2.2; 5.4.4; 5.4.2.4; 5.4.5). If the workload becomes overwhelming (cf.5.4.2.3.2), educators may experience burn-out that includes feelings of stress, hopelessness, exhaustion, frustration and apathy or a negative attitude towards education (cf. 2.6.3; 5.4.2.1; 5.4.2.3.2). More than 80% of education leaders and educators experienced stress symptoms (cf. 4.2.2), an aspect which deserves further research.

The majority of educators were satisfied with most aspects of job satisfaction (cf. 4.6.3). Only 3,2% were either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied regarding the achievement cluster; 6,3% with the status cluster; 9,5% with the safety cluster; and 6,3% with their autonomy. The other clusters revealed insignificant percentages of

dissatisfaction. However, clustering may disguise items with which educators were extremely dissatisfied as pointed out (cf. 4.6.4).

As this was an exploratory study in functional homogeneous schools in a purposive convenient sample, the findings could not be generalised across other settings and groups. The latter should be investigated further in future research that involves a larger sample representative of different environments and cultures, so as to be able to generalise.

The abovementioned led to the conclusion that the EI of education leaders has an immense influence on their leadership practices that greatly influence educator job satisfaction. The influence of the EI of education leaders on the job satisfaction of educators was then investigated.

6.3.3.3   The influence of the principals' EI on educator job satisfaction

The correlational analysis to determine the relationship between the EI of education leaders and the job satisfaction of educators revealed a range from insignificant positive correlations to slightly negative correlations. Seeing that positive relationships exist between the EI dimensions and leadership practices, as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction (cf. 4.5.2), the former suggests that certain emotional and leadership competencies are crucial for enhancing job satisfaction. This implies that education leaders have to apply their EI competencies to their leadership approach in order to enhance the job satisfaction of their staff members. It is, after all, not always the most popular persons who make the best leaders. A high EI and excellent interpersonal relationships, but deficient leadership practices, would therefore not ensure job satisfaction together with a lack of vision, guidance, direction, self-confidence or assertiveness (cf. 4.5.1; 4.5.2; 5.4.3.1).

Additionally, gender, age, years of experience and qualification levels were found to influence job satisfaction in both the quantitative and qualitative investigation. It was furthermore discovered that the older, more experienced educators with higher qualifications experienced dissatisfaction in the job satisfaction domain. The majority of

educators were also dissatisfied with their compensation, chances for advancement and the way policies and practices were implemented (cf. 4.5.1; 5.4.2; 5.5).

6.3.4 Objective 4: To make recommendations in view of enhancing the job satisfaction of educators.

An educator once commented that she might consider leaving education as a career for one with better remuneration, but would not leave her present school for another. That was an indication of how satisfied she was with that specific school environment, which included the leadership of that education leader. Her school is amongst the most esteemed and top performing schools in South Africa.

The interrelatedness between the domains of EI, leadership practices, and educator-centred job satisfaction, is diagrammatically illustrated in Figure 6.1.
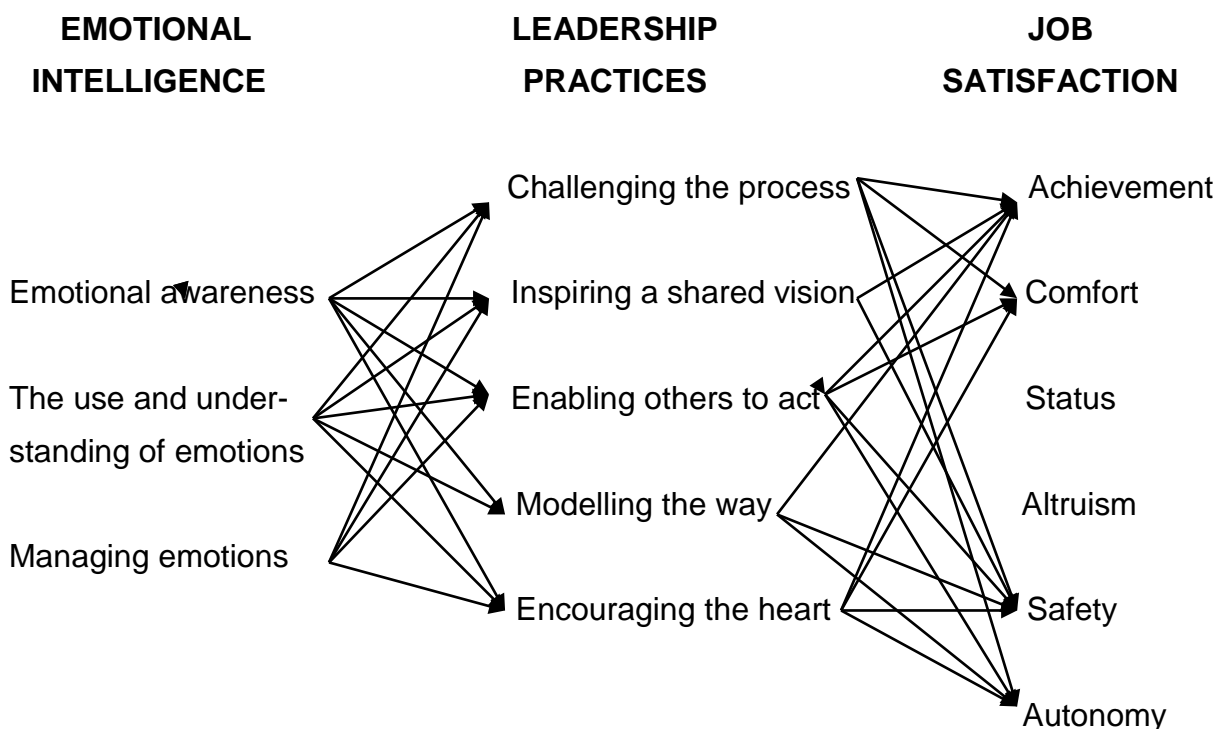
Figure 6.1: Significant correlations between the EI and leadership practices domains as well as between the leadership practices domains and the job satisfaction clusters

As illustrated in Figure 6.1, this empirical investigation revealed that EI is the key to successful leadership practices and for that reason, an excellent determinant of leadership (cf. 2.1; 2.7; 2.10; 4.2.2). Moreover, leadership practices and job satisfaction were additionally found to be positively correlated (cf. 4.6.3). The significant positive correlations between leadership and the job satisfaction domains and the reaction of the participants in the qualitative investigation, are an indication of the implications of sound leadership practices in achieving job satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.2; 5.4.3; 6.3.3.2).

The fact that EI was found not to be directly related to job satisfaction emphasised the fact that although education leaders may be rated highly emotionally intelligent, but lacking in crucial leadership practices, they may not be successful leaders (cf. 4.5.2). Such leaders may then not be able to act autonomously and assertively as they focus too much on social conformity and relationships (cf. 2.6.1.2). Improved EI may however, improve education leaders' leadership practices and allow them to develop and grow personally in becoming true visionary mentors with enhanced interpersonal dimensions (cf. 3.4.3) and priorities to realise the full potential of their staff (cf. 3.4.2).

Existing instruments such as the EQ Map and LPI could be utilised to scientifically select excellent leaders or identify deficiencies in existing leaders in an attempt to reach a person-job fit situation. Leaders should realise their weaknesses and work at improving on them to become more efficient. The latter may enhance education leadership and consequently educator job satisfaction, which again may increase educator retention and productivity and as a result, learner performance (cf. 4.2.1; 4.6).

By developing the EI of education leaders, they can become better equipped to be more people-oriented and aware of the information conveyed by the emotions of educators (cf. 2.1; 3.5.7). The latter will consequently improve their ability to enhance the job satisfaction of their staff members. An improved EI may enable education leaders to become aware of the different needs, abilities and talents of educators (cf. 2.6.1; 2.7; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6) and use, as well as manage emotions positively. By being flexible when engaging educators in a variety of stimulating, meaningful and

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manageable activities, leaders use their creativity and are responsible for (cf. 2.6.2; 2.6.3; 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.11; 5.4.2.3; 4.6; 5.4.2.5; 5.6.3.2) the success of their staff and for recognising their achievements (cf. 2.7; 3.5.4).

An enhanced EI would therefore allow education leaders to be adaptable, flexible and self-confident, allowing and encouraging educators to grow personally and professionally, act independently and creatively according to their judgement in a secure work environment (cf. 2.6; 2.7; 3.4.2; 5.4.2.5;). These qualities improve leadership practices may enhance the job satisfaction of educators. Improved EI would furthermore permit education leaders to engage educators in decision making (cf. 3.4.2.8.3; 5.4.3.6), to develop policies and practices that take the mentioned indicators of job satisfaction into account, while compensating educators in accordance with their worth and workload and provide for advancement opportunities (cf. 3.3.3; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.13; 4.5.1; 4.5.3; 5.4.2; 5.4.3; 5.5).

The EQ Map indicated that in this investigation, self-awareness, resilience and empathy were specific EI competencies that need development in many of the participating education leaders. The two over-estimators (cf. 4.6.3), and the negative effects they may have on leadership and job satisfaction, emphasise the low self- and social awareness of some leaders. Self-awareness is of particular importance as it forms the foundation of acting on intuition, reciprocal trust and empathy. Education leaders furthermore, experienced problems in expressing their emotions appropriately; for instance constructive discontent and thus in motivating educators. These competencies are significant seeing that education leaders experienced a high stress level and felt that they were not performing optimally (cf. 3.3.1; 4.2.2; 5.4.3.2). It is therefore important that education leaders' EI and leadership practices should be improved to improve the effectiveness of educators and schools and to enhance educator job satisfaction. A 'one goes for all' attempt will fail in the latter; therefore, appropriate testing should be undertaken and specific deficiencies addressed (cf. 2.9). It is recommended that existing research be taken into account and further research conducted regarding the causes of high stress levels experienced by educators and education leaders.

The previously mentioned deficiency regarding self-awareness, which may result in low compassion or empathy and the expression of emotions, as well as high stress levels may be responsible for the excessive workload that cause dissatisfaction amongst educators (cf. 4.5.1; 5.4.2.3.2). Education leaders should develop a vision that focuses on specific goals and important priorities in order to create a sense of purpose and achievement (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.9; 5.4.3.1; 5.4.2.4). Educators feel that they do not receive the recognition they deserve (cf. 5.4.2.2.2) and that education leaders react negatively to problems (cf. 5.4.3.4). Low self-awareness may also cause leaders to have too little self-confidence and trust in themselves and in educators to be assertive and engaged in shared decision making (cf. 3.4.2.5; 3.4.2.8; 5.4.3.7), as well as to be innovative and able to take calculated risks (cf. 5.4.2.4; 5.4.2.5). Since self-awareness is the basis of self-confidence and resilience, self-aware principals would be able to uphold their values and be confident to do what they believe is right (cf. 2.6.1; 2.7). The latter implies that they should have the confidence to speak out for the educators' best interests and not to use them as instruments to promote themselves.

The previous results are highly significant in view of the fact that EI and leadership experts agree that successful education leaders should score high on self-awareness. The latter grants leaders self-knowledge that in turn, instils self-confidence and the ability to express their emotions appropriately and to have the imagination to create a vision, to see what others cannot, thereby fulfilling their and their educators' dreams and ideals. Social awareness, as the awareness of the influence of their emotions on others, is also needed to be able to manage their and others' emotions. Education leaders should furthermore be emotionally resilient, with a high stress tolerance, be a 'people's person' with outstanding interpersonal relationships, have an optimistic and enthusiastic mind-set, be trustworthy, honest and behave according to the values to which they subscribe. Moreover, education leaders should be able to acknowledge the success of others (cf. 2.6; 2.7; 3.5).

The preceding quantitative and qualitative data illustrated the magnitude of the influence of EI and principals' leadership practices on the job satisfaction of educators. Recommendations on the enhancement of EI and the leadership practices of education leaders that may improve job satisfaction will be made and a conclusion

drawn.

6.4   RECOMMENDATIONS ON IMPROVING JOB SATISFACTION

The purpose of his study was to determine the influence of the relationship between the EI and leadership practices of education leaders on the job satisfaction of educators.

The significant positive relationships between EI and leadership practices, as well as between leadership practices and job satisfaction, suggest that EI and leadership practices may be used in the selection process of education leaders to be able to get the best possible person-job fit. The literature suggests that personality profiling may also contribute to the latter. Nonetheless, the researcher's first and foremost recommendation is that an objective scientific method of selection should be implemented to select education leaders (cf. 1.1; 2.3). The latter may bring about positive change and overall job satisfaction in education, since at this stage selection is based primarily on affirmative action and employment equity or technical competencies. These actions should be linked to scientific profiling to get a commendable person-job fit, even from these designated groups with leadership abilities capable of handling a diverse workforce. These are essential to quality teaching and learning as only satisfied and passionate educators are productive and committed.

An old proverb says: "A fish rots from the head". Existing education leaders, particularly those of dysfunctional and marginal schools, should thus be evaluated and their EI and leadership deficiencies addressed. EI may be learned, in particular self-awareness since an improved EI may subsequently improve leadership practices and as a result, educator job satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 2.9; 4.2.2; 4.5.1). Focusing on technical competencies only may bring about an improvement but according to this study, EI and people-centred leadership is as important, if not more, than technical and rational abilities.

The social activities organised by education leaders and their influence on the interpersonal relations at their schools, together with what educators think their education leaders may do to improve the job satisfaction of their educators, was additionally investigated through qualitative research. Strong interpersonal relations are regarded as the most satisfying emotional incentive that most educators receive from their work and may enhance educator well-being and job satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 3.1; 3.2; 3.3; 3.4).

Recommendations on how education leaders may eliminate dissatisfaction and improve the educator milieu regarding the identified aspects (cf. 4.6.2; 4.6.3; 4.6.5; 4.8; 5.6.2), will now be discussed.

6.4.1   Enhancing achievement through ability utilisation, recognition, empowerment and shared decision making.

The quantitative and qualitative investigations indicated that although some of the younger educators also experience dissatisfaction regarding their ability utilisation, it is the older, better qualified and more experienced educators, and specifically males, who are the most dissatisfied with achievement as a feeling of accomplishment they get from their job; the chance to do something that makes use of their abilities and the subsequent recognition they get for doing a good job (cf. 4.5.1; 5.6.2.2.2; 5.6.2.4). The latter is according to Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland, important human needs that should be satisfied and consequently act as motivators towards the achievement of job satisfaction (cf. 2.7; 3.4).

With reference to the abovementioned, the researcher recommends that education leaders should:

• Communicate an inspiring, understood and authentic shared vision of significant and essential goals to be achieved (cf. 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.9; 4.5.1).

• Be educator-centred and not simply focused on administration and managerialism

(cf. 3.4.1).

- Encourage, trust, support, coach and serve educators while affirming educators' abilities to enable them to achieve success by giving constructive feedback (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.7).

- Keep in touch with what is going on in their schools to be able know about and recognise achievements by putting people before administration (cf. 2.7; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 5.4.2.2.2).

- Improve their EI so as to be aware of emotions, exercise empathy and know their educators personally and professionally through interpersonal relationships. They should keep up to date with what is going on in the school by walking the corridors and establishing two-way communication founded on integrity (cf. 2.6.1; 2.7; 3.4.3; 4.2.2; 5.4.3.3).

- Know their staff's diverse needs, talents, potential and expectancies in order to be empathetic towards them and create a clear shared vision of a bright future, with specific goals to be achieved. If principals are unable to effect the latter, those educators may be so frustrated by such a deficiency in leadership practice that their negative emotions may have equally negative effects on colleagues and learners through emotional contagion (cf. 2.6.1; 2.7; 2.9; 3.4.2.1; 3.4.2.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.1; 5.4.3.3).

- Be innovative, creative, flexible and adaptable in encouraging educators take part in shared decision making and delegation and not just relying on the SMT (cf. 5.4.3.7). Particularly the older, more experienced and better qualified educators should be used as a source of knowledge and not ignored due to favouritism (cf. 4.5.3). This involvement may challenge the status quo, but it will contribute to the school's leadership, effectiveness and the educators' sense of accomplishing something worthwhile and of value. Educators' self-esteem and self-worth will be developed, thus lessening the leader's load. However, these assignments should not result in a work overload or the dumping of unwanted problems (cf. 3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.6; 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.11; 4.5.1; 4.7; 5.4.2.2; 5.4.3.7).

- Break big projects up into smaller achievable parts to allow educators to feel they are achieving something meaningful (cf. 3.4.2.9).

- Respect educators by delegating the necessary autonomy and authority to responsible educators when assigning tasks to prevent any sense of micromanagement (cf. 3.4.2.6).

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- Affirm the educators' worth; utilise their abilities and potential fully while taking their developmental needs and expectations into account. This is of seminal importance so as to enhance self-actualisation and thus job satisfaction that empower educators to achieve goals as set out in the vision (cf. 3.3; 3.3.1; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.5; 5.4.3.6).

- Measure achievement according to controllable and impartial assessment criteria (cf. 3.5.2.9).

- Recognise achievements and contributions through authentic praise and celebrate achievements so as to let the staff, school and the wider community know about it. The recognition of achievements may be in the form of personal congratulations, informal discussions or functions, congratulations in the staff room, and personal notes of appreciation, certificates or even articles in the school or local newspaper or even, perhaps, a break in routine (cf. 3.4.2.10; 4.7; 5.4.2.2.2).

- Improve personal and professional development and growth by encouraging educators to attend specialist courses (cf. 3.4.2.9; 5.4.3.5).

- Improve resources, for example technical aids in the form of computers and interactive boards, which may also be stimulating, improve the effectiveness and goal achievement, relieve some of the staff's workload and may be seen as recognition of achieving excellence (cf. 2.6.2; 2.7; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.12; 5.4.2.2).

The workload and too many activities in which educators participate are another major source of dissatisfaction to which education leaders should pay attention.

6.4.2   Relieving the work overload and activities of educators

In education the problem emerged as not being actively busy all the time with a variety of activities, but as an excessive and often overbearing workload with too many activities leaving too little personal time in a work-life balance. Extra-curricular activities, constant change in departmental policies, the way they are implemented and the accompanying administration, exacerbates the problem (cf. 5.4.2.3.2). Besides, a few participants also felt that their education leaders are not in touch with and aware of what is going on in their schools and therefore are not sensitive to the workload and time consumed by all the activities and added to these, their own school policies (cf.

5.4.2.1). The constant stress of such a disproportionate workload may cause burn-out, psychological, emotional and physical health problems. Respondents indicated a variety of symptoms of the latter; for instance, chronic headaches, hypertension and the need for tranquilisers (cf. 2.4; 2.6.3).

Education leaders may thus employ the following steps in becoming aware of the extent of the problem and alleviating it by:

- Becoming aware of the educators' emotions and work-load through effective communication, which includes active and empathetic listening and being aware of body-language. Know what is going on in the school, know the curricula and be open to the educators' personal experiences regarding their curricular and extra-curricular workload, needs and aspirations (cf. 2.6.1; 3.4.3; 4.7; 5.4.2.3).

- Being available, accessible, responsive and psychologically supportive of educators by dealing tactfully with them and managing their anxiety and stress by affirming their competency, worth and achievements to improve their self-efficacy (cf. 2.6; 2.7; 3.4.2.9).

- Enthusiastically communicating a positive vision that inspires and focuses on the successful achievement of priority goals (cf. 3.4.2.1; 5.4.3.1).

- Focusing on the results instead of on administration by being flexible and adaptable (cf. 3.4.2.11; 4.7).

- Alleviating the workload of educators by appointing extra educators in SGB posts. This will allow for fewer activities in the form of fewer learners in a class and thus less marking or even fewer classes to be taught and thus less preparation, as well as fewer extra-mural activities.

- Involving parents and professional trainers, paid for by the school, to train sports teams or privatise such activities by forming private clubs since all educators in the same school do not have an equal amount of time consumed by extra-curricular activities. Many schools do not have extra-curricular activities for which the educators are responsible, leading to a distorted perception of the amount of time spent on activities outside official school hours.

- Supporting educators with the available technology to make their work easier, more interesting and less time consuming (cf. 3.4.4).

- Knowing their educators and involving them in activities according to their talents, interests and aspirations through shared decision making, in which they have a choice, which allows educators a sense of buy-in and ownership (cf. 3.4.2.8; 3.4.3.2; 4 7; 5.4.2.4; 5.4.3.5; 5.4.3.7). Even if such activities may still consume a lot of time, this may not be perceived so negatively and with such dissatisfaction. If educators are allowed to do what they love, they may be more effective and successful.

These measures may allow educators as 'professionals' to concentrate their efforts on their main goal of teaching and learning, and not be distracted by too many activities. Another source of dissatisfaction that should be addressed is the lack of advancement.

6.4.3   Setting educators up for advancement or compensating for the lack thereof

Educators, particularly the older, more experienced and better qualified, experienced the chances for advancement as non-existent and highly dissatisfying and should thus be the focus of more attention (cf. 4.5.1; 5.4.2.2). Advancement as personal growth and the recognition of achievement are important intrinsic motivators according to Herzberg, McClelland and Alderfer and therefore contribute to job satisfaction (cf. 3.3.1).

Although the number of promotional posts is determined at national level and the beaurocratic education system does not allow for enough advancement possibilities (cf. 3.4.2.12) and the Government's Occupational Specific Dispensation has not been finalised after two years, the education leaders should not adopt a stance of zero accountability. Education leaders should be innovative and creative in doing everything in their power to offset the dissatisfaction caused by the latter, through people-centred leadership which focuses on:

- Ability utilisation, competency, delegation, empowerment and excellence in a physically and psychologically sound work environment where fulfilling and life-

enhancing interpersonal relationships exist to improve job satisfaction (cf. 3.2; 3.4; 4.5.1; 4.6).

- Career planning according to the talents, preferences and aspirations of educators.

- Engaging educators in participative leadership and decision making so as to allow them to accept responsibility and experience buy-in (cf. 3.4.2.8).

- Knowing educators personally to be able to engage their talents, abilities, preferences and potential in challenging, meaningful, interesting and important assignments; to stimulate them and keep them focused on educational goals and prevent them from losing interest (cf. 2.6.1.2; 3.5; 4.6).

- Improving innovativeness and professional and personal growth by enhancing the EI, leadership and professional knowledge of education leaders, as well as that of educators by enrolling in suitable training courses (cf. 2.6.3; 2.9; 3.4.2.11; 5.4.2.5; 5.4.5).

- Creating opportunities for personal achievement and the realisation of educator potential and leadership to set possible successors up and improve overall effectiveness through the delegation of assignments to capable educators (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.5.2.9; 5.4.3.5; 5.4.2.4).

- Focusing on enhanced achievement by education leaders who have white males in their service so as to compensate for the lack of advancement due to transformation (cf. 3.4.2.9; 3.4.2.12; 5.4.2.2.1).

- Additionally compensating educators from school funds up to Head of Department (HOD) level if they are expected to do the work of a HOD. The latter may prevent educators from viewing being a head of a learning area as dumping the work of the HOD on them and thus not as advancement, empowerment or recognition of their abilities or as achievement (cf. 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.3).

Advancement and proper compensation according to qualifications and the amount of work done are very important indicators of job satisfaction. Even though some of the motivational theories regard the latter as movers, others regard them as important motivators up to a certain level (cf. 3.3.1.3). How education leaders may provide the educators' incentives, with the aim of improving their job satisfaction will thus be addressed.

6.4.4   Incentives that may enhance educator job satisfaction

Salaries are determined at national level and are thus not the education leader's responsibility. However, incentives are important for job satisfaction insofar as compensation plays a role in satisfying the physiological and the existence needs (cf. 3.3.1) and may thus contribute to dissatisfaction (cf. 3.3.1.3). Appropriate incentives over and above the normal salaries may for that reason contribute to the job satisfaction of educators and may be accounted for by education leaders in the following ways:

- Attending courses or seminars that may contribute to personal and professional growth; for example leadership and EI evaluation and/or coaching, motivational speakers, positive techniques on improving time management, discipline, well-known learning area professionals and professional sport coaches.

- Non-monetary compensation in the form of team-building activities, such as pool, tennis or golf competitions among the staff initiated by the education leaders or their delegates.

- Organising functions, for instance at the beginning/end of the year or term to let educators know one another better to improve interpersonal relations, understanding and morale by creating a caring emotional environment amongst educators (cf. 5.4.4).

- Eating out together to celebrate achievements or functions after extra-curricular activities in which the whole staff should be involved (cf. 5.4.4).

- Creating leadership actions that just break the routine may additionally be considered. These may include time off, considered as a mover (cf. 3.3.1.3; 3.3.1.5), or just challenging the way things are always done by doing them in new and more effective ways (cf. 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6).

- Compensating educators adequately according to their workload for their extra-

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curricular activities, as well as duties over and above their normal job (cf. 3.4.2.13; 5.4.2.3).

- Praising educators' achievements personally and in public to let educators know they are accomplishing something meaningful.

Notwithstanding the abovementioned, the implementation of departmental policies and practices and the policies themselves may still impede job satisfaction.

6.4.5 The implementation of departmental policies and practices

The implementation of departmental policies and practices are another major cause of frustration and dissatisfaction in which education leaders have very little say. The problem seems to be the excessive administration required and the lack of autonomy and creativity allowed as the system emphasises 'how' things should be done and not 'what' should be done (cf. 5.4.2.1).

In order to implement departmental policies and practices, education leaders should:

- Be up to date on what the policies and practices entail by gathering all available information and attending training courses and seminars (cf. 4.6.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6 5.4.2.1).

- Provide all available information regarding policies and practices to educators (cf. 3.4.2.8; 3.4.2.9).

- Keep procedures simple and avoid complicating matters as far as possible by adding further administration and requirements to those of the department, unless they accommodate the simplification of the process (cf. 2.7; 3.4; 5.4.2.1).

- Enthusiastically communicate an optimistic vision of what should be accomplished by means of sensible and achievable goals that focus on what the important values and beliefs are (cf. 2.6.1.1; 2.6.3; 3.4.2.1; 4.6.2.2; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.2.4; 5.4.3.1).

- Plan and manage the change implied by new policies and practices so as to minimise confusion, anxiety, frustration and stress and to improve job satisfaction

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(cf. 2.6.3).

- Break big projects or changes up into small systematic, manageable and achievable steps. Empower and develop educators by engaging them in teamwork and training that may contribute to their personal growth (cf. 4.6.3.2; 4.6; 5.4.3.6).

- Involve and allow educators to contribute to transparent school policies and practices and a work distribution where ideas, information and problems should be communicated openly. Such participatory decision making will allow educators to experience buy-in and ownership, while at the same time, alleviating stress (cf. 3.4.2.8; 5.4.3.7).

- Implement group work where educators may share ideas and support one another.

- Do the work allocation in such a way as to allow educators to specialise in a specific learning area in which they are talented, interested and proficient, so as to enhance achievement and self-worth. Do not divide learning areas between as many educators as possible (cf. 3.4.2.2; 3.4.2.3; 3.4.2.9; 3.4.3; 5.4.2.4).

- Create a positive school culture by being an exemplary role model, taking assertive and confident actions and by being optimistic about opportunities and their outcomes. Do not focus on actual or possible problems, but take full responsibility for the outcomes without blaming others for mistakes ((cf. 2.6; 4.7; 5.4.3.4).

- Focus on positive aspects by influencing educators positively through focusing on opportunities and through constructive feedback by managing emotions as they are very contagious – negativity is even more contagious (cf. 2.6.3; 2.7; 4.6).

- Make use of intrinsic motivators; for example trust, achievement, autonomy, responsibility and creativity within reasonable limits. Do not focus on the extrinsic motivators (cf. 3.2; 3.3; 3.3.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.2).

- Recognise and show appreciation for achieving goals – celebrate achievements and let others know about them (cf. 4.6.2.2; 4.6.2.3; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.2.2.2).

- Coach, support, listen and be consistent; show respect, consideration and empathy towards educators who experience stressful problems or feelings of incompetence because of change, but keep a perspective between people and task orientation (cf. 2.6; 3.4.3; 4.5.1; 4.6; 5.4.3.4).

- Do not ignore problems – persevere. Ignoring problems may be perceived as

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incompetence or uncaring behaviour (cf. 2.6.3; 4.6).

- Decisions should consider the best interests and welfare of the learners, as well as the educators (cf. 2.6.1; 2.6.3; 4.2.2; 4.5.1; 4.6).

- Be considerate of the workload implied. Allow educators personal time in a work-life balance. An excessive workload may result in educators leaving the profession, burn-out, poor relationships, detachment and low productivity (cf. 2.6.3; 5.4.2.3.2).

6.5   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has revealed limitations, such as the fact that:

- it was an exploratory study with a relatively small purposive convenient sample; an investigation with a larger sample, representative of different groups, cultures and environments, should be conducted in a follow-up project in order to generalise findings;

- only schools deemed functional were included in the investigation. The rationale behind such a choice was that such schools may provide a proper guideline as to the influence of EI and leadership practices on job satisfaction. Further research may then use these data and lessons learned to conduct a more comprehensive investigation.

- self-rating should be used in conjunction with subordinate rating in EI; how leaders' actions are perceived by their subordinates. Others' ratings are especially important when the negative effects that those leaders who are unaware of their impact, as illustrated by the over-estimators, may have on their subordinates.

6.6   CONCLUDING REMARKS

The relationship between EI and leadership is complex and the further this relationship is extended the more complicated it becomes: such as when job satisfaction is added to the equation. Nonetheless, the importance of emotional intelligence to school leadership performance and the likelihood of its effect on staff members' job

satisfaction necessitate in-depth research. Fortunately, Goleman and others have shown that the bulk of scientific research in this area supports the view that emotional intelligence can be learnt. Whilst many leaders may find such exposure to EI measurement threatening, it is undoubtedly one of the first areas to address when the job satisfaction of educators is at stake. This is especially so in the South African context where numerous competent educators are leaving the sector, making it a critical issue.

The findings that emerged from this study revealed that managers who do not feel a responsibility towards others, are unaware of their own emotions, lack the ability to understand others, or erupt into anger easily are viewed as likely to derail the vision and the mission of the school due to their inability to deal with other people.

Participation in leadership development programmes that feature the development of EI is critical for long-term leadership success, as successful leaders will be able to communicate a shared vision, instill trust, and give support. Leaders who are able to control their emotions will also be able to handle conflict and establish sound personal relations. Therefore, leaders who understand their own emotions and those of others will be prepared to identify the needs of others and assist them to act effectively, creating feelings of security and autonomy among their staff members. Only leaders who are secure in themselves will be able to enhance self-actualisation among others and acknowledge their achievements.

In a bid to survive in an ever-changing and increasingly complex and dynamic school environment, exceptional employees have to be appointed; that is, leaders who care for their staff will do well to retain their staff. Since leadership is regarded as the single most important factor in organisational success or failure and as emotional intelligence abilities underlie much of effective leadership, researching determinants of establishing job satisfaction, is ever important.

Yielding valuable data, both the qualitative and quantitative methods contributed to delivering ultimate findings in terms of the relationships between EI, leadership and job satisfaction which could benefit both practical and theoretical concerns. It is envisaged

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that the outcomes of this study will form the inception of future leadership development towards the improvement of South African schools.

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Table 4.14: **Multiple comparisons of the job satisfaction of respondents according to qualification level**

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Qualifications	(J) Qualifications	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Achievement	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.226	.214	.830	-.82	.37
		REQV 15	-.071	.243	.998	-.74	.60
		REQV 16	-.154	.284	.983	-.94	.63
		REQV 17	**1.250***	**.414**	**.025**	.11	2.39
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.226	.214	.830	-.37	.82
		REQV 15	.154	.156	.860	-.28	.59
		REQV 16	.072	.214	.997	-.52	.66
		REQV 17	**1.476***	**.370**	**.001**	.45	2.50
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.071	.243	.998	-.60	.74
		REQV 14	-.154	.156	.860	-.59	.28
		REQV 16	-.082	.243	.997	-.75	.59
		REQV 17	**1.321***	**.387**	**.007**	.25	2.39
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.154	.284	.983	-.63	.94
		REQV 14	-.072	.214	.997	-.66	.52
		REQV 15	.082	.243	.997	-.59	.75
		REQV 17	**1.404***	**.414**	**.008**	.26	2.55
	REQV 17	REQV 13	**-1.250***	**.414**	**.025**	-2.39	-.11
		REQV 14	**-1.476***	**.370**	**.001**	-2.50	-.45
		REQV 15	**-1.321***	**.387**	**.007**	-2.39	-.25
		REQV 16	**-1.404***	**.414**	**.008**	-2.55	-.26
Comfort	REQV 13	REQV 14	.057	.159	.996	-.38	.50
		REQV 15	-.132	.181	.949	-.63	.37
		REQV 16	.154	.211	.949	-.43	.74
		REQV 17	**.904***	**.308**	**.031**	.05	1.75
	REQV 14	REQV 13	-.057	.159	.996	-.50	.38
		REQV 15	-.189	.116	.482	-.51	.13
		REQV 16	.097	.159	.974	-.34	.54
		REQV 17	**.847***	**.275**	**.020**	.09	1.61
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.132	.181	.949	-.37	.63
		REQV 14	.189	.116	.482	-.13	.51
		REQV 16	.286	.181	.511	-.21	.78
		REQV 17	**1.036***	**.288**	**.004**	.24	1.83
	REQV 16	REQV 13	-.154	.211	.949	-.74	.43
		REQV 14	-.097	.159	.974	-.54	.34

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		REQV 15	-.286	.181	.511	-.78	.21
		REQV 17	.750	.308	.111	-.10	1.60
	REQV 17	REQV 13	-.904*	.308	.031	-1.75	-.05
		REQV 14	-.847*	.275	.020	-1.61	-.09
		REQV 15	-1.036*	.288	.004	-1.83	-.24
		REQV 16	-.750	.308	.111	-1.60	.10
Status	REQV 13	REQV 14	.050	.231	.999	-.59	.69
		REQV 15	.096	.261	.996	-.63	.82
		REQV 16	.000	.305	1.000	-.84	.84
		REQV 17	1.096	.445	.105	-.13	2.33
	REQV 14	REQV 13	-.050	.231	.999	-.69	.59
		REQV 15	.046	.168	.999	-.42	.51
		REQV 16	-.050	.231	.999	-.69	.59
		REQV 17	1.046	.398	.070	-.05	2.14
	REQV 15	REQV 13	-.096	.261	.996	-.82	.63
		REQV 14	-.046	.168	.999	-.51	.42
		REQV 16	-.096	.261	.996	-.82	.63
		REQV 17	1.000	.416	.120	-.15	2.15
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.000	.305	1.000	-.84	.84
		REQV 14	.050	.231	.999	-.59	.69
		REQV 15	.096	.261	.996	-.63	.82
		REQV 17	1.096	.445	.105	-.13	2.33
	REQV 17	REQV 13	-1.096	.445	.105	-2.33	.13
		REQV 14	-1.046	.398	.070	-2.14	.05
		REQV 15	-1.000	.416	.120	-2.15	.15
		REQV 16	-1.096	.445	.105	-2.33	.13
Altruism	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.099	.175	.980	-.58	.38
		REQV 15	-.080	.199	.994	-.63	.47
		REQV 16	-.231	.232	.857	-.87	.41
		REQV 17	.635	.338	.335	-.30	1.57
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.099	.175	.980	-.38	.58
		REQV 15	.020	.128	1.000	-.33	.37
		REQV 16	-.132	.175	.944	-.62	.35
		REQV 17	.734	.302	.113	-.10	1.57
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.080	.199	.994	-.47	.63
		REQV 14	-.020	.128	1.000	-.37	.33
		REQV 16	-.151	.199	.941	-.70	.40
		REQV 17	.714	.316	.164	-.16	1.59
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.231	.232	.857	-.41	.87
		REQV 14	.132	.175	.944	-.35	.62
		REQV 15	.151	.199	.941	-.40	.70
		REQV 17	.865	.338	.084	-.07	1.80
	REQV 17	REQV 13	-.635	.338	.335	-1.57	.30
		REQV 14	-.734	.302	.113	-1.57	.10
		REQV 15	-.714	.316	.164	-1.59	.16
		REQV 16	-.865	.338	.084	-1.80	.07
Safety	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.203	.274	.946	-.96	.55
		REQV 15	-.212	.311	.960	-1.07	.65

		REQV 16	-.385	.363	.827	-1.39	.62
		REQV 17	.538	.530	.847	-.92	2.00
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.203	.274	.946	-.55	.96
		REQV 15	-.008	.200	1.000	-.56	.54
		REQV 16	-.181	.274	.964	-.94	.58
		REQV 17	.742	.473	.520	-.56	2.05
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.212	.311	.960	-.65	1.07
		REQV 14	.008	.200	1.000	-.54	.56
		REQV 16	-.173	.311	.981	-1.03	.69
		REQV 17	.750	.495	.554	-.62	2.12
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.385	.363	.827	-.62	1.39
		REQV 14	.181	.274	.964	-.58	.94
		REQV 15	.173	.311	.981	-.69	1.03
		REQV 17	.923	.530	.411	-.54	2.39
	REQV 17	REQV 13	-.538	.530	.847	-2.00	.92
		REQV 14	-.742	.473	.520	-2.05	.56
		REQV 15	-.750	.495	.554	-2.12	.62
		REQV 16	-.923	.530	.411	-2.39	.54
Autonomy	REQV 13	REQV 14	-.052	.255	1.000	-.76	.65
		REQV 15	-.066	.289	.999	-.86	.73
		REQV 16	.000	.338	1.000	-.93	.93
		REQV 17	1.327	.493	.060	-.03	2.69
	REQV 14	REQV 13	.052	.255	1.000	-.65	.76
		REQV 15	-.014	.186	1.000	-.53	.50
		REQV 16	.052	.255	1.000	-.65	.76
		REQV 17	**1.379***	**.440**	**.018**	.16	2.59
	REQV 15	REQV 13	.066	.289	.999	-.73	.86
		REQV 14	.014	.186	1.000	-.50	.53
		REQV 16	.066	.289	.999	-.73	.86
		REQV 17	**1.393***	**.461**	**.024**	.12	2.67
	REQV 16	REQV 13	.000	.338	1.000	-.93	.93
		REQV 14	-.052	.255	1.000	-.76	.65
		REQV 15	-.066	.289	.999	-.86	.73
		REQV 17	1.327	.493	.060	-.03	2.69
	REQV 17	REQV 13	**-1.327**	**.493**	**.060**	-2.69	.03
		REQV 14	**-1.379***	**.440**	**.018**	-2.59	-.16
		REQV 15	**-1.393***	**.461**	**.024**	-2.67	-.12
		REQV 16	-1.327	.493	.060	-2.69	.03

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.18: MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION OF
RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO EXPERIENCE

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Teaching experience	(J) Teaching experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Achievement	3-5 years	6-10 years	.563	.265	.214	-.17	1.29
		11-15 years	.567	.216	.070	-.03	1.16
		16-20 years	.742*	.225	.011	.12	1.36
		20+ years	.670*	.203	.010	.11	1.23
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.563	.265	.214	-1.29	.17
		11-15 years	.004	.231	1.000	-.63	.64
		16-20 years	.179	.240	.946	-.48	.84
		20+ years	.107	.219	.988	-.50	.71
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.567	.216	.070	-1.16	.03
		6-10 years	-.004	.231	1.000	-.64	.63
		16-20 years	.175	.185	.879	-.34	.68
		20+ years	.103	.157	.965	-.33	.54
	16-20 years	3-5 years	-.742*	.225	.011	-1.36	-.12
		6-10 years	-.179	.240	.946	-.84	.48
		11-15 years	-.175	.185	.879	-.68	.34
		20+ years	-.071	.170	.993	-.54	.40
	20+ years	3-5 years	-.670*	.203	.010	-1.23	-.11
		6-10 years	-.107	.219	.988	-.71	.50
		11-15 years	-.103	.157	.965	-.54	.33
		16-20 years	.071	.170	.993	-.40	.54
Comfort	3-5 years	6-10 years	.328	.196	.455	-.21	.87
		11-15 years	.332	.160	.237	-.11	.77
		16-20 years	.506*	.167	.024	.04	.97
		20+ years	.435*	.151	.036	.02	.85
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.328	.196	.455	-.87	.21
		11-15 years	.004	.171	1.000	-.47	.48
		16-20 years	.179	.178	.853	-.31	.67

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower	Upper
		20+ years	.107	.162	.965	-.34	.56
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.332	.160	.237	-.77	.11
		6-10 years	-.004	.171	1.000	-.48	.47
		16-20 years	.175	.137	.707	-.20	.55
		20+ years	.103	.116	.901	-.22	.42
	16-20 years	3-5 years	**-.506***	**.167**	**.024**	-.97	-.04
		6-10 years	-.179	.178	.853	-.67	.31
		11-15 years	-.175	.137	.707	-.55	.20
		20+ years	-.071	.126	.980	-.42	.28
	20+ years	3-5 years	**-.435***	**.151**	**.036**	-.85	-.02
		6-10 years	-.107	.162	.965	-.56	.34
		11-15 years	-.103	.116	.901	-.42	.22
		16-20 years	.071	.126	.980	-.28	.42
Status	3-5 years	6-10 years	.345	.285	.745	-.44	1.13
		11-15 years	.253	.232	.811	-.39	.89
		16-20 years	.416	.243	.428	-.25	1.09
		20+ years	.327	.218	.567	-.28	.93
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.345	.285	.745	-1.13	.44
		11-15 years	-.091	.248	.996	-.78	.60
		16-20 years	.071	.258	.999	-.64	.78
		20+ years	-.018	.236	1.000	-.67	.63
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.253	.232	.811	-.89	.39
		6-10 years	.091	.248	.996	-.60	.78
		16-20 years	.163	.199	.925	-.39	.71
		20+ years	.073	.169	.992	-.39	.54
	16-20 years	3-5 years	-.416	.243	.428	-1.09	.25
		6-10 years	-.071	.258	.999	-.78	.64
		11-15 years	-.163	.199	.925	-.71	.39
		20+ years	-.089	.183	.988	-.59	.42
	20+ years	3-5 years	-.327	.218	.567	-.93	.28
		6-10 years	.018	.236	1.000	-.63	.67
		11-15 years	-.073	.169	.992	-.54	.39
		16-20 years	.089	.183	.988	-.42	.59
Altruism	3-5 years	6-10 years	.206	.215	.874	-.39	.80
		11-15 years	.206	.175	.766	-.28	.69
		16-20 years	.384	.183	.226	-.12	.89
		20+ years	.277	.165	.449	-.18	.73
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.206	.215	.874	-.80	.39

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		11-15 years	.000	.188	1.000	-.52	.52
		16-20 years	.179	.195	.891	-.36	.72
		20+ years	.071	.178	.994	-.42	.56
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.206	.175	.766	-.69	.28
		6-10 years	.000	.188	1.000	-.52	.52
		16-20 years	.179	.150	.758	-.24	.59
		20+ years	.071	.127	.980	-.28	.42
	16-20 years	3-5 years	-.384	.183	.226	-.89	.12
		6-10 years	-.179	.195	.891	-.72	.36
		11-15 years	-.179	.150	.758	-.59	.24
		20+ years	-.107	.138	.937	-.49	.27
	20+ years	3-5 years	-.277	.165	.449	-.73	.18
		6-10 years	-.071	.178	.994	-.56	.42
		11-15 years	-.071	.127	.980	-.42	.28
		16-20 years	.107	.138	.937	-.27	.49
Safety	3-5 years	6-10 years	.462	.330	.628	-.45	1.37
		11-15 years	.315	.269	.767	-.43	1.06
		16-20 years	.676	.281	.119	-.10	1.45
		20+ years	.569	.253	.168	-.13	1.27
	6-10 years	3-5 years	-.462	.330	.628	-1.37	.45
		11-15 years	-.147	.288	.986	-.94	.65
		16-20 years	.214	.299	.953	-.61	1.04
		20+ years	.107	.273	.995	-.65	.86
	11-15 years	3-5 years	-.315	.269	.767	-1.06	.43
		6-10 years	.147	.288	.986	-.65	.94
		16-20 years	.361	.230	.520	-.28	1.00
		20+ years	.254	.195	.691	-.29	.79
	16-20 years	3-5 years	-.676	.281	.119	-1.45	.10
		6-10 years	-.214	.299	.953	-1.04	.61
		11-15 years	-.361	.230	.520	-1.00	.28
		20+ years	-.107	.212	.987	-.69	.48
	20+ years	3-5 years	-.569	.253	.168	-1.27	.13
		6-10 years	-.107	.273	.995	-.86	.65
		11-15 years	-.254	.195	.691	-.79	.29
		16-20 years	.107	.212	.987	-.48	.69
Autonomy	3-5 years	6-10 years	.458	.316	.597	-.41	1.33
		11-15 years	.446	.258	.418	-.27	1.16

	16-20 years	.494	.269	.358	-.25	1.24
	20+ years	.547	.242	.165	-.12	1.22
6-10 years	3-5 years	-.458	.316	.597	-1.33	.41
	11-15 years	-.012	.276	1.000	-.77	.75
	16-20 years	.036	.287	1.000	-.76	.83
	20+ years	.089	.262	.997	-.63	.81
11-15 years	3-5 years	-.446	.258	.418	-1.16	.27
	6-10 years	.012	.276	1.000	-.75	.77
	16-20 years	.048	.221	1.000	-.56	.66
	20+ years	.101	.187	.983	-.42	.62
16-20 years	3-5 years	-.494	.269	.358	-1.24	.25
	6-10 years	-.036	.287	1.000	-.83	.76
	11-15 years	-.048	.221	1.000	-.66	.56
	20+ years	.054	.203	.999	-.51	.61
20+ years	3-5 years	-.547	.242	.165	-1.22	.12
	6-10 years	-.089	.262	.997	-.81	.63
	11-15 years	-.101	.187	.983	-.62	.42
	16-20 years	-.054	.203	.999	-.61	.51

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.